SUCCESSIVE GOVERNORS.

From	To.	Name.
Jan. 26, 1788	Dec. 10, 1792	PHILLIP, R.N., Captain A., Governor of N. S. W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 11, 1792	Dec. 12, 1794	GROSE, Major F., Commandant of the N.S.W. Corps, Lieutenant-Governor of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 13, 1794	Sep. 1, 1795	PATERSON, Captain, Senior Officer of the N.S.W. Corps, Lieutenant-Governor of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Sep. 7, 1795	Sep. 27, 1800	HUNTER, R.N., Captain John, Governor of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Sep. 28, 1800	Aug. 12, 1806	KING, R.N., Captain Philip Gidley, Governor of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Aug. 13, 1806	Jan. 26, 1808	BLIGH, R.N., Captain William, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
		During Governor Bligh's suspension the Government was successively administered by
Jan. 26, 1808	Dec. 28, 1809	JOHNSTONE, Lieutenant-Colonel G. / FOVEAUX, Lieutenant-Colonel / PATERSON, Colonel Wm. — All of the N. S. Wales Corps, afterwards 102nd Regiment.
Jan. 1, 1810	Dec. 1, 1821	MACQUARIE, Major-General Lachlan, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 1, 1821	Dec. 1, 1825	BRISBANE, K.C.B., Major-General Sir Thomas, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 6, 1825	Dec. 18, 1825	STEWART, Colonel, 3rd Regiment of Foot (or Buffs,) Acting Governor for the time being of N.S.W. and its Dependencies, with the advice of the two Senior Members of the Council.
Dec. 19, 1825	Oct. 21, 1831	DARLING, General Ralph, Commanding His Majesty's Forces, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Oct. 22, 1831	Dec. 2, 1831	LINDESAY, C.B., Colonel Patrick, the Senior Military Officer in command of His Majesty's Forces, Acting Governor N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 3, 1831	Dec. 5, 1837	BOURKE, K.C.B., Major-General Sir Richard, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Dec. 6, 1837	Feb. 23, 1838	SNODGRASS, Colonel Kenneth, Senior Military Officer, Captain-General and Acting Governor N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Feb. 24, 1838	July 11, 1846	GIPPS, Knt., Sir George, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
July 12, 1846	Aug. 2, 1846	O'CONNELL, K.C.H., Lieut.-General Sir Maurice Charles, Senior Military Officer, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Aug. 3, 1846	Jan. 17, 1855	FITZROY, K.C.H., Sir Charles Augustus, Governor-General of all H.M. Australian Possessions and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies.
Jan. 20, 1855	Jan. 22, 1861	DENISON, K.C.B., Sir William Thomas, Governor-General of H.M. Colonies of N.S.W., Tasmania, Victoria, South Australia, and Western Australia, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies and Vice-Admiral of the same.
Jan. 23, 1861	Mar. 21, 1861	KEMPT, Lieutenant-Colonel John Francis, H.M. 12th Regiment, Senior Military Officer, Administrator of the Colony of N.S.W.
Mar. 22, 1861	Dec. 24, 1867	YOUNG, Bart. P.C., K.C.B., G.C.M.G., Right Hon. Sir John,* Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. and its Dependencies, and Vice-Admiral of the same.
Dec. 25, 1867	Jan. 7, 1868	CHUTE, K.C.B., Sir Trevor, Senior Military Officer, Administrator of the Government of N.S.W.
Jan. 8, 1868	Feb. 22, 1872	BELMORE, P.C., Right Hon. Somerset Richard, Earl of, Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of N.S.W. and Vice-Admiral of the same.
Feb. 23, 1872	June 2, 1872	STEPHEN, C.B., Sir Alfred, Administrator.
June 3, 1872	Mar. 19, 1879	ROBINSON, Knt., G.C.M.G., Sir Hercules George Robert, Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of N-S.W. and Vice-Admiral of the same.
Mar. 20, 1879	Aug. 3, 1879	STEPHEN, Knt., K.C.M.G., C.B., Sir Alfred, Lieutenant-Governor.
Aug. 4, 1879	Nov. 9, 1885	LOFTUS, P.C., G.C.B., The Right Hon. Sir Augustus William Frederick Spencer, Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of N.S.W.
Nov. 10, 1885	Dec. 11, 1885	STEPHEN, Knt., G.C.M.G., C.B., Sir Alfred, Lieutenant-Governor.
Dec. 12, 1885	....	CARRINGTON, P.C., G.C.M.G., Right Hon. Charles Robert Baron, Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of N.S.W.

*The title from March 22 to May 15, 1861, was that of Administrator, owing to the Letters Patent not having arrived.

GOVERNOR.

LORD CARRINGTON (CHARLES ROBERT CARINGTON), P.C., G.C.M.G.—Joint Hereditary Lord ; Great Chamberlain of England ; educated at Eton and Cambridge, B.A., 1863 ; Captain Royal Horse Guards, 1865 ; M.P. for High Wycombe, 1865 to 1868 ; served as A.D.C. to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales in India, 1875–76 ; Lieutenant-Colonel 3rd Battalion Oxfordshire Light Infantry, 1881 ; Captain Honorable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms (Queen's Body Guard), 1881 to 1885 ; a member of the Privy Council ; a Magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant of Bucks.—Married Cecilia Margaret, eldest daughter of 5th Lord Suffield, by whom he has three daughters.

Private Secretary.—E. W. Wallington ; educated at Oxford, B.A., 1877 ; late Private Secretary to Sir G. William des Vœux, Governor of Fiji ; is a Lieutenant in the 3rd Battalion Oxfordshire Light Infantry.

Aide-de-Camp.—Captain Gascoigne, Yorkshire Hussars ; late Captain Royal Horse Guards ; served in the Egyptian campaign of 1884–5 ; was present with the Intelligence Department at the battles of Abukléa and Gubat, and went with Sir C. Wilson to Khartoum ; medal and clasps.

Extra Aides-de-Camp.—Lord Bertie, Lieutenant 4th Battalion Northamptonshire Regiment. Mr. W. Terry, Lieutenant 3rd Battalian Oxfordshire Light Infantry. Mr. R. C. Leigh, Lieutenant 3rd Battalion Oxfordshire Light Infantry.

Mounted Orderlies—Sergeant, one, 9s. 6d. per diem.
Orderlies.—Three at 7s.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.—Sir ALFRED STEPHEN, G.C.M.G., C.B. (civil), third son of the late John Stephen a Judge of the Supreme Court of New South Wales ; born 20th August, 1802, on the Island of St. Christopher, West Indies, and educated at the Charter House and the Grammar School of Honiton, Devonshire. He married firstly in 1824, Virginia, a daughter of Matthew Consett, Esq. ; and secondly in 1838, Eleanor, daughter of the Rev. William Bedford, D.D., Chaplain of Tasmania ; was called to the Bar in 1823 (Lincoln's Inn,) and appointed a Judge of the Supreme Court of New South Wales in 1839, having previously held for several years the offices of Solicitor-General and Attorney-General of Tasmania ; was Chief Justice from October, 1844, to November, 1873 ; knighted in 1846 ; created a C.B. in 1862 ; a K.C.M.G. in 1874 ; Lieutenant-Governor in 1875 ; and a G.C.M.G. in 1884 ; was President of the Legislative Council created in 1856, but resigned the following year. On the retirement of Earl Belmore, he administered the Government from 23rd February, 1872, to 4th June, 1872 ; also officiated as Lieutenant-Governor on the departure of Governor Robinson, from 20th March, 1879, to 3rd August, 1879 ; and on the retirement of Governor Loftus, from 10th November, 1885, to 11th December, 1885. By Her Majesty's Warrant or Commission dated the 25th November, 1875, Sir Alfred Stephen was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of New South Wales ; with succession to the Government, as Administrator thereof, on the death or absence of the Governor. In case of death or absence of both, the Government will devolve on the President of the Legislative Council.

The Governor directs it to be made known, for general information, that he will receive public officers, or other persons wishing to see him on public business, on Wednesday in each week, between the hours of 11 a.m. and 2 p.m. At the same time, His Excellency wishes it to be clearly understood that gentlemen from the country, or other persons wishing to communicate with him personally on business which will admit of no delay, will be received on any day, at any hour that he may happen to be at home.

D. Fitzroy.

This introduction to an historical work on Australasian Discovery and Colonisation is respectfully inscribed to Sir Alfred Stephen C.B. C.C.M.G. Lieutenant Governor by the author in testimony of his grateful sense of the benevolence of his patron and benefactor who so liberally and considerately softened the rigour of his late painful illness.

True philanthrophy springs from the heart
Benevolent principle dictates acts so kind
While earnest-souled friendships impart
Love and esteem that calmed my troubled mind.

October 29th 1885.

Introduction to an historical work

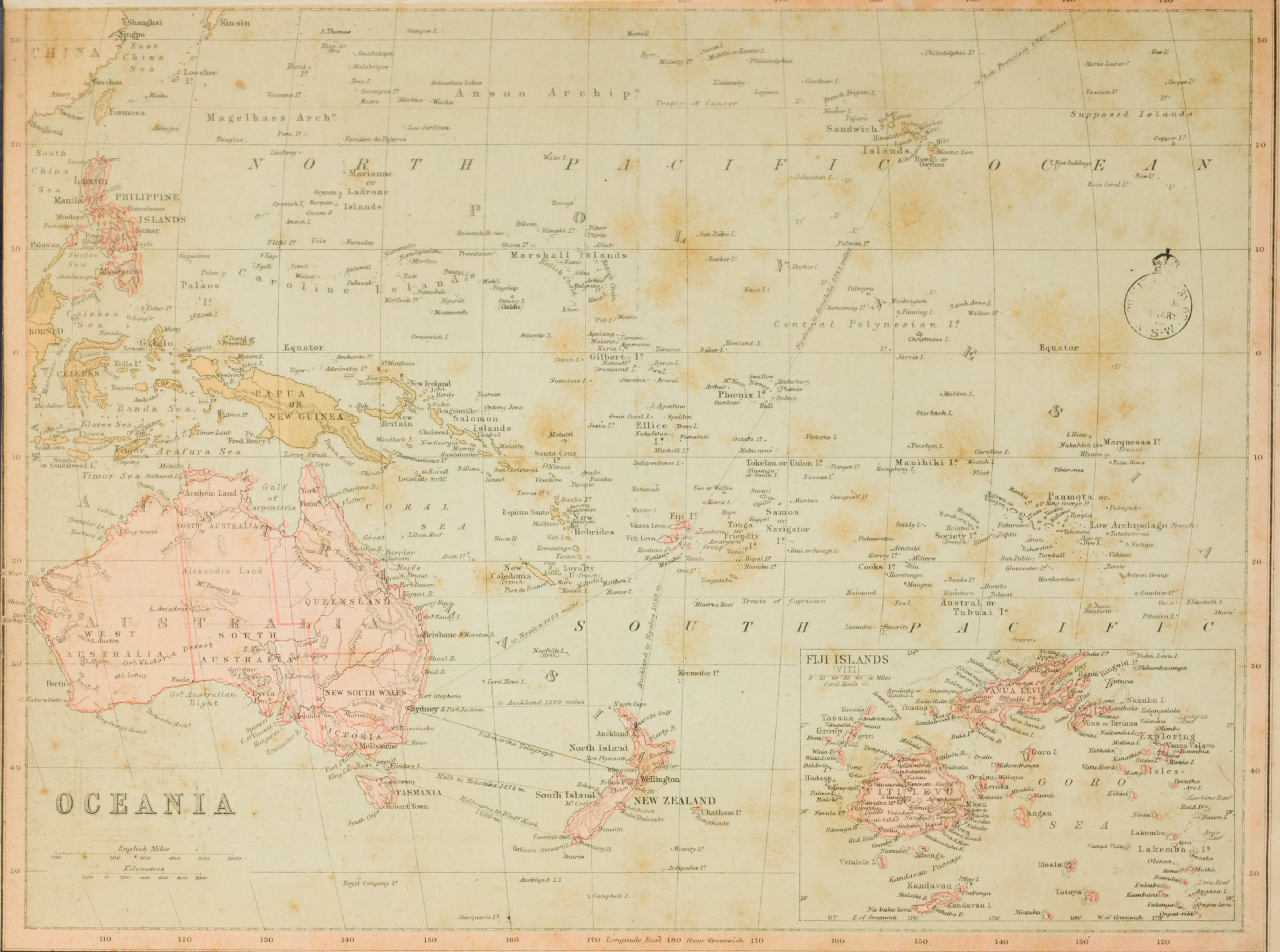
on

Australasian Discovery and Colonisation

by

Wm Wentworth Huntington

August 29th 1885



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HISTORY OF AUSTRALASIA.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION—OUTLINE OF AUSTRALASIA—GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES OF AUSTRALIA.

"TRUTH is stranger than fiction," but in no way is this affirmation more accurately illustrated than in the history of the discovery and colonisation of Australasia, which exhibits stirring and romantic incidents of transcendant interest almost rivalling the romances of the Argonauts. The last century has been an eventful period in the history of nations; an era remarkable for political revolutions, foreign wars and diplomacies, and geographical and scientific discoveries. Since the American war of independence, England became a mother of nations by her noble work of colonisation. She has acquired a more extensive dominion of colonies than any other nation—for in Australasia, America, India, Africa and the Atlantic Ocean her colonial possessions embrace an area of four million square miles, with a white and coloured population of about one hundred and fifty millions. The abolition of her old colonial system of excluding foreign nations from direct commercial intercourse with her colonies (a system established to promote the exchange of British for colonial products, and find employment for her navy) has had the effect of extending her trade and manufactures as well as the commerce of her colonies and all trading countries. Unquestionably the extension and advancement of her maritime power owe much to her antipodean offshoots, which are incomparably of more value to her than any other portion of her colonial dominions, they having assumed a state of greatness and prosperity unexampled in the annals of colonisation. Founded by peaceful maritime enterprise, they have emerged from a transmarine gaol into the wealthiest communities of freemen in the world. Scarcely a century ago they were subservient to the rule of savage blacks, while the spirit of enterprise is now rapidly converting their social, commercial and political power into nationhood that is inferior to none of the empires of the universe. The centenary of the parent colony of the Australias, the cradle wherein has been nursed the sister colonies and all the civilisation of the antipodes, justify the publication of an historical work on the rise and progress of an empire destined to be "a new Britannia in another world." Deeply impressed with the importance and magnitude of such a work, the author of these pages does not arrogate to himself any superior literary merit to those historians that have preceded him. His aim is to give a succinct and clear narrative of colonial events, which, after years of laborious research, he has culled from official records, the despatches of colonial governors, the unpublished diaries of old colonists, and many authoritative sources. However deficient in literary merit the work may be, he feels assured that it will set at rest many vexed questions of early colonial history, while the facts chronicled will be found remarkably interesting and authentic. As a faithful historian, it will be his duty to relate the successive changes of the state of colonial society, whether savage or civilised, as well as the progress of colonial art and industries. Records of occurrences that may appear trifling matters he has noted, as they indicate in a most striking manner the progress of young colonies. It will be his duty to trace the dark and painful difficulties that beset the career of the colonies in their infancy, before they had outgrown the stigma of their origin. Many colonial patriots endeavour to bury in oblivion the early penal character of the colonies' growth; but the wealth and fame of colonial progress, settlement and productive enterprise, assimilated with the history of the colonists, forms one of the grandest reformations that has ever transpired on the face of the earth, the remembrance of which historians and philosophers desire to perpetuate. The author has ventured to exert his best abilities to describe the gradual progress of emigration, from a few scattered free colonists who for nearly half a century formed the only voluntary addition to the population to the time when immigrants landed in tens of thousands from all parts of the civilised world. He will pourtray the alienation of lands from the period when a bribe of convict labour with free rations was necessary to induce the colonists to accept it, until the date when it was sold at the rate of many thousands of pounds per acre. He will delineate the expansion of trade from almost primitive barter to the steady import and export of many millions sterling. The rapid progress of that vast pastoral interest (the source of incalculable wealth), from the few merino sheep imported in 1796 by McArthur to the hundreds of fine-woolled sheep now roaming over Australia, will be treated at considerable length. Australia's mineral resources, natural beauties, genial climate and different forms of liberal government will fill many an instructive chapter. Above all, the marvellous transformation by which the abhorred penal colonies became the only country in all the world where population was rapidly augmented, labour always demanded and best rewarded, and human existence most easily sustained, will be faithfully recorded. Hitherto colonial histories have given only vague and superficial information respecting the progress of colonisation, but the aim of the author of this work is to furnish full and detailed chronicles of colonial events, so as to render his history a standard work of reference, professing in its plan a material preference over any similar production.

OUTLINE OF AUSTRALASIA.

Australasia is a name etymologically equivalent to Southern Asia, which vaguely means the southern regions of Asia; while the term Australasia definitely indicates those countries which are spread over a great expanse of ocean south and south-east of Asia, between the Malayan or Indian Archipelago and Polynesia proper, and which could not properly be considered as belonging to Asia. In modern geography it is considered the fifth of the great geographical divisions of the globe. The land area of its islands and groups is about four million square miles, and its population, including aboriginal tribes, about two-and-a-half millions. For a series of ages geographers were only acquainted with the old world of Europe, Asia and Libya (Africa); and even as late as the 15th century, when America was added as a fourth division of the world, there were extensive countries unknown to the geographical knowledge of the day. Theoretical geographers imagined that the Antarctic Pole was surrounded by a continent, which they designated Terra Australis, because they held a fanciful belief in the necessity of an equilibrium in the solid parts of the surface of the earth. They perceived that all the parts of the world then discovered lay on the north side of the equator, and by hypothesis and conjecture they endeavoured to introduce into the arrangements of nature the idea of a southern continent, as a counterpoise to the wide-spread countries in the northern regions. The plausibility of these conjectures and speculations excited a spirit of discovery in different nations, who, after the finding of America, vied with each other to discover the Terra Australis Incognita. Although for a century the numerous voyages undertaken to discover the southern continent proved unsuccessful, they were not unproductive of useful results, for they enlarged the geographical knowledge of the world by the discovery of numerous countries, and dissipated many erroneous conclusions for the development of truth. Some idea may be formed of the imperfection of maritime geography towards the close of the last century, and the rapid progress it has since made, when it is stated that the eminent English hydrographer, Alexander Dalrymple, astonished English geographers when he asserted, in 1770, that Australia was not then a matter of recent discovery, but that it had been seen by De Quiros (or De Quer) in 1604, and by Tasman in 1642; adding, without hesitation or doubt, that "the countries intermediate—equal in extent to all the civilised parts of Asia, from Turkey to China inclusive—still remain unexplored;" nay, more, that "it extended from 30 deg. south to the Pole, and that the number of its inhabitants were probably more than 50,000,000." All these facts he declared were in the Spanish and Portuguese voyages to the South Pacific Ocean. However, it was not until after the publication of Captain Cook's voyages and discoveries that the errors of these speculative geopraphers were corrected. Geographers have different methods of arranging under separate heads the almost innumerable islands scattered over the Indian (or Ethiopic), the Atlantic and the Pacifin Oceans. The first to attempt a geographical classification of the islands and archipelagoes was the learned President De Brosses, who in 1756, in his admirable work entitled "Historie des Navigatione and Terres Australis," suggested that all the lands and islands of the Austral world should be divided into three portions corresponding to the three great oceans. He proposed that those countries to the south of Asia and in the Indian Ocean should be called Australasia, while to those that diversify the Southern and Pacific Oceans he gave the comprehensive name of

Polynesia (from the multitude of islands), and those in the Atlantic south of the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn he designated Magellanica, The last, however, became unnecessary when it was found that the Terra Australis Incognita virtually had no existence south of Magellan's Straits. It did not seem convenient for geographers to add the countries lying south of Asia and in the Pacific Ocean either to Asia or to America, so De Brosses devised the name Australasia, which comprehends all of them, and at the same time expresses their situation. The denomination of "Austral Lands" has been thought very objectionable, while the appellation of "Southern Indies" is simply ridiculous, because many of those regions are nearer to America than Asia or India, and most of them are not above 20 degrees south of the equator. Recent German geographers have considered the terms Australasia and Polynesia as synonymous, and in contradiction to the first inventor of those appellations; but De Brosses adopted the above-mentioned distribution, since they cannot be blended under one common appellation, and for seveal reasons it is preferable to consider them as two great and distant divisions of the globe. The two divisions (Australasia and Polynesia), as assigned by De Brosses, have been approved of by Dalrymple and nearly all English geographers; the French and most of the continental geographers, however, apply the term Oceanica to all the islands in the Eastern Sea and in the Pacific Ocean between 35 deg. north and 56 deg. south lat., and the name of Polynesia to the small islands, including the continent of Australia. The Germans changed the name Terra Australis (which was applied to the Australasian group) to that of Australia; but the latter name was, on the suggestion of Captain Flinders, more conveniently applied and now universally used as the name only of the island-continent of Australia. Within the last half century much has been written concerning the races of human beings scattered over the almost innumerable islands of the Indian, Southern, and Pacific Oceans. The ethonography of the races of Australia and the countries north of New Guinea would point to a common aboriginal stock, but they widely differ in their features, manners, dispositions, and languages; and there seems no satisfactory reason for extending the geographical limits of the Australasian group beyond New Guinea and its eastern islands. Not only are the native races and fauna of the two geographical divisions essentially different, but the marsupials are the marked characteristic of the Australian group, while they are the exception in the islands of the Indian and Asiatic archipelagoes. If we adopt the equator as the northern boundary of Australasia, from 132 deg. to the 175th degree of east long., continuing a line to the 55th parallel (bending a little to take in New Zealand) for the eastern boundary, then taking another line along the same parallel to the 65th degree of east long., for the southern boundary, and a slanting line (to include Kerguelen's Land, and pass on the east sides of Timor, Coram, Mysoland Salwatty) to the starting point on the equator for the western boundary, these lines will circumscribe the whole of the islands of Australasia. The islands of St. Paul and Kerguelen are included, as they more properly belong to it, and are nearer to Australia than Africa, under which head Pinkerton had placed them. Australasia, then, consists of the island-continents of Australia (formerly called Notasia and New Holland), New Guinea (or Papua), Tasmania (or Van Dieman's Land), New Zealand, and the conterminous archipelagoes of New Britain, New Ireland, Solomon Islands, Loyalty Islands, New Hebrides, New Caledonia, Kerguelen's Islands (or Islands of Desolation), and the indefinite number of small islands scattered over the Australasian sea. North of the equator are the groups Bonin Sima, Marianes (or Ladrones), the Carolinas, and Lord Mulgrave's Islands, the inhabitants of which belong to the Malay race, except the Bonin Sima Islands, on which the Japanese have settled. Between the equator and Australia lies New Guinea, which extends W.N.W. and E.S.E. over 17 degrees of longitude. East of it lies the Admiralty group, the Louisiade Archipelago and the Islands of New Britain, New Ireland, and New Hanover. All of these islands are inhabited by nations belonging to the Austral negroes, or Papuans. Between 10 deg. S. lat. and the tropic of Capricorn lie the groups and islands of New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Fiji, Santa Cruz Archipelago, Friendly Islands, and the Dangerous Archipelago. The Marqnessas (or Mendano) Islands lie to the north of the last named group. The expansive and open waters of the Pacific form a natural boundary between the islands that belong to Asia and those of Australasia contiguous to the equator and the north-west extremity of New Guinea. In a strictly geographical point of view the Sulwatty, Batanta, Mysol, and Timor Islands belong to Australasia; but being peopled by Asiatics of the Malay tribe, and under the influence of the Dutch settlements, they are placed among the Asiatic Islands. Japan, Formosa, the Phillipines, the Mulluccas, and that long chain of islands which begin in the east and terminate in the west with Java belong to Asia; while those numerous islands lying between the Mulluccas and New Guinea are included in Australasia.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES OF AUSTRALIA.

Australia is a continental island in the south-west division of Australasia, of which it forms the nucleus. The name was formerly given indefinitely by most geographers to all the countries south of the Asiatic continent and the equatorial archipelago, of which Australia was considered the largest island. In the earliest known maps Australia is called Java le Grande; in the 17th century the Spaniards called it Terra Australis del Espiritu Sancto; in 1664 the Dutch called it Nova Hollandia; and in 1803 Captain Flinders gave it the name of Australia, which appellation it now universally bears. In size it approaches the proportion of a continent, but it is strictly defined to be an island, as indeed may either of the countries called the old world (Europe, Asia and Africa) and the new world (America). Viewed as a continent, it is the smallest, but considered as an island it is the largest in the world. It is commonly called an island-continent or Continental Australia; and as it comprises an estimated area of 2,983,263 square miles, which is only one-fifth smaller than Europe, it may well deserve the appellation of a continent. It is six times larger than India and twenty-six times larger than Great Britain and Ireland, It lies between the parallels of 10 deg. 45 min. and 38 deg. 45 min. south latitude, and the meridians of 112 deg. 20 min. and 153 deg. 30 min. east of Grenwich. The tropic of Capricorn divides it into two nearly equal parts. Australia is bounded on the north by the waters of the Arafura Sea, the Indian Ocean and Torres Straits, which divides it from New Guinea. Its shores on the south are washed by the waters of Bass' Straits (which separate it from Tasmania) and by the South Pacific Ocean, on the west by the Indian Ocean, and on the east by the South Pacific Ocean. Its circumference in round numbers is about 7750 miles, the S.E. coast from Wilson's promontory to Cape Howe being 250 miles; thence northward and inclining to E. to Breaksea Spit 950 miles; thence N.W. inclining to Cape York 1150 miles; thence W. to Cape Van Dieman about 900 miles; thence N.W. Cape S.W. 1300 miles; thence to Cape Van Leuwin S. 900 miles; thence E. and a little N. to the the bottom of the Great Australian Bight 1200 miles; and from the Bight to Wilson's Promontory 11,0C miles. Its greatest length from east to west, that is from Point Cartwright to Dirk Hartog's Point, is about 2400 miles. Its greatest breadth from north to south, that is from Cape York to Wilson's Promontory, in English measure, is about 1971 miles. Of the resulting rectangle of 5,200,000 square miles it comprises about five-sevenths, half the area of South America as the next larger continent, or ten times that of Borneo. Its nearest distance to England is about 11,000 miles. It is called the Land of Anomalies, and all its features indicate an origin dating not far back in the history of creation. Its mountain system is different to any other country, its physical structnre is incomplete, and its geological formations occur without order, and not subject to the laws prescribed by science in the other four divisions of the world. It has black swans, white eagles, crabs of an ultramarine colour, those singular insects the walking leaves, cherries growing with their stones outside, trees that shed their bark instead of leaves, quadrupeds with birds' bills, fish that are amphibious, and other phenomena of a peculiar character. Most of the coast of Continental Australia has been surveyed. Captain Cook surveyed the east coast from Cape Howe (138 deg. S. lat.) to Cape York (10 deg. 30 min. S. lat.). The coasts of Arnhem, Van Dieman's, and a large portion of De Witt's Land was surveyed by Captain P. G. King. From Cape Villant to the Depach Islands (portion of De Witt's Land) has not yet been surveyed, The coast between Depach Island and the N.W. Cape was surveyed by Captain P. G. King. Sharks' Bay and the coast for a few hundred miles northward were surveyed by Dampier. The coast south of Sharks' Bay to Cape Leuwin was surveyed in 1825, when the settlement of Swan River was formed, The south coast from Cape Leuwin to Encounter Bay was surveyed by Captain Flinders. Baudin's Land was surveyed by Baudin, and Grant's and Bass' Land to Cape Howe by Grant and Flinders. Flinders circumnavigated most of Australia, and his charts are so accurate that they have been universally adopted by the Admiralty. It is a singular fact that its longest dimensions may be said to run respectively on the same meridian and parallel of America. The parallel of America is about 25 deg., nearly the mean latitude of Australia, and the meridian is that of 142 deg. or 143 deg., nearly the mean longitude of Australasia. This meridian, when extended in either direction, goes to show that New Guinea and Tasmania were in ancient times geological continuations of Australia. The boundaries of the Australasian colonies may be thus briefly summarised.

NEW SOUTH WALES, the parent colony of Australia, is bounded on the north by the Dumaresq and M'Intyre Rivers. and the latitudinal line of 29 deg. S. The River Murray, and on the south a line drawn from its source to Cape Howe, separates it from Victoria. The South Pacific Ocean is its eastern boundary, while the meridian of long. 141 deg. E. is the boundary on the South Australian line. It originally embraced all the eastern half of Australia from Cape York to the South Cape, and inland to the westward as far as the 141 deg. meridian of E. long. Its area, by the erection into separate colonies of Victoria in 1851 and Queensland in 1859, was reduced to one-third of its former magnitude. Its present area (five times that of England and Wales) is 323,437 square miles, or 206,999,680 acres. Its extreme length from north-east to south-west is 850 miles, but the average does not exceed 500 miles. In its infancy it was the ruler of Tasmania and

the civiliser and coloniser of New Zealand, and the cradle in which Victoria, Queensland, and South Australia was nursed.

VICTORIA is situated at the south-east of Australia, between the River Murray and the South Pacific Ocean, having New South Wales to the north and east, but South Australia to the west. Being the southernmost colony of Australia, it has a better claim to the title of South Australia than its sister colony. It is about the size of Great Britain, and is above the thirtieth part of Australia. Its area is 85,831 square miles, or 55,571,860 acres. From east to west its extreme length is 420 miles, and from north to south about 260 miles. The coast line is reckoned at 600 miles.

QUEENSLAND, formerly known as the Moreton Bay district, comprises the north-east part of Australia. It is bounded on the east by the Pacific Ocean; on the west by the north extension of South Australia, formerly called "No Man's Land," but now called Northern Territory; on the north by Torres Straits; and on the south by New South Wales. It has a seaboard of 2250 miles and an area of 678,600 square miles, or 434,000,000 acres; an extent of territory equivalent to four times that of France, and nearly 12 times the area of England and Wales. Its greatest length is 19 deg. of lat., or 1300 miles, while its greatest width is 1000 miles.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA is a misnomer, for the most northern part of Victoria is south of it, and its northern territory extends into the tropics. It was so named before Victoria was colonised, and when it was expected that its boundaries would be extended towards Cape Howe. It is one of the most extensive colonies in the world, being nine times the size of Victoria or New Zealand. Its original area was 300,000 square miles, but by the addition in 1861 of the strip of country between 132 deg. and 129 deg., called "No Man's Land," its area is now 914,739 square miles, or 585,427,200 acres. It is bounded on the north by the Arifura Sea and Gulf of Carpentaria, on the south by the Pacific Ocean, on the east by New South Wales and Victoria, and on the west by West Australia. The irregularity of the southern coast gives a seaboard of 1600 miles in length.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA occupies one-third of Australia, or 978,300 square miles, being nearly twelve times as large as Great Britain. Its length from north to south is 1260 miles, and from east to west it is 800 miles. Its boundaries on the north and west are the Indian Ocean, on the south the South Pacific Ocean, and on the east an imaginary line dividing it from South Australia. Part of its shore is 300 miles from Timor, and 800 miles from Java.

TASMANIA is a charming island, 120 miles to the south of Victoria. It is nearly equal in size to Ireland, or the kingdoms of Belgium and Holland together. It is conjectured that it originally formed part of the mainland of Australia, the numerous islands in Bass' Straits being part of a mountain range that connected the two countries. Its length is 170 miles, and its breadth 160 miles, while its area is 24,330 square miles, or 15,751,500 acres. The lakes and islands which belong to the colony give an aggregate area of 1,206,500 acres, which makes a total of 26,215 square miles, or 16,778,000 acres. It has been thought that Tasmania will one day be joined with Victoria under one common government.

NEW ZEALAND has an area less than that of Great Britain and Ireland, and is about 1,000,000 square miles, or 64,000,000 acres. It consists of a group of three islands, lying between 34 deg. and 48 deg. S. lat. and 166 deg. and 179 deg. E. long. The area of the North Island is about 44,000 square miles, or 64,000,000 acres. The area of the Middle Island is about 55 square miles, or 36,000,000 acres. The area of the South or Stewart's Island is about 1000 square miles, or 640,000 acres. The population, except about 200, dwell on the North Island.

CHAPTER II.

ANCIENT AND MODERN MARITIME DISCOVERY AND COLONISATION.

ANTIQUITY OF AUSTRALIA.—Four centuries ago the geography of the world comprised Europe, Asia and Libya (Africa), but with the progress of navigation adventurous navigators traversed unknown seas, in quest of lands which the ancient traditions depicted as teeming with inexhaustible riches. Situated at the antipodes of the civilised world, Australia had been a *terra incognita* longer than any other country of the same magnitude. The time of its discovery is shrouded in the obscurity of the past, while the name of the nation who first discovered it is involved in considerable doubt, by reason of the confusion of names applied to its coasts by early navigators and geographers. Conjectures of a southern continent appear in the writings of the ancient Greek and Roman authors, Seneca, Theopompus, Arabus, Pliny, Germinus, Ptolemy, Mela, Strabo, Agathemerus, and Manilus. They were all impressed with the idea that the future would reveal a Great South Land. Seneca mentions that in the future, when Oceanus would relax the lands of the universe, a new earth and new orbs would be discovered. Strabo (B.C. 50) describes an extensive island 20 days' sail south-east of India, stretching towards the west. Theopompus relates a dialogue between a demi-god and a mortal, wherein the demi-god describes lands circumscribing the old world. Pliny (A.D. 77) distinctly speaks of a Great South Land south of the equator, the centre of which is covered by an inland sea. Mela's system of geography shows an island-continent as large as the old world, and extending south of the equator, and inhabited by people whom he calls Antichones. Manilus, when speaking of the spherical form of the earth, mentions an habitable country at the antipodes of Italy. Considering that Australia is opposite Europe (New Zealand being under England), on the other side of the globe, this quotation is extremely remarkable. Pliny (A.D. 77) and Ptolemy (A.D. 150) believed that tracts of land stretched south of the Golden Chersonesus Aurea, as the Malay Peninsula was anciently designated. Agathemerus, about a century after Ptolemy, describes the Great South Land as the largest island in the world. Erroneous notions prevailed in Mediæval Europe that the Indian Ocean was an inland sea, bounded on the south by an unknown land connected with the Prassean Promontory in Eastern Africa. Ancient geographers were then ignorant of the Straits of Malacca, and believed that Java and Sumatra were joined to the Malay Peninsula; and maps framed on Ptolemy's system of geography show a tract of coast stretching indefinitely south from the east of Asia to the end of Africa, rejecting any belief in the circumnavigation of Africa. At this remote period, navigators who had penetrated beyond Catigara represented that their progress was stayed by the shores of a southern land south of the Spice Islands of the Indian Archipelago; hence the erroneous theory of Ptolemy, that the Indian Sea was a wide bay or vast basin. There is a reasonable possibility for believing that in the remotest ages the coasts of New Guinea and Northern Australia were known to those inhabiting the south of Asia and the Indian Ocean. Recent researches strongly lead to the belief that the civilisation of India reaches back two or three thousand years before the Christian era, for the Indian sacred writings (the Wedas) are believed by the best Sanscript scholars to have been handed down by tradition from about B.C. 1500. The early navigation of China is involved in the utmost obscurity. There are unexceptionable proofs that before the seventh century China abounded with Christians, who for succeeding ages were under the direction of a Chaldean or Nestorian patriarch, and that the Chinese were acquainted with the mariner's compass centuries before it was known in Europe; hence it is reasonably supposed that their nation was the first to visit Australia. Their empire is supposed to have been founded B.C. 2207 by Fohi, whose reign was preceded by four princes of inferior note. Early geographers assert that before the Christian era Chinese navigators (from whom the Phœnicians, Greeks and Romans procured their silks and most of the aromatics and spices so extensively used in their religious and funeral ceremonies) traversed the Indian Ocean even to the Cape of Good Hope to extend their commerce, as well as prosecute valuable discoveries; and they speak of the Chinese trepang fisheries, &c., in the Malayan Archipelago, New Guinea, and the islands adjacent thereto, having existed centuries before their time. It has also been asserted that the aborigines of the northern coasts of Australia have a Mongolian as well as Malayan cast of features. That the Chinese carried on a prosperous trade with the eastern nations cannot be doubted, for as many as 400 of their vessels are said to have been seen in the port of Ormuz, at the entrance to the Persian Gulf. Even Arrian, the Greek historian, in A.D. 124, speaks of "the land where the glistening hanks of silk are obtained, the land of Tina (China). The gigantic strides that navigation has made during the last century has verified the notions of the ancients as to the existence of a southern continent. Although the ancient narratives are somewhat ideal and fabulous creations, they have a great deal of truth in them, and should not be treated with extreme scepticism.

GREAT CONTINENT SOUTH OF AUSTRALIA.—It is not generally known that there is a vast mass of land round the South Pole estimated at nearly double the size of Europe. Little or nothing is

at present known of this continent, but it is represented as all but inaccessible, being enclosed in eternal ice and apparently uninhabited. It is situated in the Antarctic Ocean, a term properly applied to that part of the Southern Ocean that lies between the Antarctic Circle (66 deg. 30 min. S. lat.) and the South Pole. These cold oceanic regions were long conceded to be beyond the pale of navigation on account of the ice, which extends much farther round the South Pole than it does round the North Pole. It is somewhat remarkable that the northern parts of the Pacific Ocean are entirely destitute of land, not a single island having yet been discovered in it from 40 deg. N. lat. and upwards, except those on the coastline of America and Asia, while in the Southern Ocean the islands are very numerons. We find, on reference to the map, that the South Seas, or Pacific Ocean, is that vast body of water interposed between Asia and America, occupying almost the circumference of the globe from one pole to the other, and about the equatorial parts extending almost 180 deg. in long. and 12,500 of our miles. That vast body of water that encompasses the whole southern part of the globe bears the general name of Southern Ocean, but that round the South Pole the Antarctic Ocean. The exciting question of a north-west passage during the present century has caused many exploring voyages to the Northern Polar regions, but researches in the mysterious regions of the Southern Pole have been few and imperfect, on account of the peculiar dangers arising from the existence of terrible ice islands and fearful storms almost perpetually raging in the southern latitudes. As previously stated, the early geographers believed that the remote and then unknown parts of the southern hemisphere were occupied by an extensive continent surrounding the Antarctic Circle, and extending to a great distance towards the equator. This idea gained credence up to the middle of the last century, and the imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita (also ascribed to Australia), makes a conspicuous figure on all maps which are more than a century old. Considering that the southern hemisphere contained less proportion of land to sea than the northern hemisphere, early geographers had nothing to support their idea of the existence of a Great South Land than the imaginary law of equipoise. Between the years 1772 and 1775 Captain Cook performed his second voyage, for the express purpose of solving the problem of the existence of this Terra Australis. Owing to the large masses of floating ice, he only succeeded in penetrating in three places beyond the Antarctic Polar Circle. Although in one place he attained 71 deg. 10 min. S. lat., he was generally unable to go much further south than 60 deg. S. lat. This was the case between 90 deg. and 150 deg. E. long., within which limits there has since been discovered a most extensive and continuous line of coast, lying between 4 deg. and 5 deg. south of Cook's track. Cook, on his return to England, reported that he found no land south of 60 deg., and after that the Terra Australis continent disappeared from our maps. Although Cook failed to discover the Antarctic continent, he firmly believed that there was land in the vicinity of the pole, as he held the opinion that ice islands could only be found in the neighbourhood of land. Cook was accompanied in his voyage by Vancouver, who used to say that he had been nearer the South Pole than any other man, for that when Cook's vessel in lat. 72 deg. was stopped in its progress by impenetrable mountains of ice, and while tacking about he (Vancouver) went to the very end of the ship's bowsprit, and taking off his hat exclaimed, "*Ne plus ultra.*" Numerous attempts have been made at discovery in these high latitudes since Cook's voyage, and the existence of the Great Southern Land has been so far established as to permit that part of the coast-line already surveyed being placed upon our charts. The writer, believing that a sketch of the most important discoveries in the Antarctic Ocean, in a work like the present one, must prove peculiarly acceptable, will endeavour to briefly enumerate the most important of such expeditions. First we have the discovery of the South Shetland Islands by Captain William Smith in 1819, while he was on a voyage from Monte Video to Valparaiso. In 1821 Captain Powell sighted Trinity Land, south of South Shetlands and the South Orkneys, between 60 deg. 30 min. and 61 deg. S. lat., 44 deg. 30 min. and 46 deg. 30 min. W. long. We next learn that an American, named Palmer, discovered a coast-line W. of Trinity Land, which he called Palmer's Land; and subsequently the Russian navigator, Bellingshausen, discovered Alexander's Land, S.W. of Palmer's Land. In 1823 Captain Weddell reached the most distant point yet attained. He tried to find land E. of the meridian of the South Shetlands, and after reaching the point 74 deg. 15 min, S. lat., 36 deg. W. long., he failed to find land, but found a sea clear of ice. We now come to the memorable voyages of Captain John Biscoe, R.N., in 1831 and 1832. He commanded the brig Tula, 148 tons, belonging to the Messrs. Enderby, of London, who fitted her out on a South Sea sealing voyage. Biscoe had special instructions to endeavour and make discoveries in a high southern latitude. The brig was liberally equipped with whatever was found requisite, and accompanied by a tender called "The Lively." On February 27th, 1831, in 65 deg. 57 min. S. lat., 47 deg. 20 min. E. long., Captain Biscoe discovered land of considerable extent closely bound with terrible masses of field ice, but he was not able to approach it within 20 or 30 miles. This unapproachable land he called Enderby Land ,after the owners of the vessel. He says, "every effort was made to close with the land thus discovered, and the most imminent risk was run during a heavy gale, which began on March 5th and continued increasing to a perfect hurricane till the 7th." The exposure to the cold so affected the health of the seamen that two died, and the rest were so reduced after three weeks' severest fatigue that only three were able to navigate the vessels to Tasmania. After refitting, he made a second voyage to the Atlantic Ocean. On 3rd February, 1832, in lat. 65 deg. 32 min. S., long. 114 deg. 9 min. W., the phenomenon was observed of an ice island falling to pieces, "which it did very near the Tula with a noise like a clap of thunder, and the sea was covered with the fragments, only a small nucleus of the original mass remaining together." On February 12th many birds, such as albatrosses, penguins, Cape pigeons, &c., were seen with several hump and finned back whales, and no fewer than 250 ice islands were counted from the deck. He coasted along a shore he called Graham's Land. He said that one of the mountains called Mount Adelaide had a most imposing and beautiful appearance, with one high peak shooting up into the clouds, and occasionally approaching above and below them, and a lower range of mountains extending about four miles from N. to S., having only a thin covering of snow on their summits, but towards their base buried in a field of snow and ice of the most dazzling brightness, which slopes down to the water, and terminates in a cliff of 10 or 12 feet high, riven and splintered in every direction to an extent of two or three hundred yards from its edge. At a distance of two or three miles no bottom could be found with 250 fathoms of line, and round all the islands the depth of water was considerable. One, called Pitt's Island (in lat. 66 deg. 20 min. S., long. 66 deg. 38 min. W.), has many bays, and forms with the mainland behind a good harbour for shelter, but the bottom is rocky. No living animal was found. On February 21st, Captain Biscoe succeeded in landing on the mainland, and took formal possession of it; the highest mountain he called Mount William, placed at 64 deg. 45 min. S. lat., 63 deg. 51 min. W. long., and the next Mount Moberly, in honour of Captain Moberly, R.N. He landed in a bay of still water. In front of this high mountainous land is a range of small islands called Biscoe's Range. Captain Biscoe graphically describes the extraordinary vivid corruscations of the Aurora Australis, which frequently succeed bad weather. The phenomenon, he says, "was at times rolling as it were over our heads in the form of beautiful columns, then as suddenly changing like the fringe of a curtain, and again shooting across the hemisphere like a serpent, frequently appearing not many yards above our heads, and decidedly within our atmosphere. It was by much the most magnificent phenomenon of the kind that I ever witnessed; and although the vessel was in considerable danger, running with a smart breeze and much beset, the people could scarcely be kept from looking at the heavens instead of attending to the course." Enderby's Land lies at a great distance from the lands south of the Shetlands, between 49 deg. and 51 deg. E. long., but Graham's Land is between Alexander's Land and Palmer's Land. Thus almost a continuous coast line has been discovered S. and W. of the South Shetlands, extending from 36 deg. to 70 deg. W. long., and comprehending from E. to W. Trinity, Palmer's, Graham's and Alexander's Lands. These voyages round the icy masses that enclose the South Pole added another to the many examples of British navigators' patient and intrepid perseverance amidst much discouraging difficulties. Captain Biscoe's discoveries were reported to the Royal Geographical Society, who rewarded him with their Royal Premium for 1832. His accounts revived the belief in the existence of a Great Southern Land yet to be brought upon charts. In 1837 the French Government sent out an expedition to explore the Antarctic Circle under the command of Captain Durant D'Urville, who explored the coasts named Trinity Land by Powell, and he changed its name to that of Louis Phillipe's Land. In 1838, Captain John Balleny and Captain H. Freeman commanded two whaling vessels sent to the South Seas by several merchants in conjunction with the Messrs. Enderby. They directed their course to that part of the ocean south of New Zealand and Australia. On February 9th, 1839, they discovered a group of islands (the central one of which is in 64 deg. 44 min. S. lat., 163 deg. 11 min. E. long.), which they called Balleny Islands. In that same year Balleny, when in 75 deg. S. lat., 117 deg. E. long., discovered a projecting coast-line, which he called Sabrina Land. The largest tract of land was discovered by the French navigator, D'Urville, in 1840, when the French Government and that of the United States of North America sent out expeditions in 1839 for the purpose of making discoveries in the South Seas. D'Urville, with two corvettes, sailed from France direct to Tasmania, and thence to the Antarctic Ocean, but a frightful dysentery having broken out among the crew of the Astrolabe, by which a number perished, after 28 months of incessant toil he had to return to Hobart Town, where he refitted. On January 1st, 1840, he set sail again for the South Pole. "On the 15th," says D'Urville, "we crossed the route of Cook in 1773 and from that time were in a sea that no keel had ever ploughed before." Next day they saw a mass of ice 50

feet in height by 200 in length. Thenceforward they saw icebergs daily, gradually increasing in size until some they steered among were from 600 to 1000 feet in length, and not less than 130 feet in height. Their corvettes defiled tranquilly through an immense chain of ice islands, tubular in form and of prodigious dimensions. At times the channel was not more than three or four cables in width, and the vessels appeared buried beneath the perpendicular walls towering up from 100 to 130 feet. Occasionally their daring course of navigation would emerge from these narrow winding channels into open spaces. At last they came into an unencumbered space, which revealed an immense strip of land eight or ten miles distant. The land was covered with snow and ice, but the hills, ravines, land slopes, and bays were easily descried. The corvettes then coasted the land at five or six miles distance, and when 66 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. (near the southern magnetic pole) all the compasses veered in a remarkable manner, by which they knew that the newly discovered land lay precisely under the Antarctic Polar Circle, since it ran nearly E. and W. Desirous of presenting to geologists a specimen of the newly found continent, it was a long time before any rocks could be seen to pierce the snow. At last some black stains like rocks were seen six miles off, masked by a long chain of icebergs. A boat's crew proceeded to them, and soon returned, laden with specimens broken from granite rocks of various hues. D'Urville had skirted the land many miles, and would have continued to do so, as it stretched indefinitely to the west, but the ice began to close and they experienced a terrible gale, accompanied by gusts of snow, that limited their horizon to a few ship's lengths. Obliged to manœuvre in a space encumbered with ice islands, their position was most perilous, consequently D'Urville abandoned further exploration of the coast, and bore northward to escape the labyrinth in which he was involved. After encountering heavy gales of wind, sleet, and hail, amid icebergs (one 130 feet high) they soon got into clear water and reached Hobart Town. The American expedition consisted of four vessels, commanded by Captain Charles Wilkes, who found a coast-line in 154 deg. 27 min. E. long. In continuing his course westward for four weeks he had always a coast in sight, or unequivocal indications of land being at no great distance. He advanced as far as 97 deg. 30 min. E. long.; so that, including Sabrina Land, he discovered a coast-line extending over 50 deg. of long. D'Urville had reached the same coast in 140 deg. 41 min. E. long., and pursued his course westward to 130 deg. E. long., calling the land he surveyed Adelie Land. The coast of this Antarctic continent lies near the Antarctic Circle, either to the S. or the N. of it, as is the case with the Enderby and Graham's Lands. An expedition to reach the South Magnetic Pole was fitted out in England in 1839, and placed under the command of Captain (afterwards Sir) James Clark Ross. He directed his course several degrees east of the Balleny Islands, and on 1st January, 1841, passed the Antarctic Circle near 178 deg. E. long. On the 11th January he discovered land near 70 deg. 41 min. S. lat., 172 deg. 36 min. E. long. He soon found it was a continuous coast trending southward, and rising in mountain peaks from 9000 to 2000 feet, all covered with ice. On the 12th of January he landed and took possession of it in the name of Queen Victoria. He continued his course along the shores to 78 deg. 4 min. S. lat., tracing a coast-line of about 600 miles. He called it Victoria Land, which he supposes is a continent, he having surveyed its coasts from 70 deg. to 79 deg. S. lat. Near its northern extremity, in 168 deg. 12 min. E. long., he places Mount Erebus, an active volcano 12,400 feet high, and Mount Terror, which rises to a height of 10,900 feet above the sea level. In this expedition he discovered the position of the South Magnetic Pole to be 75 deg. 5 min. S. lat., 154 deg. S.E. long. At 78 deg. 4 min. S. lat. his progress to the south was prevented by a barrier which presented a perpendicular face of at least 1500 feet, along which he coasted to the eastward until he attained 191 deg. 23 min. in 78 S. lat. In 1843 Captain Ross, on a second expedition, explored Louis Phillipe's Land, and sailed east between 60 deg. and 70 deg. S. lat., and then south between the routes of Bellingshausen and Weddell, to 71 deg. S. lat. 14 deg. 51 min. W. long., without seeing any appearance of land. It is somewhat remarkable that the mountains seen by these navigators are of volcanic origin. Ross says Mount Erebus belched forth abundance of fire and smoke, and Mount Terror was an extinct volcano. Bellingshausen found an active volcano near 69 deg. S. lat. Similar volcanoes were discovered in Palmer's Land, Balleny's Land, and the South Shetland Islands. At no great distance inland the mountain ranges might be taken for gigantic iceburgs, as they are all the year round covered in snow, except on the perpendicular peaks, where the snow cannot adhere. The icy masses filling the valleys between the ridges become converted into glaciers, which protrude into the sea and form the numerous ice islands that render navigation in these strange regions more difficult and dangerous than in the northern latitudes. The height of the icebergs fringing the shore positively prove the existence of precipitous land behind them, for the ice-islands could not have been formed from hammocks of ice occasioned by the agitation of the sea and the meeting of fields of ice in flaws, which seldom rise to the height of 12 or 15 feet above the surface. Taking all these discoveries into consideration, they comprehend the discovery of about 1800 miles of continuous coast belonging to the Antarctic Continent (between 170 deg. and 97 deg. of E. long.) south of New Zealand and Australia. In only a few instances have the discoverers been able to effect a landing, owing to the barriers of solid or broken ice extending from five to 20 miles from the shore. Although no terrestrial quadruped has been discovered, numerous birds and swarms of seals and sea-horses, which have been undisturbed since the creation, frequent the coast. Traces of vegetation have been found on the land. On Cockburn Island and on Louis Phillipe's Land, no less than 19 species of plants, comprising mosses, algæ, and lichens (seven of the species being peculiar to the lands), have been discovered. It is very singular that there are no people in the southern hemisphere below the 55th parallel of latitude similar to the Esquimaux of the northern polar regions. It is to be regretted the spirit of discovery that urged nation after nation to explore the Southern Ocean, and especially the North Polar regions, during the 18th century, has apparently been allowed to slumber for nearly a century. In 1746 the Admiralty offered a reward of £20,000 for the discovery of a north-west passage through Hudson's Straits to the Pacific Ocean. This tempting prize drew many navigators into the field of discovery, resulting in many new countries being discovered by British navigators; but the circumnavigation of the globe has now degenerated into a mere trading voyage, and no effort is made to stimulate fresh discoveries, or even to form a British expedition to delineate the boundaries and dimensions of the great Antarctic Continent, although 50 years ago 1800 miles of its coast had been surveyed. The spirit of enterprise that animated British navigators to reap an ample share of the glories of extending the geography of the world in the last century has expired, and British expeditions to unvisited portions of the globe are things of the past. The Italians, actuated by an active and laudable zeal in the cause of discovery, are now about to achieve what England has left undone, namely, a continuous survey of the circuit of the Great Antarctic Continent. Of this great undertaking, a letter from a correspondent in Italy received in July, 1880, by Mr. Oscar Stubbs, of East Melbourne, contains the following remarks:—"The return of the Vega with its complement of scientific men, after a successful voyage, has brought out a spirit of emulation in Italy which has surprised the civilised world. The adventurous courage of Columbus, Marco Polo, Vettor, Pisani, and Amerigo Vespucci, and many more Italian explorers, had taken possession of the concentrated talent of our newly united kingdon. Italy has lately earned an honourable name in the annals of exploration in Central Africa, and now the grand ambition of its inhabitants is to see the glorious tricolour spread in seas yet unknown. The idea of the expedition to the South Pole has originated from Professor Meyri, father of our geographical society, and Lieutenant Bove, of the Vega, and has been taken up by the King and such men as Onorato, Caetani, Prince of Teano ; Allevi, Malvino, and Martinori. Therefore, no doubt of its success. The object is the exploration of the unknown continents and seas of the Antarctic to the utmost possible latitude, and will extend for a period of three years. Genoa and Naples will be the Alpha and Omega. The supposed cost will be about £30,000—£15,000 for construction of ship (on the model of the English, American, and German whalers), £10,000 for provisions, £5000 for wages, Since the researches of Cook, Ross, D'Urville, and Wilkes little progress has been made, and no one has wintered below the 56th parallel. The Italian expedition, having to stay there two winters and one summer, will have a good opportunity of elucidating the problem of terrestrial magnetism, still so uncertain even after the efforts made by the scientific men charged with observing the passage of Venus. In going and returning the expedition will gather all information respecting the practicability of forming for our marine a brilliant future by joining in the lucrative whale firshery carried on by the English, French, and Americans in the Austral seas, The vessel (Umberto) will be propelled by steam, and manned by 40 well-trained men. The magnetic, meteorologic physical, and hydrographic observations will be confided to the officers ; the geological, mineralogical, botanical, and hygiene (preservation of health), to the naturalist and doctors. The departure of the expedition is fixed for the 1st of May, 1881. In the Atlantic deep soundings will be taken, and the Umberto will arrive about August at Montevideo and take fresh provisions. A sailing vessel will be procured to furnish coals, &c., from some of the southern ports, perhaps Port Orange. In September the Umberto will proceed along the coast of Patagonia towards Falkland and Shetland Isles, and here will begin work in earnest. The first winter will be passed either at Bellingshausen Land or Ross, and, while ice-bound, scientific observations will commence. The lands discovered by Ross will be first visited, then the Umberto will direct its course to the Land of Adéle, continuing to the west towards the Austral continent, as Wilkes calls it, and winter for the second time at the lands discovered by Kemp and Enderby, and there more scientific observations. At last the return voyage will be undertaken, stopping very likely for repairs, &c., at Hobart Town or the Cape of Good Hope. About May, 1884, the Umberto will anchor (like the Vega) at Naples, after having pushed further the investigations of its predecessor."

It is to be hoped that this revival of navigation in these high latitudes will accomplish fresh discoveries that will prove of great service to the mercantile world. When we consider that Captain Weddell and other commanders of whaling vessels have given glowing accounts of whaling voyages in these regions, and state that off the Shetland Islands during 1821 and 1822 different vessels secured about 320,000 seals and 940 tons of seal-elephant oil, we may yet have to learn of the discovery of countries of equal extent and fruitfulness in these southern seas, while the sphere of navigation may be so far extended as to open up lucrative whale fisheries for our colonial shipping. Many fortunes have been made out of the whale fisheries on the Australian and New Zealand coast in the early colonial days. Sooner or later whaling voyages to these parts will be revived, for we read in the *S. M. Herald*, of September 1st, 1880, that "whales appear to be getting numerous on our coast, the long immunity which they have enjoyed from the harpoon probably inclining them to venture from their customary haunts. It will be remembered that a few days ago three were observed in the vicinity of the Heads. These were of the sperm species, and evidently the advanced guard of a large number. Several monsters have been seen off Kiama lately, and on Monday the steamer Leura, on her passage from Melbourne, passed close to seven or eight which were blowing and disporting themselves in the calm sea near Wollongong." It does seem singular that between South America and New Zealand there is an immense space of ocean that has been little traversed by mariners. Looking at the map of the world, it will be seen that America, Africa, and Australia seem to reach down towards the South Pole, while the islands between Asia, and Australia, and Tasmania, are like stepping stones in the ocean. Proceeding further southerly we come to New Zealand (a group of isolated islands), and it is probable that navigators proceeding still further south will encounter a series of groups of islands lying in a general line and extending to the southern lands discovered by D'Urville and others, and on to the antarctic continent. Most of all these southern lands are volcanic, and they form a line parallel to the general trend of the mountains of New Zealand and New South Wales. The Auckland Islands (which were discovered by Captain Abraham Bristow, in the ship Ocean, on August 16, 1800, while on a whaling voyage for Enderby Brothers), and the Macquarie Islands (discovered by a colonial whaler, who took off them 80,000 seals), apparently lie in the same continuation of the volcanic ranges of New Zealand. Between them a submarine earthquake was felt on board the ship Orient, for Adelaide, commanded by Captain Harris, on November 17, 1865, at 7.15 a.m., in 51 deg. 44 min. S. lat., and 160 deg. 49 min. E. long. The weather was fine, and the ship commenced trembling violently, as if passsing over shoals. The ship's bells rang by the violent shaking. Nothing was visible, and no bottom with the deep sea lead. All on board concluded it was the effects of a submarine volcano. The first discoveries of most of these great south lands has formed the subject of some controversy. For instance, we are told that for the discovery of the archipelago called South Shetlands the world is indebted to Captain Williams, of the brig Blythe, who, in February and October, 1819, coasted along the north side of Livingstone and Smith's Islands. In contradistinction we learn that Captain Cook's description of the Georgia Islands would apply to the South Shetlands. Again we are informed that Biscoe's Adelaide Land and Graham's Land, which he discovered in 1832, is unquestionably the same marked in the old charts as Gherritz's Land, it having been discovered by Dirk Gherritz, of the Good News yacht, one of the five Rotterdam ships which doubled Cape Horn, and which he reported as lying in 64 degs. S. lat. It has also been called the Clarence Land, discovered by Captain Foster in 1829. The first chart of these islands was constructed and published in 1822, by the commander of the Dove, Captain George Powell, who added to the South Shetlands another group discovered by him on December 6th, 1821, which he called Powell's Group, or South Orkneys. The principal island was named Coronation Island. Louis Phillippe Land, or Joinville Land, lies south of the South Shetland group, and was discovered by D'Urville. The islands of the Emperor Peter the First and Alexander's Land were discovered by Captain Bellingshausen in January, 1821, in the Russian Imperial ships Mirny and Vastok. The last-named forms portion of Graham's Land, seen by Biscoe in February, 1832. This continent has been traced 250 leagues, and many vacancies of this continuous coast in these inaccessible regions remain to be filled up. In concluding this notice, the writer desires to sum up the order of the discovery of the range of coast south of the above-named lands, and on and to the south of the Antarctic Circle, as the merit of its discovery has been the subject of angry disputation. On February 9th, 1839, Captain Balleny discovered the islands bearing his name, and on March 2nd, the same year, Sabrina Land, in the schooner Elias Scott, of 154 tons, which was accompanied by the dandy-rigged cutter Sabrina, commanded by Mr. H. Freeman. The group comprises five islands, three large and two small, the highest, Young Island, being 12,000 feet above the sea. The highest peak was called Mount Freeman, after the master of the Sabrina, who landed on the island. The islands and peaks were respectively named after Messrs. Young, Borrowdaile, Buckle, Sturve, Brown, Rowe, Beale, and Enderby, the spirited merchants who fitted out the expedition. The second discoverer was Captain (afterwards Admiral) D'Urville, who examined Adelie Land on January 19th, 1840, and the supposed Cote Clarie on February 7th, 1840. Commodore Wilkes states that he saw what he supposed to be a portion of the same coast on January 16th, 1840, but did not verify his discovery until January 30. It is alleged he did not put forth his pretensions until his arrival in Sydney, after hearing that the French had landed on the coast on January 22nd. The fourth in the order of merit of discovery is Captain Sir James Clark Ross and Commander Francis R. M. Crozier, in 1841-2. We learn that these two navigators, in the ships Erebus and Terror, quitted Hobart Town on November 12th, 1840, and after touching at the Auckland and Campbell Islands advanced south to reach the South Magnetic Pole. The Campbell Islands were discovered by Captain Frederick Hazelburgh, in the brig Perseverance, owned by the late Robert Campbell of Sydney, in 1810.

Famous Ancient Voyages of Discovery.—The ancient voyages into the Southern Ocean form some of the most interesting problems of antiquity, and even those that are not hid in the deep abysses of time are involved in mystery and much controversy among men of learning. Recent research conclusively prove that the Southern Ocean and the coasts of Africa and Asia, to Sumatra, were known to ancient navigators several centuries before the Christian era. Historians ascribe the origin of navigation to the Œginetes, the Phœnicians, the Tyrians, and the ancient inhabitants of Britain. These nations surpassed all other ancient nations in commercial enterprise, maritime discovery, and colonisation. Tradition represents the Phœnicians as the first navigators, and to trace the course of their maritime trade is to elucidate the progress of ancient navigation. Their ancestors were the Canaanites, overthrown by the conquering Hebrews, who, intent on the long-promised plains of Jordan, allowed the dispossessed to settle on a narrow strip of territory (12 miles wide by 225 miles long) along the Mediterranean Sea. In David's reign some of the Midianites and Edomites, through foreign invasion, emigrated into Phœnice, carrying with them a knowledge of the Red Sea, the coasts of Arabia, Egypt, and Ethiopia, by which information the Phœnicians were enabled to make voyages to these places for Solomon. Sidon (Genesis x. 15), Uttica (B.C. 1156), Tyre and Carthage (B.C. 876), were their earliest seats of commerce. The mountains of Lebanon provided them with excellent wood for ship-building, and, enlarging their ships, they grew bolder in navigation, and opened up new fields for commerce by planting colonies in Spain, the Balearic Islands, Sardinia, and Sicily. They monopolised the trade of India, Africa, and even distant Britain. Their progress was not only to extend their commerce, but to explore new countries and unknown seas. Under Solomon, their Republic, Tyre, became the emporium of the iron, silver, tin, and lead of Spain and Britain; the gold, ivory, and apes of Africa; the cotton of India, and perhaps the silks of China. Solomon, by his alliance with Hiram, King of Egypt, extended the art of navigation, and their combined fleets sailed periodically from the Akaba Gulf down the Red Sea to the south coasts of Africa, Zanzibar, Sofala, and even to Hindostan. The Scriptures record two maritime voyages from Tarshish (identical with Carthage)—one up the Mediterranean, with the produce of Spain and Britain (Ezekiel xxvii. 12); and the other up the Red Sea (1 Kings x. 22), with the produce of Africa. Solomon's expeditions to Ophir (described as near the mouth of the Indus) formed the greatest naval enterprises of the kingdom of Judæa. The Argonautic expeditions for the gold of the eastern shores of the Black Sea, and the employment of the Phœnicians in the building of a fleet that invaded India, by the direction of Queen Semiramus, wife of the Scriptural Assyrian King Pul, are recorded among the most ancient maritime adventures. During the prosperous ages of the Carthaginian Republic two expeditions of discovery were equipped by the Senate. One of these fleets was commanded by Hanno, the narrative of whose voyage states that "It pleased the Carthaginians that Hanno should sail beyond the Pillars of Hercules (Straits of Gibraltar), and should found cities of Liby-Phœnicians. He set sail, therefore, with a fleet of 60 vessels, each of which was impelled by 50 oars. They carried with them men and women to the number of 30,000, with provisions and supplies of various kinds." The narrative then describes how Hanno passed through the Straits, and steered towards the south along the coast of Africa, founding five trading cities on the sea-coast. It is presumed that he traversed the coast as far as Cape Verd Islands, and advanced nearer to the equinoctial line than any former navigator. The second fleet was commanded by Himilio, who proceeded north to examine the north-west coast of Europe. He discovered Britain and Ireland, and made settlements there. It has been questioned whether the ancients had any geographical knowledge of the Southern Ocean, but some of the chronicles of the ancient historians are too definite to have been the mere creation of imagination. The universal testimony of antiquity establishes the fact that 604 years before the Christian era Pharaoh Necho (as he is called in 2 King xxiii.), King of Egypt, employed the Phœnicians to circumnavigate Africa, and that their fleet took its departure from Egypt, doubled the southern promontory of Africa, and after a

voyage of three years returned by the Straits of Gadez to the mouth of the Nile. By this voyage the Phœnicians have been awarded the credit of being the first to circumnavigate Africa, and discover the route *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope to the Indian Ocean. Herodotus, the father of history (born B.C. 484, died B.C. 408), who visited all the Greek islands, Sicily, Italy, all the colonies in Asia Minor, Babylon, Tyre, and Carthage, gives the following account of this remarkable voyage, in his writings, which are the best that antiquity has transmitted to us. He says: "As for Libya (Africa), we know it to be washed on all sides by the sea, except where it is attached to Asia. The discovery was first made by Necho, the Egyptian King, who, on desisting from the canal he had begun between the Kill and the Arabian Gulf, sent to sea a number of ships manned by Phœnicians, with orders to make for the Pillars of Hercules, and to return to Egypt through them and by the Northern Sea (the Mediterranean). The Phœnicians took their departure from Egypt by way of the Erythrean Sea, and so sailed into the Southern Ocean. When autumn came they went ashore wherever they might happen to be, and, having sown a tract of land with corn, waited until the grain was fit to cut. Having reaped it they sailed again, and thus it came to pass that two whole years went by, and it was not till the third year that they doubled the Pillars of Hercules, and made good their voyage home. On the return they declared—I, for my part, do not believe them, but perhas others may—that in sailing round Libya they had the sun on their right hand." Herodotus credits this achievement except for one thing, that of the sun on their right hand, which is the very thing that would have happened, and proves the authenticity of the voyage. Herodotus also relates a story of a Persian nobleman named Sataspes, who was condemned to death by Xerxes, but was allowed a respite until he circumnavigated Africa. After traversing strange coasts amid frightful tempests he doubled a cape he called Soleus (Cape Spartel), and thence returned to Egypt. He was stopped at the Gulf of Guinea, where he was baffled by the N.E. trade winds, which now-a-days cause our merchant ships, *via* the Cape to India, to stand across to S. America. Sataspes was beheaded because he failed to circumnavigate Africa. Strabo records three expeditions by Eudoxus down the Arabian Gulf to Gades (Cadiz), also that Eudoxus in his Egyptian travels met with a castaway Indian who, when he had acquired a sufficient knowledge of Greek, related how after leaving India he lost his course and reached Egypt alone, all his companions having perished from hunger. Eudoxus, with this Indian as a pilot, sailed to India and brought back aromatics and precious stones. Ancient historians represent the Carthaginians and the Phœnicians as the most daring navigators for many ages. With no better guide than the stars they traversed the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and practised piracy to discourage other nations from engaging in commerce. The Phœnicians, through the Hebrew wars and their adhesion to Hezekiah, King of Judah, incurred the fearful wrath of Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon (B.C. 570), who, after 15 years' siege, reduced their opulent cities to ashes. Two hundred and fifty years later their commercial republic Tyre was captured by Alexander the Great. They were put to the sword and sold as slaves, and thus disappeared their nautical power and their names from history. Alexander transferred the commerce of Tyre to Alexandria, a new city he proposed as the capital of Asia, and which, from its admirable harbour, became the centre of the trade of the ancient world.

ANCIENT COMMERCE, NAVIGATION, AND COLONISATION.—From the sixth to the fourth century before Christ the Greeks planted numerous colonies, from the force of contending factions and over-population. The great bulk of these colonies were independent states, and from their superiority in the arts of civilised life soon attained a high pitch of opulence and refinement. The Athenians extended their commerce by founding Greek colonies on the west coast of Asia Minor, where the Ionians from Attica established twelve towns, which formed a federal union. Many of these colonies became colonisers in their turn, and the mariners of Phocœa formed several settlements, of which Massilia (Marseilles), on the south coast of France, was the most famous. Alexander the Great is said to have founded no lees than 70 cities during his famous Asiatic exploring and conquering expedition, which lasted three years, during which period he conquered the Persian Empire and explored the country to India. With an ardent zeal for maritime discovery and colonisation, he conveyed his army in a fleet of 2000 vessels down the Indus, and properly developed the trade with India. By his instructions, Nearchus, the admiral of his fleet, after many perils by tempests and shipwreck, conducted the fleet along the Indian shore, and surveyed every harbour and bay between India and the Euphrates. While engaged in projects of discovery, Alexander died B.C. 323 at Babylon. Then arose the navigation of the Egyptians, which, under the Macedonian dynasty of the Ptolemnies, was cultivated for nearly 300 years. The earliest foreign possession that the Romans formed into a province was Sicily, B.C. 241, and their first colony was that founded (B.C. 122) on the site of Carthage, which with Corinthe they destroyed by fire B.C. 146. Rome, by her colonies in Spain, Gaul, Germany, and Britain, indellibly fixed the imprint of her language and system of government throughout the civilised nations of Europe. Egypt, after the battle of Attium (B.C. 30), was reduced into a Roman province, by which the Romans obtained a monopoly of nearly all the trade between India and Europe. Even Alexandria, the centre port of the trade of India and the west, and which was the residence of the Greek kings of Egypt from B.C. 323 to B.C. 30, when it fell into the hands of the Romans, had its commerce and power destroyed by the Saracens, who, in spite of Heraclus, overspread the northern coast of Africa and expelled its merchants. During the progress of the Roman Empire navigation made little or no progress, except in the size of the vessels. Mr. Gibbon, speaking of the Romans, repugnance to maritime affairs, in his history of the decline of the Roman Empire, says, "Their ambition was confined to the land, nor was that warlike people ever actuated by the enterprising spirit which had prompted the navigators of Tyre and Carthage and even of Marseilles to enlarge the bounds of the world and to explore the most remote coasts of the ocean. To the Romans the ocean remained an object of terror rather than of curiosity." For the first four centuries of the Christian era the Roman's conducted a very successful trade with India by way of the Red Sea, and their fleets, the growth of centuries, were maintained on the coasts of the Mediterranean, Gaul, and the British Isles, merely to protect their commerce and empire from the inroads of the barbarians. In the fifth century, when the northern barbarians made their way into the Roman Empire, into Gaul, Spain, Italy, and Africa, learning, the polite arts and navigation became almost extinct. The lawless invaders rendered navigation unsafe, and plundered many towns and laid many more under contribution. The irruption of the barbarians was followed by the collapse of the Roman Empire and the beginning of what is termed the dark ages. Europe then became overwhelmed with a deluge of barbarism for several centuries, but the barbarian conquerors soon perceived the value of navigation. The Saxon, Jutish, and Norsemen began to traverse the ocean in every direction in sailing vessels, and gradually acquired the daring and hardihood that made them masters of the sea. Even the mariners of Briton were no mean seamen, for they maintained their independence against all the Power of Rome. Some in Gaul as the Franks, others in Spain as the Goths, and others in Italy as the Lombards, also revived the practice of navigation; but it was not until the republics of Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and Florence, whose ports abounded with shipping, that over-sea navigation was restored. Their merchants traded with vast fleets of galleys even to the furthest Indies, and their markets became the exchanges for the produce of the world. The crusades in the 12th and 13th centuries against the Saracens in Palestine were furnished by these flourishing republics with transports, military forces, and provisions, which extended their naval and commercial resources. Their rivalries gave occasion to the growth of naval tactics, and their rich maritime commerce tempted piracy. We learn that the Moorish Corsairs in quest of prey evinced not less nautical skill than inhuman cruelty. The successive invasions of the Saracens and barbarous nations into Gaul, Spain, Italy, and Africa revived the calamities of the Goths and Huns; hence it is that we are told that "for more than 10 centuries the naked power of the sword was vivid and terrible as flashes of lightning over all the seats of commerce, like that of ancient and modern origin." Venice, built on a number of small islands, by her shipping and naval defences defied the predatory bands, and soon became the great emporium of the Mediterranean, all that Carthage, Corinthe, and Athens was in a former age. By conquest it founded dominions in the Ionian Islands, Candia, and Cyprus. It never until the present age saw a hostile force within its walls. Genoa, following the steps of Venice, soon rose into great prosperity. As far back as the second century it founded mercantile factories at Cyprus, Pera, Galata, and Caffa; but during her favourable career in the 14th century she received a check during her maritime war with Venice, which proved injurious to both nations, but secured to the Venetians the empire of the sea and superiority in commerce. The Venetians and Genoese planted many colonies, and are regarded as the restorers of navigation. From the age of the Ptolemies until the reign of Justinian (A.D. 527-65) there is no account of any maritime discoveries. Indeed, from the time of Arrian (A.D. 150), to that of Marco Polo (A.D. 1293), who ranks among the greatest discoverers of any age, the accounts of Cosmus are the only records of the maritime and commercial affairs of Europe and India. We are told that between the 6th and 9th centuries great numbers of vessels from all parts of India, China, Persia, and Ethiopia were in the habit of trading with the fleets of Ceylon, whose mariners "did not make astronomical observations, but carry birds to sea, and letting them go from time to time, follow the course they take for the land." In the middle ages the progress of trade and the productive arts was developed to a degree of opulence and refinement commanding the admiration of modern times. Considerable improvements took place in navigation as mariners became acquainted with the monsoons, or periodical winds of the Indian Ocean. The uniform direction of the wind supplied the want of the mariner's compass. Taking their departure from the Red Sea on the setting in of the western monsoon,

they omitted the circuitous method of sailing along the coast, but stretched out boldly across the ocean to the coast of Malabar, where, receiving their cargoes, they returned with the eastern monsoons, finishing their voyage from the Red Sea to India and back within the year. During the middle ages the mantle of science descended from the sages of Greece and Rome to the Arabians, who were then among the most learned of nations. In the ninth century two Mahometan brothers, Wahad and Abuzaid, penetrated into China, and the brothers Almagrurim sailed from Lisbon into the "Sea of Darkness" (an appelation given by the Arabians to the Atlantic), as far as the islands of Madeira and Canaries. The Arabians, when they had conquered half the world, founded splendid cities on the banks of the Euphrates, but, like the Romans, the navigation of the Atlantic was viewed by them with horror. They had gloomy ideas of the old world being encompassed by a dark and boundless ocean. The Danes and Norwegians, or Norsemen, as they were anciently called, under their mighty sea-kings, extended their voyages to the coasts of Britain, France, Sicily, Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland, which they first pillaged and then partly colonised. By conquest their fleets knew Orkney, Shetland, the Hebrides, and the westward of Ireland. The sea had no terror for these hardy rovers, whose exploits are imperishably recorded in the Icelandic Sagas, and in the numerous islands to which they gave names. Their greatest nautical enterprise was the discovery of America in the tenth century, five centuries before the time of Columbus. In 1697 Snorro Sturlonides published at Stockholm a work called "Chronicle of Olaus," in which he states that those enterprising navigators, the Norwegians, planted a colony in Iceland, in A.D. 874, established a settlement in Greenland in A.D. 982, and four years later proceeded westward and founded a colony which they called Vineland. The authenticity of these facts was considered extremely doubtful until the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries at Cophenhagen commenced a search among Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic manuscripts, and the result published in 1838, in their "Antiquitates Americanæ," wherein many old Gothic M.S.S., preserved in the archives of Denmark, disclose a host of striking facts which prove beyond a doubt that the Scandinavians knew and visited the coast of America eight centuries ago. The identity of Vineland with Massachussetts and Rhode Island is fully established by some of the nautical and astronomical observations contained in these ancient writings. During the tenth and eleventh centuries the Norwegians discovered and settled on a great extent of the eastern coast of North America, and for centuries following the intercourse was never broken off. These facts were unknown to Columbus.

PROGRESS OF MODERN MARITIME DISCOVERY.—The history of the compass is the history of the rise and progress of modern maritime discovery. Although the Greeks and Romans were unacquainted with the magnet's directive properties, it is difficult to suppose that the earliest navigators were ignorant of it, when we consider the long voyages they freqneutly made. The Romans, animated by hatred and revenge, industriously destroyed the literature and history of the Phœnicians, hence it may reasonably be supposed that this famous maritime people in their voyages to Britain for tin, and round Africa to India, must have been guided by more certain marks than the aspect of headlands by day, or the often interrupted view of stars by night. The Chinese from a remote antiquity, knew of the magnet for nautical purposes and land travel. In the ninth century they traded to the Persian Gulf and Red Sea, and it is highly probable that they employed it then for nautical purposes. It is generally admitted that the navigators of Japan, India, and Arabia used it many ages before it was introduced into Furope, also that at a very early period the declination or variation of the needle was known to the Chinese. In 1242 the method of magnetising the needle was described by Baclak, and the compass as a nautical instrument was pretty generally known among European nations in the twelfth century. So backward were the mariners of that age, and so slightly were they animated by a spirit of enterprise, that half a century elapsed after its discovery ere navigators ventured into unknown latitudes. About the beginning of the thirteenth century all the nations of the world began to lay aside their former state of barbarism, while their wars were not as formerly, so frequent, nor carried on with such fury and savage cruelty. Learning began to revive in Europe, and produced improvements in navigation which led to the discovery of many remote regions and the progress of commerce, the only true and durable source of riches. The mariners' compass soon became familiar to the seamen of Italy, Portugal, Holland, and England, and they entered upon a more adventurous and enlightened course of navigation. Aided by it they traversed the tropical regions, and found they were not, as had been vulgarly supposed, uninhabitable on account of the heat, and the general impression that little commercial advantage could be reaped in such remote tropical regions was soon dissipated. The French and Italians are regarded as the restorers of navigation while the Venetians and Genoese have the glory of its restoration, but the history of modern colonisation on a large scale opens up with the Spanish conquests in America. As early as 1241 the Hanseatic League (the union of 72 German cities for mutual defence against pirates) carried on a flourishing traffic in the English Channel and South of Europe, but at the close of the fifteenth century, a division arising among them, the ancient Italian and Hanseatic commerce sunk and fell into the hands of the Portuguese. The first and most eminent navigator was Marco Polo, a Venetian nobleman, who, about 1269, traversed the seas south of Asia. Half a century afterwards he was succeeded by Sir John Mandeville, an Englishman. In 1330 the French sighted the Canaries, and the discovery of a few more rich countries gave a turn to the ambition of European navigators, and during the fifteenth century there was an ardent spirit of discovery in Europe, the principal object of which was to find a passage by sea to the East Indies. In this state of things the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans began to be explored by all nations, who applied themselves to the fitting out of expeditions from the prospect of commercial advantage, and from mere motives of curiosity, or to enrich themselves with the gold and silver produced in the Indies. In fact, all the enterprising spirits of that age engaged in a career of discovery, conquest, and commerce. The Portuguese had the advantage of being the first discoverers of the East Indies, and the Spaniards of the western countries. Many voyages to the Pacific were made under Henry, Duke of Viseo (brother of Edward, King of Portugal), who was skilled in cosmography, and caused the construction of many instruments and charts for navigation. In 1418 the Portuguese colonised the Canaries, and two years later landed on Madeira. In 1431 the Azores were discovered by a shipmaster of Bruges. In 1456 Lewis Cademastos, a Venetian navigator for Don Henry of Portugal, made two voyages of discovery, one a little distance beyond Cape Verd, and the other to the Cape Verd islands, which were until then undiscovered. In 1485 the Portuguese published for the use of sailors, tables for the sun's declination, and recommended the astrolabe for taking observations at sea. About this time a flotilla navigated Africa 1000 miles south of the line, and in 1486 Batholomew Dias, a Portuguese navigator for King John II. of Portugal, with another flotilla, stretched boldly 400 leagues further, until he unwittingly came upon the land's end of Africa. Meeting with a succession of tempests, losing the company of the victualling barque that accompanied him, the bad state of his ship, and the untoward disposition of his crew, compelled him to return to Portugal (after a voyage of 16 months) without doubling the Cape, which, on account of the troubles he had undergone, he called "Cabo Tormentoso," or the "Stormy Cape." From his account the King foresaw that the voyage to the Indies was discovered, and he named the newly discovered cape "Cabo del Bueno Esperanza," or "the Cape of Good Hope." The advantage of this oceanic passage to the Indies over the time-honoured route by Suez was to enable European trade with the east to escape from the Moors, Algerines, and Turks who waged predatory wars on ships and cargoes in the Mediterranean. At that period tradition and imagination had invested the Indies with almost fabulous wealth and splendour, and in them the Portuguese soon found a country of considerable population and trade so as to form a basis for extensive exports to Europe; besides the voyage from Lisbon *via* the Cape to India was less expensive and tedious than the route by the Red Sea, Alexandria, and Venice. Among the famous navigators of that age was Christopher Columbus (a name Latinised from the Italian Colombo and the Spanish Colon). About 1447 he was born at Genoa, and after studying Latin, geometry, cosmography, and astronomy at school, he showed an early predilection for a seafaring life. At 14 he went to sea, and after various voyages to ports in the Mediterranean, he took a voyage to Iceland in 1467, and advanced 100 leagues beyond it and several degrees within the Polar circle. After this he served for several years with a small squadron which cruised against the Mahommetans and Venetians. After being shipwrecked he returned to Lisbon and married the daughter of Bartholomew Perestrello, an Italian, who, for Prince Henry, had discovered and planted the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira. Having got possession of the charts of this experienced navigator, Columbus was seized with an irresistible desire of visiting unknown countries. His mind was kindled to enthusiasm in maritime discovery by the traditions of the ancients, the legends of Japan and China, the sphericity of the earth, and the imaginary prolongation of Asia to the east, all this presumptive evidence firmly convinced him of the practicability of falling across the Atlantic directly towards the west, and discovering conntries that formed part of India and Asia. His conjectures as to the shortest and most direct course to the remote regions of the west were confirmed by the observations of more modern navigators. He presented his plans to the Genoese and afterwards to King John II. of Portugal, but they were considered the extravagant demands of a mere adventurer. The latter dishonourably sent a vessel, under the pretext of taking provisions to Cape Verd, with secret instructions to try the route marked on Columbus' papers. The pilots, losing courage, put back to Lisbon and ridiculed the scheme. Indignant at such duplicity Columbus went to England and sent his brother Bartholomew with his plans to Henry VII. of England, but instead of patronage they met with coldness. In Spain Ferdinand and Isabella showed him greater attention, and after long delays he was,

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by a treaty, constituted high admiral of the countries he should discover. In August, 1492, furnished with an armanent of three ships, he set sail and steered directly for the Canaries, from thence, holding his course due west, he stretched away into unknown seas. He discovered the Bahana Islands, Cuba, Hispaniola (where he founded a colony), and other islands. In 1493 he left Cadiz on a second expedition with 17 ships and 1500 men, and discovered the Carribee Islands and Jamaica. In 1498 he embarked on a third expedition with six ships, discovering Trinidad and America. Envy and malignity pursued him, and the intrigues of his enemies caused Ferdinand and Isabella to revoke his office of viceroy and governor of his newly-discovered countries and appoint in his stead one Francis de Bovadilla, who threw Columbus and his brother into chains. This shameful transaction caused a burst of indignation throughout Spain, and de Bovadilla was disgraced, but Columbus was not raised to his former dignity. His ever-soaring and irrepressible passion for discovery led him to undertake a fourth voyage to prove his original idea of opening up a new tract to the East Indies. He sailed with four small barques and 150 men from Cadiz in 1502, and arrived at St. Domingo to witness the destruction, by a hurricane, of the fleets of Bovadillo and Roddan, and several of his inveterate enemies. Owing to reverses he only traced the coast about the Isthmus of Darien in search of his imaginary strait, and then returned to Spain. While the Spaniards under Columbus were prosecuting their researches for India, King Emanuel of Portugal, resolved to push the discoveries made south of Africa, and the adjacent seas in the East Indies. Vasco or Vasquez de Gama, a nobleman of the Portuguese maritime town of Sines, famous for courage and prudence as a naval commander, was entrusted with the enterprise. With Dias' pilot, he set sail in July, 1497, from Lisbon; with a squadron of three armed vessels and a storeship. After contending with contrary winds for four months, he reached the Cape of Good Hope, which he doubled and coasted along the S.E. coast of Africa, touching at various ports until he reached Melinda. With a Mahometan pilot, he reached the Malabar coast. In May he arrived at Calicut, and upon the discovery of a plot for his destruction through the intrigues of the Mahometan merchants trading with the Prince of Calicut; he returned in 1499 to Europe. This expedition completely established the practicability of the route to India, *via* the Cape, and others were sent out in consequence. In 1502 he made a second voyage with 20 ships, as admiral of the Indian, Persian, and Arabian seas to Cochin, and by conquest secured two large valuable ships and founded a settlement at Canonor. He made a third voyage to India, when he defeated the people of Calicut, and on Christmas Eve 1525 he died at Cochin. The success of these voyages occasioned great triumph at Portugal, and that nation established colonies in the Indies and extended them by conquest. In the same year that De Gama sailed on his first voyage the British navigator, Sebastian Cabot (who made several voyages with his father, a Venetian, who held a commission from Henry VII. for the discovery of the north west passage to India), discovered Newfoundland and the coast of America to Cape Florida. It is justly observed that America should have been called after him, as he discovered the mainland before Columbus or Vesputius. After many voyages for the Spaniards, he returned to England, where the Duke of Somerset appointed him governor of merchant adventurers for the discovery of countries unknown. In 1522 he produced the first voyage to Russia, and is undoubtedly the founder of the maritime strength of England which has made this nation so flourishing. In 1501, Pedro Alvanez Cabral or Cabrera, who commanded the second fleet fitted out in 1500 for the East Indias by Emanuel, King of Portugal, was driven by a tempest unexpectedly on to the shores of Brazil, which he claimed for Portugal. Americus Vesputius, a native of Florence, as soon as he heard of Columbus' return from the West Indias, burned with impatience to be a partaker of his glory. In 1497 he sailed with four ships supplied by Ferdinand, King of Spain. In 18 months he sailed along Terra Firma as far as the Gulf of Mexico. The following year, with six ships, he explored Guiana, and brought home many valuable stones and commodities. The base ingratitude of the Spaniards for his services induced him to enter the service of Emanuel, who, jealous of the powers of the Catholic sovereign, took great pains to share in all new discoveries. In 1501, Vesputius with three ships made an extensive voyage along Brazil, and during his fourth expedition he died on the island of Tercera, in 1504, and his services obtained for him, the giving of his name to the whole continent of America. Although the Spaniards in their voyages to the Carrabeen Sea and along the Persian Gulf, heard of great seas and tracts of land existing to the west, they had no knowledge of the Southern Ocean until it was descried by their countrymen, Vasco Nugnes de Balboa in 1513, from the Isthmus of Darien. Balboa believed he had discovered "the Gates of the East Indias, and called the ocean "Mar del Zur," or "The South Sea." This discovery was hailed with great joy by the Spaniards, who hoped to find another route to the far-famed Cathay (China), which to their rivals had proved such a vast source of wealth. The name of South Sea was changed to the Pacific Ocean by Ferdinand de Magalhaens, better known by the name of Magellan. a Portuguese, who served under Albuquerque in the East Indies for five years, and distinguished himself at the conquest of Malacca in 1510. He entered the service of Charles V., King of Spain. Magellan and Ray Falero formed the bold design of discovering a new passage by the west to the Mollucca Islands, which they offered to prove fell within the division of the globe, assigned by the Pope to the Crown of Castile. They proposed this enterprise to Emanuel, who rejected it as opening a way to other nations to have access to the East Indies, the trade of which was monopolised by the Portuguese. On September 15th, 1519, Magellan sailed from San Lucar with five ships and 236 men. While lying at a port off South America three of the captains formed a conspiracy against him which he discovered and quelled. In October he reached the entrance to the Straits that bear his name. He had to exert all his authority to induce his men to venture up this unknown passage with a view of crossing the vast sea beyond it. With only three months' provisions, and only two ships (one ship having steered back to Europe), he passed through the strait and discovered the South Sea on November 27th, 1519, which caused him to shed tears of joy. As they voyaged across the ocean they were reduced by famine to eat the hides that composed the rigging. The weather proved uniformly calm, and they gave the name Pacific to the ocean over which they sailed. The term South Seas or Pacific Ocean are neither appropriate, seeing that it is neither south or calm except in the tropical portion. The name Great Ocean or Oceanic, proposed by Malte Brun, and others, sounds queer; therefore Pacific is the name recognised and now generally adopted. On March 6th, 1520, Magellan sighted the Ladrones, so named by him from the thieving character of the natives. Thence he reached the archipelago of St. Lazarus, afterwards called the Phillipines. In a petty quarrel with some natives of Matan, he was wounded by an arrow, beaten down, and slain with a lance. This catastrophe took place in 1521, and by this act of imprudence he lost the honour of being the first circumnavigator of the globe, which attached to Cario, who brought his ship home by the East Indies. His skill and resolution has secured him an immortal name among maritime discoverers.

CHAPTER III.

THE FIRST DISCOVERERS OF AUSTRALASIA.

EARLY NAVIGATION OF AUSTRALASIA.—The progress of maritime discoveries became astonishingly rapid in the fifteenth century, for privateering as well as national expeditions were equipped for traversing the southern seas and facing the savage nations in the remotest extremities of the earth. Long and vain searches were made for centuries for the mighty Terra Australis Incognita or the Great South Land of the ancients, and which was clearly depicted in the maps of the Persian and Arabian navigators. Passing over the speculative conjectures that the Arabians and Chinese, at the beginning of the Christian Era, were acquainted with Australasia (for traces of their features and languages have been detected in the aborigines of Australasia by the earliest navigators), we find that the earliest mention of a Great South Land or southern continent appears in Marsden's translation of the romantic travels of the Venetian navigator, Marco Polo, who stands at the head of Mediæval travellers, and for extraordinary skill and resolution been paralleled with Columbus. In 1293 he commanded a squadron of 14 ships for the Great Mogul Emperor, Kublai Khan, bound from China to the Persian Gulf. After steering a course S. S.W. 700 miles, he discovered two large islands (presumedly Barrows Island and Dampiers Archipelago), which he named Sundor and Kondor. Having run 50 miles S.E. from these islands he reached an extensive country called Lochac, where "gold is abundant to a degree scarcely creditable; elephants are found there, and the objects of the chase either with dogs or birds are in plenty." His description of the rich country fairly rivals the romances of the "Arabian Nights' entertain-

ments." Historigraphers describe Lochac as identical with Cambodia, where gold spices and elephants exist, but the manuscript map of Polo's travels deposited in the Royal Library at Stockholm, dated 1350, mark two large islands S.E. of Java, and the contour of the north coast of the one marked Lochac somewhat resembles the north coast of Australia. It is presumed that Polo learned his particulars of the situations of the island of Lochac from navigators in the Celestial Empire. The finding of the route to India *via* the Cape by Dias in 1486, inspired that spirit of maritime enterprise which brought about the discovery of America by Columbus, who rather intended to reach the Great South Land. Magellan, in 1520, undertook, by circumnavigating the earth, to solve this mighty problem. He crossed the entire breadth of the Pacific, from Africa to the Phillipines. Both these intrepid navigators thought that the countries they discovered formed part of the southern continent. An ingenious theory has been set up in favour of Magellan being the first discoverer of Australia. His charts delineate a line of coast to the south of New Guinea, which line proves to be a chartographical side note of Terra Del Fuego near the strait he discovered; consequently any claim on his behalf is only enigmatical. Different writers have given various navigators the award of priority of discovery, but the learned researches of Mr. R. H. Major (extending over 30 years), has probably set this vexed question at rest. He believes that Australia was known to the French prior to 1531, and he awards the merit of discovery in 1542 to one Guilleume de Testu, a pilot of Grasse, in Provence, France (others have thought him a Norman), whose map, drawn in 1555, has been found in the Depot de La Guerre, at Paris. No doubt the secret as to who was really the first discoverer will be more conclusively revealed when some antiquary will have waded through the thousands of volumes and myriads of loose papers handed over by the Dutch East India Company to the State archives at Hague, where recently the greatest liberality has been shown to those who desire to have access to the literary treasures they possess. Judging from old manuscript charts, Australia must have been discovered early in the 16th century. In the library of the Carthusian Friars, at Evora, there exists an authentic manuscript atlas of all the countries of the world, with richly emblazoned maps made by Ternao Vaz Dourado, a cosmographer in Goa, in 1570. In one of these maps is laid down the N. coast of Australia, with a note, stating, "This coast was discovered by Ternao de Magathoeus, a native of Portugal, in the year 1520." There are also in existence six curious manuscript charts, four in England and two in France, showing a large country separated by a narrow strait at the south of Java. These charts bear internal evidence of being executed between the years 1530 and 1547. The earliest was probably executed about 1530, in the time of Francis the First, of France, for his son, the Dauphin, afterwards Henry II. The second map is dated 1547, and contains the name of Nicholas Villard, of Dieppe. The third and fourth are in a volume bearing date 1542, made by one Jean Rotz, who intended to dedicate them to the King of France, but afterwards presented them to Henry VIII., in England. These two curious manuscript maps show an island called "Lytel Java," and a great country stretching S.E. of it, and S. of Borneo the Mulluccas, and the Indian Archipelago marked "The Londe of Java," which agree with the position, and the extent of Australia. All the geographical names are in Portuguese, although the maps purport to be copies of a French map. No memorials of these early voyages in the course of which these lands were delineated have been found. Various theories have been propounded to show that the Portuguese navigators (after Vasco de Gama's voyages) sailed far down into southern latitudes after becoming masters of the Mulluccas, which they discovered in 1511, and established a settlement there in 1522, carrying on an extensive commerce in spices and aromatics. There is a strong presumption that they were the first discoverers of Australia; for, being possessed of rich possessions in the Indian Ocean, they were too active to allow a tract of coast so closely contiguous to their settlements to escape their research. They are entitled to the first place in utilising the new sources of wealth and commerce from the discoveries of navigators on the coasts of Africa, India, and the Indian Ocean. They obtained Macao as a settlement from the Chinese in 1537, and pushed their trading operations even with China. The French writers on Australian voyages, the Abbé Prevost, and after him the President de Brosses, have endeavoured to prove that the first discoverer of Australia was a native of Honfleur, named Binot Paulmier de Gonneville, who in June, 1503, sailed from Honfleur to the South Seas. Rounding the Cape of Good Hope, this navigator's vessel was caught in a terrible tempest and driven to the S.E., when, after following the flight of birds, he discovered a country of unknown extent, which he called Southern India, and sojourned there six months. On his homeward journey an English corsair plundered him of his charts. His descriptions of the voyage and the newly-discovered country given in a judicial declaration, dated July 19th, 1505, before the French Admiralty conclusively show (say Burney and Flinders) that he reached Madagascar, and brought from thence Prince Essomerie to Normandy.

PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH DISCOVERIES.—It is an indisputable fact that the Spanish and Portuguese Governments secreted and suppressed the accounts of their early discoveries; therefore it is difficult to determine whether the Spaniards have not as much merit as the Portuguese to the priority of discovery. Mons Barbie Du Bocage, in a paper read before the French Institute in 1807, gives the merit to a Spaniard named Gormez de Sequiera, but his avowal was based on mere supposition, as Gomez was never near Australia. Another claim in favour of the Spaniards appears on the face of an old chart of the world in the British Museum, which depicts Australia, and bears a statement that it was discovered by a pilot and cosmographer named Godiho de Eredia in 1601. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century there dawned an era in maritime history which brought about many brilliant discoveries, and the tide of discoveries flowed on without intermission. One of the most noteworthy attempts to discover the southern continent was made by Don Jorge de Menezes and Alvarez de Saavedra, who, in 1526, discovered Papua, commonly called New Guinea. Another famous attempt was made by Ruy Lopez de Villalobos, who was sent out to form a settlement at the Phillipine Islands. He steered his vessel along the coast of New Guinea and its adjacient coasts. In 1564, Miguel Lopez de Segaspie was sent out for a similar object, but he was likewise unsuccessful. Another abortive attempt was made in 1567 by the great navigator, Alvaro Mendano de Neyra, who was sent by the Viceroy of Peru with a squadron, and after sailing 4500 miles from Peru he discovered the Solomon Islands. These islands are 33 in number and were subsequently called by Carteret, Queen Charlotte Islands. As an instance of the singular chimeras credited in that day, Mendano believed that these islands were the Ophir from which Solomon drew the treasures to build the temple of Jerusalem. In that voyage Mendano sailed round San Christoval and other islands within a few days' sail of Australia. In 1595 he made a second voyage with Don Pedro Fernandez de Quer, or, as he is called in Spanish, de Quiros, and discovered the Marquesas. He had been sent out to minutely examine the Solomon Islands, but such was the imperfection of maritime observation that he failed to rediscover them. He, however, reached the Molluccas (rediscovered by Shortland and called New Georgia), and founded a settlement at Santa Cruz, rendered famous as being the place where he died in 1595, as well as the place where Bishop Paterson was massacred in 1871 and Commodore Goodenough mortally wounded with poisoned arrows in 1874. Despite the closeness to Australia of these Spanish voyages, there cannot be two opinions that the claims of the Portuguese to the merit of the discovery are more weighty than those of the Spainiards. There is sufficient evidence to show that after the Portuguese obtained the Molluccas from the Spanish Crown, a line of demarcation was agreed upon by which all discoveries in one half the area of the Southern Ocean should belong to the Portuguese and the other half to the Spainiards. Ultimately, it is alleged that the Portuguese discovered Australia; but as it was within the area assigned to the Spainiards they did not make its existence known, for fear the Spainiards would press their claim to it. The first, and most unimpeachable account that Australia was known to the Portuguese as Great Java, or Terra Australis, prior to 1598, is recorded in Cornelius Wytflict's "Descriptionis Ptolemaicæ Augmentum," printed at Louain in 1598. An interesting passage states, "The Australis Terra is the most southern of all lands, and is separated from New Guinea by a narrow strait. Its shores are hitherto but little known, since after one voyage and another that route has been deserted, and seldom is the country visited, unless when sailors are driven there by storms. The Australis Terra begins at two or three degrees from the equator, and is ascertained by some to be of so great an extent, that if it were thoroughly explored, it would be regarded as a fifth part of the world." Mr. Major, in 1861, says that he is led to the conclusion that the land described "Java le Grande" is no other than Australia, and this fact has since been proved a demonstrable certainty.

FIRST AUTHENTICATED DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA.—Hitherto the Spanish and Portuguese were the only nations trading in the South Seas, and it was not until 1598 that the Dutch Republic fitted out an expedition to the Indian Ocean, resulting in the establishment of the Dutch East India Co. in 1602. According to the accounts of the early voyages of the Dutch (which were jealously suppressed for upwards of a century, and only made known by Sir Joseph Banks, who, towards the close of the last century, purchased a manuscript copy of instructions to Commodore Abel Janez Tasman, which contained a chronological account of the previous voyages of the Dutch in Nova Guinea and the great South Land), we learn that on the 18th of November, 1605, the Dutch yacht Duyphen, or The Dove (captain's name unknown), was despatched from Bantam to explore the islands of New Guinea. After sailing into the Gulf of Carpentaria, they came to a cape which they called Cape Keer Weer, or Turnajain (a little to the south of Cape York), where, on March 6th, 1606, some of the crew on landing were murdered by the blacks. Want of provisions compelled them to return to Bantam, in June, 1606, from whence glowing accounts of their discoveries were transmitted to Holland. This voyage may be considered as the first authenticated discovery of Australia, and those who landed the first Euro-

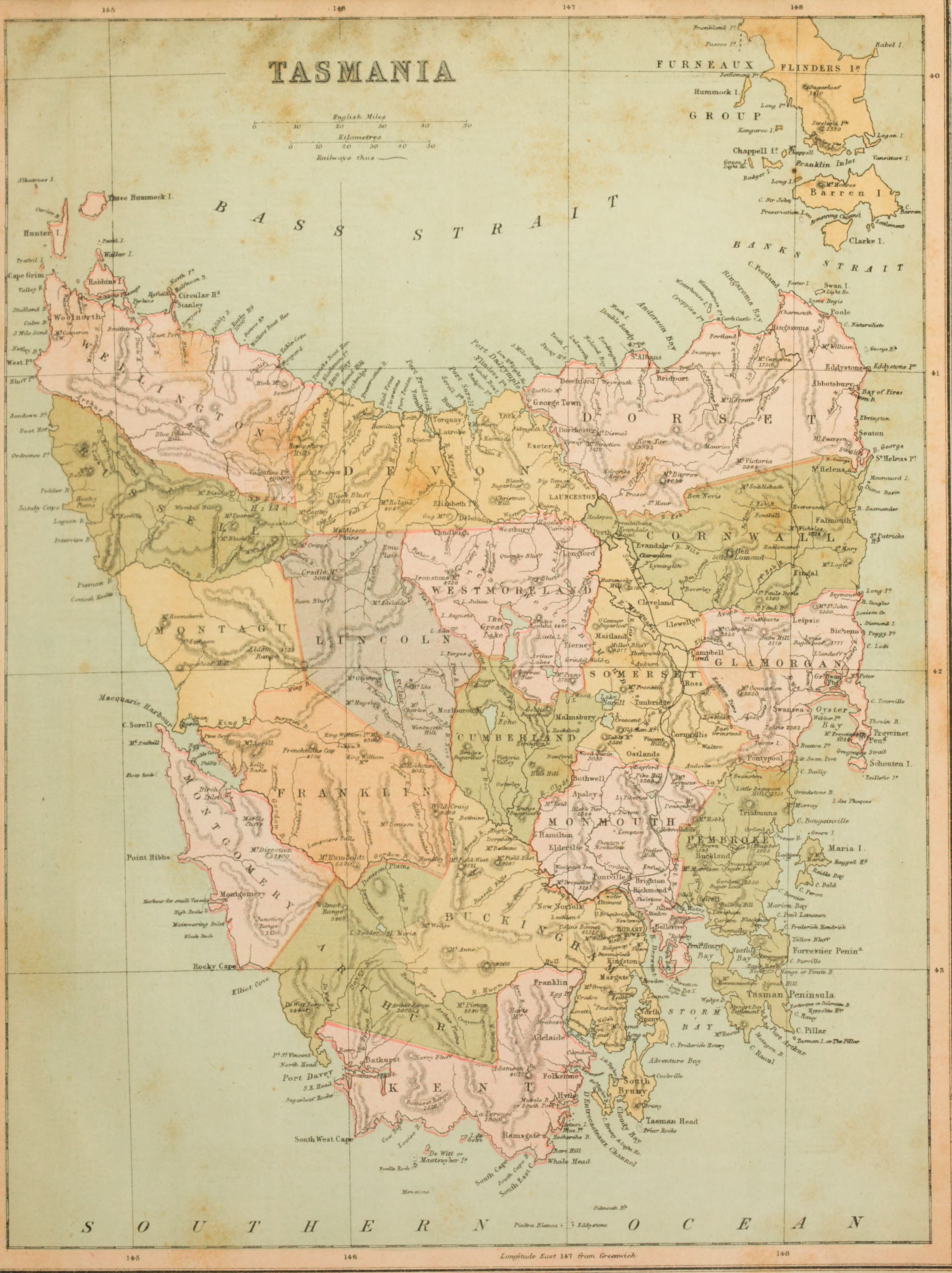
peans to land on the mainland. It appears that they did not know they had discovered the great south land, and it is singular that Torres, it is alleged, a few months subsequently, touched on the same coast without knowing it formed part of Australia.

DISCOVERIES OF QUIROS AND TORRES.—We now come to the discoveries of Don Pedro Fernandez de Quer, or as he is called in English, De Quiros, an illustrious Portuguese navigator, whose discoveries were all in the interests of Spain. As previously stated, De Quiros acted as pilot to the second expedition of Mendano, when the Marquessas and Santa Cruz were discovered. It is asserted that he commanded this expedition because of his great abilities as a navigator, and his enthusiastic desires to discover the Terra Australis. Be that as it may, it is recorded that Mendano, just before he died at Santa Cruz, appointed his wife, Donna Isabel Berreto (who had her retinue of domestics and ladies on board) as his successor with the title of Governess. However, with a mutinous and half-starved crew, De Quiros navigated the fleet to Peru, where he impressed the Viceroy de Velases with his belief that he could discover the southern continent if his miserable fleet of vessels were replaced by others suitable for a voyage of discovery. The Viceroy favoured De Quiros' projects and wrote in advocacy of them to Phillip III. By this influence De Quiros personally sought the aid of the King, who graciously received him, and after some eight or ten years' delay, caused two ships and a corvette to be equipped for the expedition. Although De Quiros was vested with full powers to make a settlement at Santa Cruz, and thence to prosecute discoveries in the South Seas, a nobleman named Luys de Vaez de Torres was appointed Admiral of the fleet. On December 21st, 1605, the little fleet sailed from Callao, in Peru, and on February 10th, 1606, De Quiros discovered an island which he called La Sagitaria now called Otaheite or Tahiti. After discovering Taumaco and other islands, he sighted, on April 26th, a tract of land of such an extent as to suggest the idea of its being a continent, which he called Tierra del Espiritu Sancto, or the "South Land of the Holy Spirit." Here he founded a city, which he called La Nouva Jerusalem, and discovered two rivers, which he named respectively the Jordan and Salvador, the banks of which were enamelled with verdure. He concluded that this was the southern continent, and while laying in the bay of St. Phillip and St. James at midnight on June 11th, he was driven by a storm, or sailed away to sea, leaving Torres with the other two ships. Some writers affirm that his infirmity of temper, caused a disagreement among his crew, who compelled him to sail home without exploring the country. However, he returned to Aeapulus within nine months of his departure therefrom. Meanwhile, Torres, who was left to prosecute discoveries in his own name, sailed round the island which De Quiros thought was Australia, but which in reality was one of the archipelago of islands subsequently called the Cyclades by Bougainville and the New Hebrides by Captain Cook. Mr. Alexander Dalrymple, hydographer to the British Admiralty and East India Company, and other geographers have asserted that this island was the east coast Australia, while others say that New Zealand answers the account given by De Quiros, but recent researches conclusively prove that it was one of the New Hebrides, and 1000 miles from the eastern side of Australia. With extraordinary perseverance De Quiros petitioned Charles V. in 50 memorials, to grant funds for another expedition to found a colony in the newly discovered country, but as Torres on his return, had reported that there was no great southern continent, his prayers were unheeded, and he died in 1614 a victim to blasted hopes and broken fortunes. In 1874, a pamphlet in Spanish, giving an account of one of the many memorials presented to the King of Spain by De Quiros, "concerning the population and discovery of the fourth part of the world, Australia the Unknown," was translated into English by Mr. W. A. Duncan, the late Collector of Customs. The writer has a copy of this curious account before him, and there cannot be a shadow of doubt that De Quiros' account of the aborigines is in no way applicable to the natives of Australia, and beyond a firm belief that such a continent existed, his claim to its discovery is not tenable. In the preamble, De Quiros sets forth that he had previously presented the king with eight memorials and that he had been 14 months in the king's court without receiving any acknowledgment of his despatches. He complains that he has been engaged in the cause of discovery 14 years without pay, and says, "amid infinite contradictions, I have gone 20,000 leagues by sea and land, and spent all my fortune, injured my person, suffering so many and such terrible hardships that even to myself they seem almost incredible." The first paragraph recites that "The extent of the lands newly discovered, judging by that I have seen, and by that of which Captain Luys de Vaces de Torres, the Admiral of my charge, with good reason informed your Majesty, is in length as great as the whole of Europe, and as far as the Caspian Sea and Persia, with all the isles of the Mediterranean and the ocean within that boundary, including England and Ireland. In this place is hidden a fourth part of the whole globe," &c. In the second paragraph, he says, "The population of those lands is great. They are of various colours, white, yellow mortals, and black, and mixtures of each;" and "Their arms are bows, arrows, wooden swords, clubs, spears, and darts also of wood. The people are partly covered, are clean, lively, and rational." He further remarks, "Their houses are of wood covered with palm leaves; they use pots of clay. They have nets of various kinds, they work in marble, make pipes, drums, and varnished wood spoons, they hold oratories and funerals, and have large properties in land enclosed and palisaded. They use much mother of pearl, and of the shells they make chisels of various sizes, gouges, hooks, and ornaments, and plates to hang from the neck. The islanders have vessels well-built and sufficient to carry them from one island to another, and they are put together so securely as to indicate the habits of a more polished race." The remaining paragraphs at great length proceed to speak of their fruits, such as strawberries, oranges, lemons, and dates, as well as sugar-cane plaintains being plentiful. The vegetables, spices, and animals (especially goats and indications of cows), do not in any way resemble the products of Australia. In conclusion, he says, "I raised a cross, and set up a church of our Lady of Loretto, in which 20 masses were said. I gained the jubilee conceded on the day of Pentecost, and formed a solemn possession on Corpus Christi Day, in which I dignified these lands by walking, preceded by the most Holy Sacrament and the standard of your Majesty. Three field ensigns were also hoisted and your Royal arms were exhibited between two pillars. Furthermore, as a royal vassal of your Majesty, I confide that your Majesty will immediately annex this great continent to your dominions under the title of Australia, of the Holy Spirit to the great glory of the same Lord that made it." Admiral Luys de Vaez de Torres, not knowing of De Quiros' determination to return to Callao, stayed 15 days in the bay of Santiago, and then he circumnavigated the newly discovered territory and found it was an island instead of a continent. With the frigate La Admiranta and the corvette, he continued his explorations westward, until in August (1606), he reached the Louisiade Islands, having sailed through the straits separating New Guinea from Australia. When Manila was captured by storm by the English from Spain in 1762, Dalrymple, the historiographer, discovered in the Archives of that city an account of Torres' voyage, a copy of which Torres had transmitted to his king, who, in accordance with the jealous policy of the age, suppressed the record. As Torres was the first navigator that sighted the S. coast of New Guinea, Dalrymple, with true generosity, rescued the name of Torres from oblivion, by inscribing on the Admiralty charts the name of "Torres Straits," against the intricate and dangerous passage which Torres discovered. Torres, in his account, describes the numerous islands and shoals he encountered. On the 11th day he says he saw a great island to the southward, inhabited by corpulent naked blacks, whose arms were lances, arrows, and clubs of stone ill-fashioned. He captured 20 natives and took them to Spain. Mr. Major asserts that Torres sighted Cape York and thought it was an island, but this is only conjecture, as the natives of Northern Australia do not use bows and arrows like the natives of the islands adjacient to New Guinea. After two months' laborious navigation, Torres returned to Manila where he was badly treated, and, with his four monks, he despatched a statement of his grievances to the King of Spain. What became of Torres is not known. It is a remarkable fact that before Torres ever passed through the Straits that bear his name, a map was published to illustrate Drake and Cavendishe's voyages, showing New Guinea a complete island. It is quite true that the existence of the straits was not known until Captain Cook rediscovered them in 1770, after discovering the eastern coast of Australia.

DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA BY THE DUTCH.—The Dutch were in the height of their maritime power when the glowing accounts of the Great South Land were received from the crew of the Dufyn, and the Dutch Government (says the Dutch geographer, Trevenot) despatched an expedition to found a colony in Australia, but through the hostility of the natives the settlement was not made and the ships returned. The vague account of this voyage mentions that the ships brought a quantity of gold from the coast of Australia, which circumstance led to other expeditions. About this time many vessels were driven on to the shores of Australia from stress of weather, and one of them, called the Mauritius, in July, 1616, fell in with a river they called the Willens River (probably the Hardey or Ashburton) near the N. W. Cape. One of the speculative expeditions was commanded by Theodoric Hartoge or Hartiche, commonly called Dirk Hartog, a native of Amsterdam, who in October, 1616, in the ship Endraught or Concord, after reaching the treacherous coral reefs lying off Western Australia, called Houtmans Abrolhos (open your eyes) anchored in a bay which he called after himself, but subsequently called Shark's Bay by Dampier. On the island now known as Dirk Hartog's Island, where he saw innumerable "sea-dogs," he fixed a pewter plate on a post. The plate bore an inscription of which the following is a translation: "1616, on the 25th of October the ship Endraught, of Amsterdam, arrived here; first merchant Gilles Miebais, Van Luik; Captain Dirk Hartighe, of Amsterdam. She sailed on the 27th of the same month for Bantam, Supercago, Janstins; chief pilot, Peter Ecores Van Bre. Year, 1616." He then explored from the 10th to the 25th deg. S. lat. which he called the Land of Concord. In the year (1618) it is recorded that Captain Zeachern,

a native of Arnheim, explored the N. W. coast from Carpentaria to Cape Talbot, and called the land Arnheim and Dieman; but this voyage is believed to have been suggested by Governor Van Dieman and never carried out. There was a second expedition sent out by the Dutch Government in 1619 to explore the N. W. coast under the command of John Van Edels, who explored the coast nearly in 29 S. lat., which is called Edels Land and forms part of Swan River or Western Australia. The Dutch ship, Leuwin or Lioness, in 1622 passed along the S. W. extremity of the coast, and Cape "Landt Van de Leuwin" or "Land of the Lions," was given to the S. W. cape. In January, 1623, by order of the Dutch Government, His Excellency Jan Pieterz Coen, sent out a third expedition under the command of Jan Carstens from Amboyna. With the yachts, Pera and Arnhem, he "discovered the two great islands of Arnhem and Spult." The vessels becoming separated, the Pera sailed along the S.W. coast of New Guinea to a bay 10 deg. S. lat., where Carstens and eight of his crew were murdered by the blacks. The Pera then steered across the straits and sighted Cape Keerweer. After proceeding southward as far down as 17 deg., the river Statem was discovered and land seen stretching westward. In January, 1627, the Dutch ship Guilde Zeepard, outward bound from Holland, while carrying Peter Van Nuyts to the embassy at Japan, sailed along the S. coast from Cape Leuwin to the end or the Australian Bight (a distance of 1000 miles) which Nuyts (afterwards Ambassador at the Court of Spain and Governor of Formosa) called Nuyts Land, and described it as one of the most temperate and fertile regions on the globe. In 1628, Willem de Witte, in the Viamen, on his return from India, sailed along the N.W., now called De Witte's Land, in 22 deg. S. lat. Here it was in the same year that Viane, a Dutch captain, was shipwrecked. In June, the same year, General Peter Carpentaria, Governor of the Dutch East India Company, returned to Batavia with his squadron of five ships richly laden with gold, chinaware, spices, and curiosities, which were represented to have been procured from the coasts of the Gulf of Carpentaria and the islands in the straits. Many of the historigraphers are of opinion that the cargo was part of a ship-wrecked vessel on Northern Australia. It was in this year, and not in 1662 as erroneously stated by the Abbé Prevost, that the Gulf of Carpentaria received its name.

DISASTROUS ATTEMPT BY THE DUTCH TO COLONISE AUSTRALIA, AND TRAGICAL FATE OF THE ADVENTURERS.—We now come to the attempt of the Dutch in 1628 to colonise Australia, the annals of which are so startling and romantic as to appear wholly incredible. The exciting accounts of the riches of Australia, as narrated by Carpenter, created quite a revolution among the Dutch. The thirst for gold was so great that in less than four months the Dutch Government equipped 11 ships for an expedition to take possession of and colonise Australia. On October 28th, 1628, the squadron sailed from the Texal amid the exclamations of thousands. The fleet reached the Cape of Good Hope in safety, but shortly after leaving the Cape there arose such a terrible storm which destroyed all the ships except one, the man-of-war frigate, Batavia, commanded by Captain Francis Pelsart; who had command of the expedition. This ship had on board a crew of 200 men, and upwards of 100 settlers with their wives and families. Having missed their reckoning the pilots steered an easterly course in the hope of reaching Bantam. At midnight on June 4th, 1629, when the weather was fair, the master called attention to the white appearance of the water in front of them. The steersman said it was nothing but the reflection of the moon on the water. It was soon discovered to be the foam of breakers ahead, and before the ships could be altered, she struck on a shoal of rocks called Houtman's Albrolhos, lying in 28 S. lat., 30 miles off the coast, and 200 N. of Swan River in West Australia. Captain Pelsart, who was sick in bed, rushed on deck on hearing the crash and upbraided the master, asking where they were. The master replied, "God only knows that." They tried the lead and found 48 feet of water ahead and less astern. To lighten the vessel, which was bumping on the shoals, they threw the cannon overboard, and they cut away the main mast which only increased their danger by getting entangled in the rigging. They might have floated the ship had it not been for a storm of wind and rain that raged during the night, and drove the ship further among the shoals. At day-light, they saw a rocky island three leagues off, and two small islands close to it. At daylight, the master, who had examined them, reported that it would be difficult to land on them from the shoals. Pelsart knowing the vessel must break up soon, had the boats lowered, and in them embarked the women, children, and sick people, "who were out of their wits with fear, and whose cries and noise served only to disturb them." From the brutal behaviour of the crew, who were drunk, only 180 persons and 20 barrels of bread, and some small casks of water were landed. Next day, after landing some water and provisions on the island, which was destitute of water, the weather became so rough that 70 persons on board were on the point of perishing. On the little island there were 40 persons, and on the larger island 120. Those on the smaller island having only 40 gallons of water, requested Pelsart to search the other islands for water. Pelsart agreed to do so, and began to search the adjacent island for water. After searching along the coast of Australia, a distance of 400 miles from the shipwreck, and having secured only enough water for the use of himself and companions, he was compelled to sail for Batavia. On the way thither the skiff was decked, and after a perilous voyage of several days, three Dutch vessels were met with. In one of these Mr. Ramburgh, Councillor of the Indies, accompanied Pelsart to the Governor, who ordered the Sardan frigate to proceed to the rescue of the ship-wrecked colonists. During Pelsart's absence, one of the most terrible massacres ever recorded occurred among those shipwrecked. The Supercargo, Jerome Cornelis, formerly an apothecary at Harlem, was one of the 70 left on the Batavia, and after 10 days' detention on the wreck from rough weather, he succeeded in floating ashore on a spar, the other 69, it is believed, having been drowned. This man plotted with 60 of the crew to make themselves masters of the cargo from the wreck, and to seize any vessel that might come to their rescue by murdering the crew, and then sail away as pirates. As some of the crew were not likely to enter into his scheme, he thought it necessary to murder them, but before he shed their blood he compelled all his conspirators, some 40 in number, to sign an instrument by which they engaged to stand to each other. The shipwrecked people were on three islands, the greater number being where Cornelius was. During the absence of one, Weybhays, who was sent with 45 men to find water, (which, after 20 days' search, he found on an adjacent island) Cornelius and his gang butchered in the night-time 30 or 40 of their helpless companions. A few escaped on a raft and warned Mr. Weybhays and his party of their danger. The conspirators, fearing that those on the third island might warn Pelsart on his return and frustrate their design to seize the vessel, murdered all of them except five women and seven children. Trevelot's narrative of Pelsart's voyage says that "The traitor, Jerom Cornelis, was so much elated with the success that had hitherto attended his villany, that he immediately began to fancy all difficulties were over, and gave a lose to his vicious inclinations in every respect; he ordered clothes to be made of rich stuffs that had been saved, for himself and his troop, and having chosen out of them a company of guards, he ordered them to have scarlet coats, with a double lace of gold or silver. There were two minister's daughters among the women, one of whom he took for his own mistress, gave the second to a favourite of his, and ordered that the other three women should be common to the whole troop; he afterwards drew up a set of regulations which were to be the laws of his new principality, taking to himself the style and title of Captain General, and obliging his party to sign an act or instrument by which they acknowledged him as such. These points once settled he resolved to carry on the war. He first of all embarked on board two shallops 22 men, well armed, with orders to destroy Mr. Weybhays and his company; and on their miscarrying he undertook a like expedition with 37 men, in which, however, he had no better success, for Mr. Weybhays with his people, though armed only with staves with nails drove into their heads, advanced even into the water to meet them, and after a brisk engagement compelled these murderers to retire." Eventually, Cornelis, through the chaplain (who was with Weybhays), agreed to let Weybhays' and his party remain undisturbed provided a boat was given up in exchange for some clothing. Subsequently it was discovered that Cornelis had treacherously offered some French soldiers in Weybhays company 6000 livres a-piece if they would do his bidding, and when Cornelis landed with four or five others with some stuffs and silks, Weybhays attacked them, killing two or three and taking Cornelis prisoner. One, Wonterloss, escaped, and, putting himself at the head of the conspirators, attacked Weybhays, but was repulsed. Ultimately Pelsart arrived in the Sardan, and on anchoring near the wreck he was overjoyed to see by smoke on the island that all his people were not dead. He had hardly quitted the ship when his boat was boarded by Weybhays, who told him of the dreadful occurrences, and begged him to return quickly to the ship as the conspirators, who had already murdered 125 persons, intended to surprise her. While conversing two boats full of armed conspirators appeared, and Pelsart rowed fast to the ship, getting on board just as the two conspirator's boats came alongside. Pelsart commanded them to throw their arms into the sea or he would sink them. Finding they were in Pelsart's power they obeyed his order and went on board, where they were all put in irons. The same evening Cornelius was brought on board and heavily ironed. The next day (September 18th) the rest of the conspirators surrendered and were brought on board. On the 19th all the prisoners were examined aud confronted with those who had escaped from the massacre. One of the first examined, whose name was John Bremen, confessed he had murdered, or assisted to murder, no less than 27 persons. On the 20th the ship's casks were filled with water from two wells, which, strange to say, rose and fell with the tide yet were not brackish. On the 21st, 22nd, 23rd, and 24th, efforts were made to fish up some merchandise from the wreck, but the bad weather rendered the attempts futile. On the 25th a chest of silver was fished up, and on the 26th three more chests were weighed. "On the 27th the south wind blew cold. On the 28th



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the same wind blew stronger than the day before, and as there was no possibility of fishing in the wreck for the present, Captain Palsart held a council to consider what they should do with the prisoners; that is to say, whether it would be best to try them there upon the spot, or to carry them to Batavia in order to their being tried by the company's officers. After mature deliberation, reflecting on the number of prisoners, and the temptation that might arise from the vast quantity of silver on board the frigate, they at last came to the conclusion to try and execute them there, which was accordingly done, and they embarked immediately afterwards for Batavia." Thus ends this most tragical drama (enacted 250 years ago), which forms the darkest chapter in the history of Australia. On his homeward journey Pelsart visited Shark's Bay and other parts of the W. coast, and it is recorded that two Dutchmen, who had forfeited their lives, he left on the mainland. Nothing daunted by the disastrous results of this attempt to colonise Australia, the Dutch did not relax their efforts to explore the country, in the hope of colonising it at some future period. In April, 1636, they despatched two discovery yachts, the Klyn Amsterdam and Wezel, under the command of Captain Gerrit Tomaz Pool, who, after exploring Arnhem's Land, visited New Guinea, where he was murdered by the natives. His supercargo, Pietersen, continued the voyage, but bad weather made him return.

TASMAN DISCOVERS VAN DIEMAN'S LAND AND NEW ZEALAND.—Another expedition, and the most successful the Dutch ever made was equipped in 1642 by Anthony Van Dieman, Governor of Java, an ardent admirer of the cause of Australian discovery. This expedition was entrusted to a talented young navigator, Captain Abel Jansz Tasman, (a native of Hoovu, New Holland), whose name stands foremost in the career of Australian discovery. There is a romantic tale attached to this expedition, which goes to show that the discovery of Tasmania and New Zealand was prompted by a love adventure. It is related that Tasman (then aged about 40 years) undertook the command of the expedition with a double purpose in view, firstly, to circumnavigate Australia; and secondly, that if he succeeded in his undertakings he could, by virtue of his nobly-earned laurels, aspire to the hand in marriage of the Governor's daughter, with whom he was desperately in love. On August 14th, 1642, Tasman, in command of the frigate, Heemskirk, accompanied by the tender Zeehaan (Hen of the Sea), commanded by Captain Gerrit Jansen, sailed from Batavia. On September 5th, they reached the Mauritus, and set sail again on the 4th of the following month. Tasman determined to steer along the fourth parallel of latitude, until the 50 meridian of longitude was reached, and then if land was not sighted to keep more to the northward. On the 27th it was resolved to keep a man constantly at the mast-head, and the first to discover land was to get three reels and a pot of arrack. They were baffled with violent storms, dense fogs, and extraordinary variations of the compas until November 17th, when it was thought the extreme limits of the continent had been passed. On the 22nd, the needle of the compass was in continual agitation, leading Tasman to conjecture he was near a mine of loadstone. On the 22nd, land was seen at a distance of 10 miles, and in honour of the discoverer the point was called Point Hibbs. After steering along the coast Tasman, on December 1st, anchored in a bay, which he called Frederick Henrick Bay, after the Shadtholder of Holland, the father of our English William III. That bay is now called Prince of Wales' Bay. The coast he had steered along he called Van Dieman's Land in honour of his patron, or as he says in his journal, "Our master who sent us out to make discoveries. The islands round about, as many of them as were known to us, we called in honour of the Council of India." He saw no natives, but heard strange noises in the woods. He says in his journal, "Next morning two armed boats minutely examined the coast for water, wood, and refreshments," and "All I met with worth observing were two trees, which were two fathoms or two fathoms and-a-half in girth, and 60 or 65 feet high from the root to the branches, they had cut with a flint a kind of steps in the bark in order to climb up to the birds' nests; these steps were the distance of five feet from each other, so that we must conclude that either these people are of prodigious size, or that they had some way of climbing trees that we are not used to; in one of the trees the steps were so fresh that we judge they could not have been cut above four days. I perceived also in the sand the marks of wild beasts' feet, resembling those of a tiger or some other such creature. I gathered also some gum from the trees." On December 3rd, he, with several officers in two boats, entered another bay, but the surf prevented a landing, and the carpenter (Peter Jacobz), boldly swam ashore and erected on a rock a post, upon which Tasman says, "Everyone cut his name or his mark, and upon which I hoisted a flag." This last act constituted his taking possession of the land in the name of Holland, or as Tasman says, "We left this as a memorial to the inhabitants of this country." The rock still exists under a bold cliff, near a noble forest, whose luxuriant verdure fringes the sea-coast. On the 5th he left Van Dieman's Land in the hope of falling in with the Solomon Islands. He had not gone far before he sighted an island on the N.W. coast, which he tenderly called Maria Island, after his lady love. On the 13th he discovered New Zealand, which he describes as rich, fertile, and well situated. Coasting along the eastern shore (passing through the straits, afterwards called Cook's Straits) he, on the 18th, anchored in a bay well-populated with Maories. Soon after sunset two canoes put out from the shore, the Maories therein sounding an instrument which made a noise like a Moorish trumpet, but which noise proceeded from a shell, usually sounded for convoking the Maories to war. At daylight next morning 13 Maories in a canoe approached within a stone's throw of the ship, but could not be tempted on board although fish, linen, and knives were exhibited. The Maories then rowed ashore and brought seven other canoes to the ships. Tasman then despatched a boat containing the quarter-master and six seamen, from the Heemskirk to the Zeehaan to caution those on the Zeehaan to keep on their guard. The Maories no sooner saw the boat get clear of the ship than they rushed the beaks of their canoes violently against it, causing it to heel a bit. With their paddles and clubs the Maories then attacked the seamen, mortally wounding the quarter-master and killing three of the seamen, the others having to swim for their lives. The assailants made a precipitate retreat after this, carrying with them one of the seamen's bodies. Tasman immediately prepared to quit the scene of this bloody transaction, and designated the place as "Murderers' Bay." The bay fronts the township of Nelson, and it has been called "Massacre Bay," also "Queen Charlotte's Sound," and "Blind Bay." Just as Tasman was setting sail, 22 more boats advanced towards the ships from the shore, at which the ships' guns were fired without hitting anyone except a chief in the foremost canoe who had a white flag in his hand. Instead of continuing E, Tasman steered N. (along the W. coast of North Island), and sighted land again on January 4th, 1643; he called the N.W. Point, Cape Maria Van Dieman in affectionate remembrance of his sweetheart, whose name, as well as that of her father, is immortalized along the coasts of Australia. At this time, and for a century afterwards, the Great South Land was the favourite dream of navigators, and Tasman imagined that the country he had touched was the Terra Incognita Australis, for he says "it's a beautiful country, and we hope it is part of the Unknown South Continent." He did not land on any part of the newly discovered country, nor did he take possession of it in the name of the country he served. Twenty-six years before this two Dutch navigators, Schouten and Le Maire, passed through the strait which bears Schouten's name, and discovered a coast to the left, which they called Staten Land or States Land, and conceived it to be the long-sought southern continent. Tasman, under the impression that the country (New Zealand) he had discovered might be part of the same region, called it Staten Land. Three months after this another Dutch navigator, named Hendrick Brouwer, discovered that Staten Land was an inconsiderable island. Upon this being made known Tasman's Staten Land was called New Zealand, by which it has ever since been known. Tasman made a second voyage in 1644 with the ships Limmen, Reemean, and the Brack, to ascertain if New Guinea was separated from Australia. He surveyed several thousand miles of the N. and N.W. coast, from Carpentaria to Dampier's Archipelago, during which he had some conflicts with the natives, whom he designated as malicious and cruel. Except a brief mention of this voyage by Flinders, from Witsen's translation, the contents of Tasman's journal are unknown, as the journal is lost. However, Terra Australis, as discovered and explored by him and other Dutch navigators, appears on a chart published by Trevenot in 1663, which Trevenot says "was originally taken from that done in inlaid work upon the pavement of the new Stadt House (Town Hall) at Amsterdam." This immense chart accurately depicts the coast line of Australia and its separation from New Guinea. Tasman failed to discover the straits between Australia and New Guinea, which fact was only settled by Captain Cook in 1770. A curious map has been discovered lately by Mr. Major in the British Museum, which evidently is a copy of Tasman's chart; the manuscript copy of the instructions to Tasman purchased in London by Sir Joseph Banks, is dated January 29th, 1644, from the Castle of Batavia, and is prefaced with a recital of the voyages of the Dutch to Australia. It is signed by the Governor General, Antonio Van Dieman, and by the members of his council, Vander Lyn Maatsuyker, Schouten, and Sweers. In 1664, Australia received the name of New Holland, which it still bears in all the Dutch maps. The Dutch navigators believed Australia to be an inhospitable and barren coast, peopled by poor and brutal nations. In 1656, the vessel, De Vergulde Draech, on a voyage from Batavia, was wrecked on Houtonans Abrolhos. Several vessels were sent to rescue the survivors from the wreck, and also for the purpose of exploring the coast and to try and recover some of the chests of silver lost in the Batavia. Even within the last 25 years expeditions have been organised to fish up some of the chests of coin, and their efforts have invariably been successful.

DAMPIER VISITS WEST AUSTRALIA IN 1688.—Captain William Dampier (better known as Dampier the Buccaneer), the most enterprising and scientific navigator of the seventeenth century, visited Australia twice, on the first occasion in 1688 (when he was on a buccaneering expedition) to the N.W. coast called Dampier

Land, and on the other occasion as pilot to H.M.S. Roebuck in 1699, when he explored the W. coast from Sharks Bay to Dampier's Archipelago. As his name is now linked with the history of Australia, a concise sketch of his life and career cannot fail to prove interesting. He was an eminent navigator, and descended from a respectable family in Somersetshire. He was born at East Coker, in that county, in 1652. Having the misfortune to lose his parents early, he was removed from the Latin Grammar School by his guardians, who, complying with his strong inclination for a sea-faring life, placed him (in 1670, when he was only 18 years old) as a midshipman on board a Newfoundland trading vessel. His first voyage was from Weymouth to France, and in the following year he went to Newfoundland. The severity of the climate, and the hardships of the voyage almost made him resolve to abandon for ever a maritime life, but the desire to see the East Indies induced him to ship as a common sailor, and go on a voyage to Bantam, which altered his resolution. In 1673, having mastered the art of navigation, he left the merchant service and entered the Royal Navy, during the second war between the English and Dutch, serving under Sir Edward Sprague, on board the Royal Prince. He was present at two engagements, but the declining state of his health necessitated his removal with some wounded men to Harwich, in Essex. He spent several months with his brother, and in 1674 he became an undermanager of a Jamaica plantation. Not liking the slave-driving business he was only a short time in that service. He then engaged in the coasting trade, and acquired an accurate knowledge of all the ports and bays of the island. From the West Indies he crossed over to Campeachy Bay, and engaged with the log-wood cutters as a common workman. Becoming acquainted with the buccaneers that made the caves at Campeachy their principal haunts, he was fired with an irrepressible desire for travel and daring adventures. Tired of wood-cutting, he returned to Jamacia, and thence to England, where he published an interesting account of his two voyages to Campeachy. In the beginning of 1679 he went out to Jamaica as a passenger, meaning to re-visit the Bay of Campeachy, but he was persuaded to join a party of buccaneers of different nations, who plundered any people over whom they could take advantage. In 1680, with these pirates, he crossed the Isthmus of Darien, and spent that year roving along the Peruvian coast. They made several successful attempts in plundering the towns, while in other attempts they were repulsed with considerable losses. In 1681 he recrossed the Isthmus, and joined another fleet of those pirates, who were cruizing on the Spanish main and prepared for any mode of acquiring gain that might offer. After serving with this privateering expedition on the Spanish main for some time, he engaged with a captain named John Cook for a privateering voyage against the Spaniards in the South Seas. They sailed in August, 1683, from Achomack, in Virginia, for the Cape de Verd Islands, and thence to the coast of Guinea and half way through the Straits of Magellan. Dampier urged the captain not to attempt the passage through the straits, but the captain persisted, and adverse winds eventually compelled him to retrace their passage, and double Cape Horn into the Pacific Ocean. Having fallen in with a ship from London which had sailed on a similar expedition they joined company and reached the island of Juan Fernandez. For several months they cruised along the coast of Mexico, Chili and Peru, capturing some Spanish ships. With these prizes they proceeded to the Mexican coast, and when off Cape Blanco Captain Cook died and the command devolved on Captain Davis. Having separated from the English ship they were joined by one (the Cygnet), commanded by Captain Swan. An attempt to plunder the town of Guayaquil was unsuccessful, but at the mouth of the river they took a vessel which had about 1000 slaves on board. These Dampier would have taken and employed in the gold mines, but his fellow adventurers overruled the project. They next attacked a Spanish fleet which was laden with the treasures of the Peruvian mines en route to Panama, but were unsuccessful, being ill-supported by some French ships which had joined them. After cruising along the coast of Mexico, the crews of the two ships landed and took the town of Puebla Nova and burnt two other towns. Dampier, leaving Davis (who proceeded to Peru), joined Swan's ship and voyaged with him along the north parts of Mexico as far as the southern part of California. During this expedition they frequently landed for the purpose of plunder. In cruising along the coasts of Spanish America they waged a war of extermination, both by sea and land, against the subjects of Spain, and their raids on the Spanish settlements exceed the wildest tales of romance, they meeting with varying successes as well as loss of men, in one instance losing 50 of their party, which discouraged them and caused them to relinquish all further attempts on that coast. Captain Swan proposed that they should carry on their operations among the East Indies, and although they had only a slender stock of 60 days' provisions to travel 2000 leagues, they determined to brave the danger. They started on 31st March, 1686, and on their voyage they dreaded starvation, and when only three days' provisions were left they plotted to murder Captain Swan (because he was very stout and fleshy) and eat him when their victuals were exhausted. Fortunately they reached Guam, one of the Ladrone Islands, where by stratagem they obtained provisions. They then cruised among the Philippine Islands, where the majority of the crew mutinied and put Captain Swan and 40 of his men ashore at Mindanao. The mutineers then compelled Dampier to take the command, and he took them to Pulo Condore, Manilla, and the Straits of Mulacca. While cleaning and refitting their vessel between two islands, three or four leagues from Mindanao, a young Indian prince came on board and told them that Captain Swan and several of his men were at Mindanao, where they were in high favour with the Sultan for their military exploits against his enemies. This pleased Dampier, who, without success, tried to persuade the crew to return for Captain Swan and offer their services again to him. In 1687 they were driven to the Chinese coast, and then they passed through the group of Spice Islands. On 29th December, 1687, they left Timor, and being clear of all the islands proceeded south "to touch at New Holland, a part of Terra Australis Incognita, to see what that country would afford." On the 31st they were in lat. 13 deg. 20 min. S. At 10 p.m. they "stood to the northward for fear of running on a shoal which is laid down in our drafts in lat. 13 deg. 50 min." On January 1st, 1687, they saw the shoal in lat. 13 deg. 15 min. This shoal was laid down in Tasman's charts (used by Dampier) 16 or 20 leagues from Australia, the northern coast of which Dampier confidently asserted had not been accurately laid down by Tasman. Proceeding southward Dampier, on January 4th, 1688, sighted the north-west coast of Australia at Cape Leveque. The promontory of which the cape forms the extremity is called Dampier's Land, and is about half-way between North West Cape and Port Essington. Finding no convenient anchorage he steered eastward into a pretty bay (Kings Sound), where there was an abundance of islands (now called Buccaneer's Archipelago), and a place suitable for docking his ship. About a league to the eastwood of the cape he anchored on the 5th, two miles from the shore. Dampier was not charmed with the appearance of Australia, and in a great measure his accounts of the barren and uninviting coasts he explored turned away the tide of discovery and colonisation of Australia for nearly two centuries. He had the misfortune to discover the most inhospitable part of the continent, and having traversed nearly 1000 miles of barren coast it is no wonder that he said he had the melancholy satisfaction of discovering the most dreary region on the face of the globe. He was the first to describe the natural history, the scenery, and the habits and customs of the natives of Australia, but his observations, although curious and important, bearing all the marks of fidelity, are by no means flattering. His knowledge of natural history, though not scientific, appears accurate, and his remarks display much nautical and philosophical knowledge. In his journal of adventures in the South Seas, published in London in 1691 (dedicated to the Right Hon. Charles Montague, President of the Royal Society) there is a description of his first visit to Australia, when he was on his marauding expedition, in the ship Cygnet. His published voyages have been frequently reprinted, and the substance of them incorporated in a hundred different compilations. The style of his narrative is so vivid, and bears the marks of truth, although written two centuries ago, that the author is constrained to subjoin the following account of Dampier's first visit to Australia in January, 1688, as contained in Pinkerton's voyages. Dampier writes that "New Holland is a very large tract of land. It is not yet determined whether it is an island or a main continent; but I am certain that it joins neither to Asia, Africa, nor America. This part of it that we saw is all low even land with sandy banks against the sea, only the points are rocky, and so are some of the islands in this bay. The land is of a dry sandy soil, destitute of water, except you make wells, yet producing divers sorts of trees; but the woods are not thick, nor the trees very big. Most of the trees that we saw are dragon-trees as we supposed; and these too are the largest of any trees there. They are about the bigness of our large apple-trees, and about the same height, and the rind is blackish and somewhat rough; the leaves are of a dark colour; the gum distils out of the knots or cracks that are in the bodies of the trees. We compared it with some gum-dragon, or dragon's blood, that was aboard, and it was of the same colour and taste. The other sorts of trees were not known by any of us. There was pretty long grass growing under the trees, but it was very thin. We saw no trees that bore fruit or berries. We saw no sort of animal nor any track of beast, but once; and that seemed to be the tread of a beast as big as a great mastiff dog. Here are a few small land birds, but none bigger than a black-bird, and but few sea fowls. Neither is the sea very plentifully stored with fish, unless you reckon the manatee and turtle as such; of these creatures there is plenty, but they are extraordinarily shy, though the inhabitants cannot trouble them much, having neither boats nor iron. The inhabitants of this country are the miserablest people in the world. The Hodmadods of Monomatapa, though a nasty people, yet for wealth are gentlemen to these; who have no houses and skin garments, sheep, poultry, and fruits of the earth, ostrich eggs, &c., as the Hodmadods have; and setting aside their human shape, they differ but little from brutes.

They are tall, strait-bodied and thin, with small long limbs. They have great heads, round foreheads, and great brows. Their eyelids are always half closed, to keep the flies out of their eyes ; they being so troublesome here, that no fanning will keep them from coming to one's face, and without the assistance of both hands to keep them off they will creep into one's nostrils and mouth too, if the lips are not shut very close ; so that from their infancy being thus annoyed with these insects they do never open their eyes as other people ; and therefore they cannot see far unless they hold up their heads as if they were looking at somewhat over them. They have great bottle-noses, pretty full lips, and wide mouths ; the two fore-teeth of their upper jaw are wanting in all of them, men and women, old and young ; whether they draw them out I know not ; neither have they any beards. They are long visaged, and of a very unpleasing aspect, having no one graceful feature in their faces. Their hair is black, short and curled, like that of the negroes, and not long and lank like the common Indians. The color of their skins,both of their faces and the rest of their body, is coalblack, like that of the negroes of Guinea. They have no sort of clothes, but the piece of the rind of a tree tied like a girdle about their waist and a handful of long grass, or 3 or 4 small green boughs full of leaves thrust under their girdle to cover their nakedness. They have no houses, but lie in the open air without any covering ; the earth being their bed and the heaven their canopy. Whether they cohabit one man to one woman or promiscuously, I know not ; but they do live in companies, 20 or 30 men, women, and children altogether. Their only food is a small sort of fish which they get by making wares of stones across little coves or branches of the sea ; every tide bringing in the small fish, and there leaving them for a prey to these people, who constantly attend there to search for them at low water. This small fry I take to be the top of their fishery. They have no instruments to catch great fish should they come, and such seldom stay to be left behind at low water ; nor could we catch any fish with our hooks and lines all the while we lay there. In other places at low water they seek for cockles, muscles, and periwinkles ; of these shell-fish there are fewer still, so that there chiefest dependence is upon what the sea leaves in their waves ; which be it much or little they gather up, and march to the places of their abode. There the old people who are not able to stir abroad by reason of their age, and the tender infants, wait their return ; and what Providence has bestowed on them they presently broil on the coals, and eat it in common. Sometimes they get as many fish as makes them a plentiful banquet and at other times they scarce get everyone a taste ; but be it little or much that they get, everyone has his part, as well the young and tender, the old and feeble, who are not able to go abroad as the strong and lusty. When they have eaten they lie down until the next low water, and then all that are able to march out, be it night or day, rain or sunshine, it is all one, they must attend the wares or else they must fast, for the earth affords them no food at all. There is neither herb, root, pulse nor any sort of grain for them to eat, that we saw ; nor any sort of bird or beast that they can catch, having no instruments wherewith to do so. I did not perceive that they did worship anything. These poor creatures have a sort of weapon to defend their ware, or fight with their enemies, if they have any that will interfere with their poor fishery. They did at first endeavour with their weapons to frighten us, who lying ashore deterred them from one of their fishing places. Some of them had wooden swords (boomerangs), others had a sort of lance. The sword is a piece of wood shaped something like a cutlass. The lance is a long straight pole sharp at one end, and hardened afterwards by heat. I saw no iron nor other sort of metal ; therefore it is probable that they use stone hatchets, as some Indians in America do. These people speak somewhat through the throat, but we could not understand one word that they said. We anchored, as I said before, January 5th, 1688, and seeing men walking on the shore, we presently sent a canoe to get some acquaintance with them, for we were in hopes to get some provision among them, but the inhabitants seeing our boat coming ran away and hid themselves. We searched afterwards three days in hopes to find their houses, but found none ; yet we saw many places where they had made fires. At last, being out of hopes to find their habitations, we searched no further, but left a great many toys ashore in such places where we thought they would come. In all our search we found no water, but old wells on the sandy bays. At last we went over to the islands, and there we found a great many natives. I do believe there were 40 on one island, men women and children. The men at our first coming ashore threatened us with their lances and swords, but they were frightened by firing one gun, which we fired purposely to scare them. The island was so small that they could not hide themselves, but they were much disordered at our landing, especially the women and children, for we went directly to their camp. The lustiest of the women snatched up their infants, ran away howling, and the little children ran after, squealing and bawling, but the men stood still. Some of the women and such people as could not go from us, lay still by a fire, making a doleful noise as if we had been coming to devour them, but when they saw we did not intend to harm them they were pretty quiet, and the rest that fled from us at our first coming returned again. This, their place of dwelling, was only a fire with a few boughs before it, set up on that side the wind was of. After we had been here a little while, the men began to be familiar, and we clothed some of them, designing to have had some service of them for it, for we found some wells of water here, and intended to carry two or three barrels of it aboard ; but it being somewhat troublesome to carry to the canoes, we thought to have made these men to have carried it for us, and therefore we gave them some old clothes ; to one an old pair of breeches, to another a ragged shirt, to the third a jacket that was scarce worth owning ; which yet would have been very acceptable at some places where we had been, and so we thought they might have been with these people. We put them on them, thinking that this finery would have brought them to work heartily for us, and our water being filled in small long barrels, about six gallons in each, which were made purposely to carry water in, we brought these our new servants to the wells, and put a barrel on each of their shoulders for them to carry to the canoe. But all the signs we could make were to no purpose, for they stood like statues, without motion, but grinned like so many monkies, staring one upon another ; for these poor creatures seem not accustomed to carry burthens, and I believe that one of our ship-boys of ten years old would carry as much as one of them. So we were forced to carry our water ourselves, and they very fairly put the clothes off again, and laid them down, as if clothes were only to work in. I did not perceive that they had any great liking to them at first, neither did they seem to admire any thing that we had. At another time our canoe being among these islands seeking for game, espied a drove of these men swimming from one island to another ; for they have no boats, canoes, or bark-logs. They took up four of them, and brought them on board ; two of them were middle-aged, the other two were young men about eighteen or twenty years old. To these we gave boiled rice, and with it turtle and manatee boiled. They did greedily devour what we gave them, but took no notice of the ship, or anything in it, and when they were set on land again, they ran away as fast as they could. At our first coming, before we were acquainted with them, or they with us, a company of them who lived on the main, came just against our ship, and standing on a pretty high bank, threatened us with their swords and lances, by shaking them at us. At last the captain ordered the drum to be beaten, which was done of a sudden with much vigour, purposely to scare the poor creatures. They hearing the noise, ran away as fast as they could drive ; and when they ran away in haste, they would cry "gurry, gurry," (the Port Jackson blacks cry, "warree, warree," which means, "keep away,") speaking deep in the throat. Those inhabitants also that live on the main, would always run away from us ; yet we took several of them. For, as I have already observed, they had such bad eyes, that they could not see us till we came close to them. We did always give them victuals, and let them go again, but the islanders after our first time of being among them, did not stir for us. When we had been here about a week, we hauled our ship into a small sandy cove, at a spring tide, as far as she would float ; and at low water she was left dry, and the sand dry without us near half a mile ; for the sea riseth and falleth here about five fathom. The flood runs north by east, and the ebb south by west. All the neaptides we lay wholly aground. for the sea did not come near us by about a hundred yards. We had therefore time enough to clean our ship's bottom, which we did very well. Most of our men lay ashore in a tent, where our sails were mending ; and our strikers brought home turtle and manatee every day, which was our constant food. While we lay here, I did endeavour to persuade our men to go to some English factory ; but was threatened to be turned ashore, and left here for it. This made me desist, and patiently wait for some more convenient place and opportunity to leave them than here, which I did hope I should accomplish in a short time ; because they did intend, when they went from hence, to bear down towards Cape Comorin. In their way thither they designed also to visit the island Cocos, which lieth in latitude twelve degrees twelve minutes north, by our drafts ; hoping there to find of that fruit; the island having its name from thence." After more than two months' sojourn on the coast of Australia, Dampier, on 12th of March, sailed to the northward and cruised along the west coast of Sumatra. On the 5th of May they anchored at the north end of the island of Nicobar where Dampier (at his own request), with two other Englishmen, a Portuguese, and four Malays, which had been captured in their proe, were set on shore by leave of the captain (Captain Read) of the Cygnet. Dampier thought that by conforming to the manners of the natives, and learning their language, he might be able to carry on an advantageous trade in ambergris. Another reason, and perhaps the real cause for Dampier quitting the vessel, was that he was disgusted with the insubordination and cruelties of his buccaneer companions. Dampier says, "I had not been ashore an hour before Captain Read and one John Damarel, with three or four armed men, came to fetch me aboard again." When he returned on board he found the surgeon, Mr. Coppinger, and three others desired to be left ashore with him. Coppinger jumped into Dampier's boat, seized his gun, and swore he

would shoot anyone who attempted to stop his going, but he was overpowered by the quarter-master, John Oliver, and two or three others who dragged him aboard. Dampier and two fellow Englishmen, named Hall and Ambrose, were then sent ashore and the ship sailed. Dampier and his companions then attempted to navigate a small boat to Achin, in Sumatra. At first everything seemed favourable to the project, but on the fourth day, when they had made but small progress, the wind rose, and the heavens lowered, and they were threatened with overwhelming danger. They agreed to furl their sails and give themselves up to the fury of the elements, which they had no means to avoid or power to contend with. They awaited the impending storm with gloomy apprehensions, and the event was more tremendous than they had anticipated. The sea ran mountains high, every moment breaking over their canoe threatening to overwhelm them in the deep. Their dreadful situation was rendered more terrible as the darkness approached. Dampier thus graphically describes the event, "The sky looked very black, being wrapped in sable clouds. The wind blew hard and the sea was lashed into foam around us. A dark night was coming on and no land to shelter us, and our little bark in danger of being swallowed up by every wave. What gave a deeper tinge to our distress, was the reflection that none of us were prepared to enter on another state of existence with the confidence of hope. I had encountered many imminent dangers before this, but compared with the present the work of them was only a playgame. I must confess that I was in great perturbation of mind, other distresses came out upon me with dreadful solemnity. A sudden skirmish or engagement was nothing when the blood was warm and invigorated the heart by the glow of expectation, but here I had a lingering view of impending fate with little or no hope of avoiding it. My courage, which had hitherto kept me up, now failed me, and I made very sad reflection on my former life, and looked back with horror and detestation on actions which before I could not relish but at the remembrance of which I now trembled. I had long repented my roving life, but never with such sincere contrition before." The whole of their dreadful privations is described by Dampier with considerable force; nevertheless they surmounted them all and landed safely at Achin. The fatigues and distress of the voyage, their want of rest and of necessary food produced fever among them, which proved fatal to two of them, and even Dampier and Hall were not free from the complaint for 12 months and more. After this Dampier made several voyages to Tonquin, Malacca, and other parts of the East Indies, and for some time acted as a gunner in the English fort of Benecoolen. Having completed the circumnavigation of the globe, he revisited England in 1691 and published his "Voyage round the world." As his property he brought home the son of an Indian prince of one of the Spice Islands, who was called "The Painted Prince," on account of his being curiously tattooed. This native was purchased in the way of trade, and was shown in England as a rare sight. He died at Oxford of the small-pox. Nothing is known of how Dampier spent his life for seven or eight years, but it appears that in 1698, through the influence of the President of the Royal Society (Sir Charles Montague, to whom he dedicated his book), and the Earl of Oxford (who was first Lord of the Admiralty), King William III. appointed him to the command of the war sloop Roebuck, carrying 12 guns, 50 men, and 20 months' provisions for a voyage of discovery. With this vessel he sailed from England on 14th January, 1699, touched at the coast of Brazil, and then ran across to the West of Australia, arriving there on August 1st, 1699, somewhere about lat. 26 deg. S., near Dirk Hartog Island and Shark's Bay. Dampier, in his journal published in London in 1729, after describing his voyage to Brazil, thus deseribes his second and last visit to Australia: "When about lat. 26 deg. S. I saw an opening and ran in, hoping to find an harbour there, but when we came to its mouth, which was about two leagues wide, we saw rocks and foul ground within, and therefore stood out again; there we had 20 fathom water within two miles of the shore, the land everywhere appeared pretty low, flat, and even, but with steep cliffs to the sea, and when we came near it there were no trees or grass to be seen." Fearing a storm on the lee shore he stood off to sea again and at 2 a.m, on the 3rd, it blew very hard with a heavy sea. When the stress of the storm was over, on the 4th, they sailed towards the land, which was again sighted at 11 a.m. on the 5th. He says, "the 6th August, in the morning, we saw an opening in the land and we ran into it and anchored in seven and a-half fathoms of water two miles from the shore, clean sand. It was somewhat difficult getting in here by reason of many shoals we met with, but I sent my boat sounding before me. The mouth of this sound I called Shark's Bay lies in about 25 deg. lat. As soon as I came to anchor in this bay I sent my boat ashore to seek for fresh water; but in the evening my men returned having found none. The next morning I went ashore myself, carrying pickaxes and shovels with me, to dig for water and axes to cut wood. We tried in several places for water, but finding none after several trials, nor in several miles compass, we left any further search for it and spending the rest of the day in cutting wood, we went aboard at night." Describing the plants, including the sweetly scented trees, and the natural history of the east coast, he says, "Most of the trees and shrubs had at this time either blossoms or berries on them. The blossoms of the different sorts of trees were of such colours as red, white, yellow, &c., but mostly blue, and these generally smelt very sweet and fragrant, as did some of the rest; there were also besides some plants, herbs, and tall flowers growing on the ground that were sweet and beautiful, and for the most part unlike any I had seen before." He saw but few land fowls, and they were eagles and five or six sorts of small birds. The water fowls he saw were ducks, curlews, guldens, crab-catchers, cormorants, gulls, pelicans, and other water fowl he had seen nowhere else. Dampier was the first to describe the kangaroo, and he does so in these words:—"The land animals that we saw here were only a sort of racoons, different from those of the West Indies, chiefly as to their legs, for these have very short fore legs, but go jumping upon them as others do, and like them are very good meat." He describes "A sort of guanos of the same shape and size as other guanos, but differing from them in three remarkable particulars, for these had a larger and uglier head, and had no tail, and at the rump instead of a tail there, they had the stump of a tail, which appeared like another head, but not really such, being without mouth or eyes." Writing of the sea and shell-fish, Dampier says, "The sea-fish we saw here are chiefly sharks; there are abundance of them in this particular sound, and I therefore gave it the name of Sharks Bay. There are also skates, thornbacks, and other fish of the ray kind (one sort especially like the sea-devil), garfish, bonetas, &c. Of shell-fish we got here mussels, periwinkles, limpets, oysters, both of the pearl kind, and also eating oysters, as well as the same sort as long oysters, besides cockles, &c. The shore was lined thick with many other sorts of very strange and beautiful shells, for variety of colour and shape most finely spotted with red, black, or yellow, &c., such as I have not seen anywhere but at this place." He also saw some green turtles, weighing about 200 lbs. After enumerating other animals, he says, "Of the sharks, we caught a great many, which our men eat very savourily. Among them we caught one which was 11 feet long. The space between its two eyes was 20 inches, and 18 inches from one corner of his mouth to the other. Its maw was like a leather sack, very thick, and so tough that a sharp knife could scarce cut it, in which we found the head and bones of a hippopotamus, the hairy lips of which were still sound and not putrified, and the jaw was also firm, out of which we plucked a great many teeth, two of them eight inches long, and as big as a man's thumb, small at one end, and a little crooked, the rest not above half so long. The maw was full of jelly, which stank extremely; however I saved for a while the teeth and the shark's jaw; the flesh of it was divided among my men, and they took care that no waste should be made of it." It has been suggested the animal called a hippopotamus was a seal or the "bunyip." Dampier then records his stay in Sharks Bay:—"It was the 7th of August when we came into Sharks Bay, in which we anchored in three several places, and stayed at the first of them (on the west side of the bay) till the 11th, during which time we searched about as I said, for fresh water, digging wells, but to no purpose: however we got a good store of firewood at this first anchoring place, and my company were all here very well refreshed with racoons (kangaroos), turtle, shark, and other fish, and some fowls, so that we were now all much brisker than when we came in hither; yet still I was for standing further into the bay, partly because I had a mind to increase my stock of fresh water, which had begun to be low, and partly for the sake of discovering this part of the coast." On the 11th, with an easy sail, he steered further in, and on the 13th, he says, "We got up our anchor, and that afternoon came to an anchor near two islands and a shoal of coral rocks that face the bay. Here I scrubbed my ship, and finding it very improbable to get any further here, I made the best of my way out to sea again." It was August 14th when he sailed out of the bay designing to coast along to the north-east, to find another port where he could overhaul his vessel. In passing out he saw three water serpents of a yellow colour, spotted with dark-brown, and four feet long swimming about the bay. From the 14th to the 30th he coasted along the shore, which he minutely describes in his journal, together with an account of the birds, snakes, numbers of whales, blackfellows camps, &c., that he saw during the cruise. His further progress and encounter with the natives is thus lucidly delineated:—"The 30th August betimes in the morning I went ashore with 10 or 11 men to search for water. We went armed with muskets and cutlasses for our defence, expecting to see people there, and carried also pickaxes, and shovels to dig wells. When we came near the shore we saw three tall, black, naked men on the sandy bay ahead of us; but as we rowed in they went away. When we were landed I sent the boat with two men in her to lie a little from the shore at an anchor, to prevent it being seized; while the rest of us went after the three black men who were now got on top of a small hill about a quarter of a mile from us, with eight or nine more men in their company. They seeing us coming ran away. When we came on top of the hill where they first stood we saw a plain savannah about half a miie from us in from the sea. There were several things like hay cocks standing in the savannah, which, at a distance, we thought

were houses looking just like the Hottentots' houses at the Cape of Good Hope, but we found them to be so many rocks. We searched about these for water, but could find none, nor any houses, nor any people, for they were all gone. Then we turned again to the place where we landed, and there we dug for water. While we were at work there came nine or ten of the natives to a small hill a little way from us, and stood there menacing and threatening of us, and making a great noise. At least one of them came towards us, and the rest followed at a distance. I went out to meet him, and came within 50 yards of him, making to him all signs of peace and friendship I could; but then he ran away, neither would any of them stay for us to come nigh them, for we tried two or three times. At last I took two men with me, and went in the afternoon along by the sea-side purposely to catch one of them if I could, of whom I might learn where they got their fresh water. There were 10 or 12 of the natives a little way off, who, seeing us three going away from the rest of our men, followed us at a distance. I thought they would follow us; but there being for a while a sand bank between us and them, that they could not then see us, we made a halt, and hid ourselves in a bending of the sand-bank. They knew we must be thereabouts, and being three or four times our numbers, thought to seize us. So they dispersed themselves, some going to the sea-shore, and others beating about the sand-hills. We know by what rencounter we had with them in the morning that we could easily out-run them; so that a nimble young man that was with me seeing some of them near ran towards them, and they for sometime ran away before him; but he soon overtaking them, they faced about and fought him. He had a cutlass and they had wooden lances, with which, being many of them, they were too hard for him. When he first ran towards them I chased two more that were by the shore; but fearing how it might be with my young man, I turned back quickly, and went up to the top of a sand-hill, whence I saw him near me, closely engaged with them. Upon their seeing me, one of them threw a lance at me, that narrowly missed me. I discharged my gun to scare them, but avoided shooting any of them; till finding the young man in great danger from them, and myself in some, and that though the gun had a little frightened them at first, yet they had soon learnt to despise it, tossing up their hands, and crying, 'pooh, pooh, pooh;' and coming on afresh with a great noise. I thought it time to charge again, and shoot one of them, which I did. The rest seeing him fall, made a stand again; and my young man took the opportunity to disengage himself, and come off to me; my other man also was with me, who had done nothing all this while, having come out unarmed; and I returned back with my men, designing to attempt the natives no farther, being very sorry for what had happened already. They took up their wounded companion; and my young man, who had been struck through the cheek by one of their lances, was afraid it had been poisoned: but I did not think that likely. His wound was very painful to him, being made with a blunt weapon; but he soon recovered of it. Among the New Hollanders, whom we were thus engaged with, there was one who by his appearance and carriage, as well in the morning as this afternoon, seemed to be the chief of them, and a kind of prince or captain among them. He was a young brisk man, not very tall, nor so personal as some of the rest, though more active and courageous; he was painted (which none of the rest were at all) with a circle of white paste or pigment (a sort of lime, as we thought) about his eyes, and a white streak down his nose, from his forehead to the tip of it; and his breast and some part of his arms were also made white with the same paint; not for beauty or ornament, one would think, but as some wild Indian warriors are said to do, he seemed thereby to design the looking more terrible; this his painting adding very much to his natural deformity; for they all of them have the most unpleasant looks and the worst features of any people that ever I saw, though I have seen great variety of savages. These New Hollanders were probably the same sort of people as those I met with on this coast in my voyage around the world, for the place I then touched at was not above 40 or 50 leagues to the north-east of this." Dampier thus concludes his account of his second and last visit to Australia, "And thus having ranged about a considerable time upon this coast without finding any good fresh water, or any convenient place to clean the ship as I had hoped for, and it being moreover the height of the dry season, and my men growing scorbutic for want of refreshments, so that I had little encouragement to search further, I resolved to leave this coast, and accordingly in the beginning of September set sail for Timor." On 12th Dec., 1699, Dampier sailed from Baboo, coasting along Timor to the eastward to New Guinea, which he first descried on the first day of the year 1700. On January 7th he found a convenient anchorage near a fine stream of water on one of the islands. Having watered without landing on the mainland, he cruised among the islands three or four leagues from the coast of New Guinea. On the 14th he reached an island which the natives called Pulo Sabadore, which lies two deg. 43 min. South. Dampier in glowing terms describes the natives, birds, and animals of this island. He says, "They are very poor, wear no clothes, but have a clout about their middle, made of the rinds of the tops of the palmeto trees; but the women had a sort of calico clothes. Their chief ornaments are blue and yellow beads, worn about their wrists. The men arm themselves with bows and arrows, lances, broad swords, like those of Mindanao; their lances are pointed with bone; they strike fish very ingeniously with wooden fissgigs, and have a very ingenious way of making the fish rise; for they have a piece of wood curiously carved, and painted much like a dolphin (and perhaps other figures); these they let down into the water by a line with a small weight to sink it; when they think it low enough they haul the line into their boats very fast, and the fish rise up after this figure, and they stand ready to strike them when they are near the surface of the water; but their chief livelihood is from their plantations; yet they have large boats, and go over to New Guinea, where they get slaves, fine parrots, &c., which they carry to Goram and exchange for calicoes." On the 4th of February Dampier landed on the north-west cape of New Guinea, and took possession of an island, which he named King William's Island. Proceeding south-east with contrary winds along the mainland, which he describes as high and mountainous, adorned with tall flourishing trees, and the sides of the hills having large plantations and patches of cleared ground, he steered on the 24th into the mouth of a bay, where he saw "200 natives in proes, and the bays on the shore lined with men from one end to the other, where there could not be less than three or four hundred more." Desirous to have some commerce with them, he resolved to go out to them, "which, when the natives in their proes perceived, they began to fling stones at us as fast as they could, being provided with engines for that purpose, wherefore I named this place Slinger's Bay, but at the firing of one gun they were all amazed, drew off and flung no more stones." Dampier's account of the New Guinea natives, although written more than 200 years ago, tallies with that given concerning them in the present day, especially as regards their treacherous nature. He says: "The natives are very black, strong, and well-limbed people; having great round heads, their hair naturally curled and short, which they shave into several forms and dye it, also of divers colours, viz., red, white, and yellow. They have broad round faces, with great bottle noses, yet agreeable enough, till they disfigure them by painting, and by wearing great things through their noses as big as a man's thumb, and about four inches long; these are run clear through both nostrils, one end coming out by one cheek-bone, and the other end against the other; and their noses so stretched, that only a small slip of them appears about the ornament; they have also great holes in their ears, wherein they wear such stuff as in their noses. They are very dextrous active fellows in their proes, which are very ingeniously built. They are narrow and long, with outriggers on one side, the head and stern higher than the rest, and carved into many devices, viz., some fowl, fish, or a man's head painted or carved; and though it is but rudely done, yet the resemblance appears plainly, and shows an ingenious fancy. But with what instruments they make their proes or carved work, I know not, for they seem to be utterly ignorant of iron. They have very neat paddles, with which they manage their proes dexterously, and make great way through the water. Their weapons are chiefly lances, swords, and slings, and some bows and arrows; they have also wooden fissgigs, for striking fish." Dampier, by continuing his course along the eastermost extremity of New Guinea, found that it terminated with two large islands, which he circumnavigated and named New Britain (Nova Brittania) and New Ireland. Here it would appear from his own journal that he was prevented from prosecuting his discoveries by the small number of his men, and their eager desire to return to England. By the end of March he reached the north-east promontory of New Guinea, naming the cape at its extremity King William's Cape, after his patron. He says:—"The north-west cape I called Cape Glouster, and the south-west point Cape Anne; and the north-west mountain, which is very remarkable, I called Mount Gloucester." In May Dampier reached Timor once more, and thence he proceeded homeward by Batavia and the Cape of Good Hope. On February 22nd, when off the Island of Ascension, his rotten vessel sprung a leak, and as she was foundering he ran her ashore, and it was with much difficulty that all hands in the boats reached the island. Here they remained until April 3rd, when Dampier and 35 of his men were taken away by the Anglessy, an East Indiaman, and conveyed to England. It appears that about the year 1705, Dampier, for a company of merchants, went in the vessel Cinque Ports along with Captain Stradling and — Funnel, who was supercargo on a cruise in the South Seas. Quarrelling with his colleagues, Dampier gave up all interest in the voyage, which turned out a failure, for the vessel foundered, and Dampier and Funnel were taken prisoners by the Dutch. In 1707 Dampier reached England, and published a vindiaction of his voyage to the South Seas in the St. George, with which he had sailed from Virginia in his former marauding expedition. This closes the account of Dampier's life and voyages as detailed by himself. However it appears that he accompanied the famous adventurer Woodes Rogers in his privateering expedition round the world in the humble capacity of pilot or sailing-master. This expedition comprised two armed vessels, the Duke and Duchess, which had been fitted out at

Bristol. This predatory voyage was highly successful, for during the years 1708, 1709, and 1710, several Spanish ships were captured, and some Spanish settlements (notably Guayaquil) were taken and plundered. In all engagements Dampier had charge of the artillery. On their homeward voyage they, on New Year's Day, 1710, called at the island of Juan Fernandez, and brought away Alexander Selkirk, who had been left there by Captain Stradling in 1705, and whose wonderful adventures, combined with materials furnished by Dampier, formed the basis on which Defoe founded the story of his celebrated book called "The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," which was published about 10 years after the rescue. The bold buccaneers reached England on October 14th, 1710, when the spoils of the expedition were divided. The enterprise cost £15,000, and the profits amounted to £170,000, one-third of which (about £57,000) was divided among the officers and crew. Dampier, then in his sixtieth year, is believed to have lived a retired life on the wealth he gained by this voyage. The place and date of his death are unknown, but a magnificent portrait of him is preserved in the Trinity House. He ranks among the most enterprising navigators of England, and his carreer is marked with the attributes that Englishmen most value —courage, humanity, uprightness, and genius. Pinkerton designates Dampier as "the Cook of a former age," Malte Brun calls him "the learned Dampier," while other writers have justly styled him "the Prince of voyagers." Admiral Burney says, "it is not easy to name another voyager or traveller who has given more valuable information to the world, or to whom the merchant or mariner are so much indebted;" and another eminent writer says, "where shall we find navigators comparable to Dampier?"

RISE AND DOWNFALL OF BUCCANEERING.—It is to be regretted that Dampier's natural genius, brilliant imagination, and undaunted bravery in the projection and execution of his maritime enterprises, have been less appreciated by his own countrymen than by foreign nations. This, no doubt, can be attributed to his connection with that brotherhood of piratical adventurers and buccaneers of different nationalities united in opposition to Spain, who performed such heroic deeds of daring, and perpetrated enormous crimes, in the Spanish Main, in the 16th and 17th centuries. At that period piracy and lawlessness was rampant. Early in the 16th century the Spanish Government was the first to make conquests and colonise South America. Fernando Cortez subdued Mexico against the efforts of its chief, Montezuma, and this conquest was followed by the subjugation of Peru to the yoke of Spain under Pizarro. Spanish monopolies became the pest of every port from Mexico to Cape Horn, and the seamen of every other nation were filled with a natural hatred of everything Spanish. The sea-rovers of other nations soon led to skirmishes with forces organised by Spanish officials, hence arose that terrible fraternity called freebooters. We are told that Pope Alexander the VI. marked out a line which traversing the two poles divided the terrestrial globe. All newly-discovered lands to the eastward of this line of demarcation (which passed through the Canary Islands) he gave to the Portuguese, and all to the west of it to the Spaniards. These arrogant assumptions, although "founded by Divine right, and ratified by a bull of Christ's Vicar on earth," were disputed by other nations, and privateering became a profitable pursuit. The watchword was "no peace beyond the line," and the Spaniards gave no mercy to the adventurers on their main. History records that early in the 16th century, the island of St. Domingo was almost depopulated by the oppressive colonial policy of Spain. In 1625, indirect encouragement previously given to privateering, culminated in a combined adventure by England and France on behalf of the adventurers, to plant a band of colonists on the island of St. Christopher, in the West Indies. Jealous of their maritime trade, and by virtue of the Pope's bull, the Spaniards, with a fleet of 39 vessels, surprised, murdered, imprisoned, and dispersed these colonists. Those who escaped turned buccanneers and in 1630 seized Tortuga, N.W. of Hispanila, and converted it into a magazine for the goods of their rivals. About eight years after this, while the buccaneers were absent, following their predatory pursuits, a fleet of Spanish vessels attacked Tortuga and massacred every settler. When the buccaneers, to the number of 300, returned, they opened up hostilities against the Spaniards and, receiving support and sympathy from all European nations, they became the acknowledged scourge of the Spanish American trade and colonies for nearly three quarters of a century. In 1641, the French Governor of St. Christopher, who was governor of the French West Indies, took possession of Tortuga for the Crown of France and expelled the English. In 1654, the Spaniards regained Tortuga from the French, into whose hands it fell six years later through the aid of the buccaneers. The same year, the buccaneers captured and sacked New Segovia in Honduras. In the Gulf of Venezuele, the towns of Mariacoiba and Gibralta were plundered by a Frenchman named L'Ollonsis, who, with his own hands, executed 90 seamen of a Spanish vessel. Another town, called Porto Bello, the best fortified town in the West Indies, was taken and plundered by the buccaneers. In 1655, Cromwell's navy, aided by the buccaneers, captured Jamaica. In 1670, a treaty was concluded between England and Spain for universal peace, in which England renounced hostilities and withdrew commissions granted to privateers against Spanish settlements. On the proclamation of this treaty in Jamaica, the buccaneers rose to a man and committed most daring exploits. In 1671, an intrepid Welshman, named Henry Morgan, embarked 2,000 men on board a fleet of 39 ships, crossed the Isthmus, and conquered, despoiled, and burnt Panama. Neither sex nor condition was spared in the barbarities that followed, yet some years afterwards Morgan became a deputy governor-general and punished his former associates. From 1671 to 1685 the buccaneers made the scene of their operations, not only the Carribean Sea, but principally the whole range of the Pacific. In 1680, a body of 300 well armed marauders landed at Darien, and, aided by the Indians who were cruelly ill-treated by the Spaniards, took Fort Santa Maria, and with John Coxton entered the Bay of Panama and captured four Spanish vessels. Successes followed upon them on both sides of the Pacific. Under Lawkins, Sharp, and Watling, they roamed north and south, ravaging the coast of Peru, and boldly doubling Cape Horn reached the East Indies. From 1683 to 1690 numbers under John Cook, — Eaton, Edward Davis, and — Townley, aided by ships fitted out in London as traders, but in reality used for privateering expeditions in the South Seas, plundered Spanish towns and destroyed Spanish trading ships. The Spanish Viceroy of Panama sent out 14 ships to attack these unsparing marauders, but after a short skirmish in the Bay of Panama the 10 ships of the pirates got away. The English, under Davis, sacked Leon and Realey's. The commerce of Spain gradually diminished after the wreck of the Invincible Armada, and by the beginning of the eighteenth century became utterly insignificant, thereby depriving the buccaneers of the plunder of Spanish mercantile marine. It was among the class of English buccaneers above narrated, that Dampier distinguished himself, and their history affords most thrilling episodes in the history of marine annals. The extinction of this daring body of men was through European policy, for in 1700 Phillip V., the first of the Bourbon dynasty, ascended the Spanish throne, and the hatred of Spain by the French and English disappeared, and with it buccaneering. It is said, and not without good reason, that other buccaneers besides Dampier refitted their vessels on the coast of Australia.

AUSTRALIA VISITED BY DUTCH NAVIGATORS AFTER DAMPIER.—Just before Dampier madehis first voyage to Australia, a ship called the Riddeschap, outward bound from Holland, left the Cape of Good Hope in 1684 or 1685, and, not being heard of, it was naturally conjectured she had been wrecked on Houtman's Abrolhos, on the west coast of Australia. It was not until 1696 that an expedition was sent out to search for her. This expedition consisted of three Dutch vessels called the Het Geelvink, Nyprangh, and Het Weseltje, which sailed from the Texel destined for India, and was commanded by William de Vlamingh. On the morning of 25th December, 1696, Australia was sighted very near the entrance to Swan River. Four days subsequently they discovered an island which they called Rottenest Island, from the abundance of rats' nests on it. A smaller island close to it they called Garden Island. Here they picked up a fragment of driftwood from a wreck. After supplying their ships with wood and water a council was held, when it was determined to explore the mainland. On January 5th, 1697, the exploring party of 88 armed men disembarked and marched for three days to the eastward, only meeting with gum-trees, cockatoos, parrots, and some salt lakes, which proved to be the mouth of a river. They rowed up this river inland 10 or 12 leagues, and saw some flocks of that *rara avis* bird in other lands than Australia, the black swan. On the banks of the lake they saw three deserted mia mias. Out of four of the swans caught they took two alive to Batavia. Subsequently this river was called Swan River, and is the site of the present city of Perth. On the 6th, a second expedition inland was undertaken, and, although traces of the natives were freely met with, none were seen. They sailed from Swan River along the coast northwards, landing in several places and making excursions four or five miles inland. On the 23rd, near Houtman's Albrolhos, they saw some natives. They anchored in and remained some time in Shark's Bay, exploring the coast around it. After leaving Shark's Bay, they cruised along the coast and discovered the North West Cape and an opening near it which they called the William's River. On the 21st they sailed for Batavia. According to an account of their voyage published in 1701, the coast was the most miserable in the world, so that Dampier had reason to say that the Hottentots of the Cape were lords compared to the natives of Australia. The account gives descriptions of the magpies, snakes, sands, bush, emus, native dogs, and scanty vegetable productions they met with. It also records that they, on 3rd of February, found a memorial commemorating the arrival of Dirk Hartogs, and they left a memorial of their own visit in Dutch, a translation of which reads as follows: "1697. The 4th of February, 1697, the ship Het Geelvink, of Amsterdam, touched here; the captain Wilhem de Vlaming, of Vielandt; Joannes Cremer, of Copenhagen, mate; the chief pilot, Michel Bloem Van Estigt, of Bremen; also the dogger Nyprangh, Gerrit Colaart, of Amsterdam, captain; Theodorus Hermans, of the same place, mate; Gerritt Gerritzen, of Bremen, master

(or chief pilot); also the galliot Het Weseltje, Cornelis de Vlaming, of Vlielandt, commander; Coert Geritzen, of Bremen, master. Sailed hence without flotilla from the Austral lands under destination for Batavia." When the French navigator, Baudin, visited Shark's Bay, in July, 1801, he found on Dirk Hartog's island the pewter plate, about six inches in diameter, on which were rudely engraved the two inscriptions, the one by Dirk Hartighs, dated 25th October, 1616, and the other by Vlaming as above mentioned. The plate was found on the north side of the island, which Baudin called Inscription Cape, and it was half covered with sand, lying near a decayed oaken post to which it appeared to have been nailed. Baudin caused a new post to be erected and the plate nailed thereon at the same place it was found. He also caused a second plate, recording his own visit, to be erected on a post on the N.E. of the island. The chronicler of Vlaming's voyage thus refers to his departure from Australia: "On the morning of the 21st, in lat. 21 deg., we held once more a council; half-an-hour after sunrise our captain came from on board De Vlamingh's vessel, from which five cannon shot were fired, and three from our vessel, as signal of farewell to the miserable South Land." The next expedition to Australia was three Dutch vessels from Timor, in 1705, with orders to examine the north coast more minutely than had hitherto been done. In April that year they sighted the N.W. coast, then called Van Dieman's Land, and up to July 12th sailed along the coast, which they found so thickly fringed with islands, that they pronounced Australia to be a cluster of islands. They named several places and had some intercourse with the natives. There is no published account of this voyage. About the same year the yacht Yellow Pinton coasted along the south-east coast of New Guinea and close to Australia. The maps, at this period, only contained Tasman's discoveries south and north-west of Australia. The Dutch continued to prosecute their efforts to determine if it was the great South Land. A famous Dutch mathematician, named Jacob Roggewein, for twenty years was an enthusiast, like De Quiros, for the discovery of the Terra Australis Incognita. He induced the Dutch East India Company in 1721 to fit out three vessels, the Eagle, of 36 guns, the Tienhoven, of 28 guns, and an African galley, of 14 guns, with 271 men, for a voyage of discovery. Roggeweing's son Jacob was appointed admiral of the fleet, which set sail from the Texel on August 21st, 1721. After doubling Cape Horn one of the ships was wrecked by a tempest, a second one was disabled and abandoned, and the remaining vessel returned to Texel after the voyagers had discovered several islands, and undergone terrible privations from scurvy and want of proper food. This disastrous failure to discover Australia disheartened the Dutch, and no more expeditions were improvised. The next Dutch ship that ever reached Australia was the Zeewyk, which was driven ashore upon Houtman's Abrolhos in June, 1727. The shipwrecked crew built a boat from the débris of the wreck and in it reached Batavia. When Stokes visited the locality in 1837, he found relics of the wreck, and a gun, which induced him to call the island Gun Island. He also found part of Pelsart's shipwrecked vessel, the Batavia, a Dutch coin dated 1620, and fragments of corroded iron.

CHAPTER IV.

CAPTAIN COOK'S DISCOVERIES IN AUSTRALASIA.

What Æneas was to Rome the illustrious navigator Captain James Cook is to Australasia. His extraordinary discoveries, combined with the improvements in astronomy, natural history, geography, and navigatiom, arising out of his vast undertakings, have contributed so much to the glory and reputation of the British Empire as to render the name of Britain famous in every part of the globe. It may justly be said that he is the founder of the Australasian colonies, for it was upon his strong recommendation of the country around Botany Bay that the Imperial Government were induced to form the first Australian colony of New South Wales, thus laying the foundation of one of the most important colonies ever established. Although he discovered 2,000 miles of Eastern Australia, it is somewhat a matter of reproach that no considerable territory in Australia bears his name. If he has not, like Americus, been so fortunate as to give his name to a continent, his pretensions to such a distinction remain unrivalled, and his truly glorious and justly-admired character as a great circumnavigator will be revered by all nations to time immemorial. If Dr. Lang had his own way, Cook would have been the euphonymous hero of Northern Australia. However his deeds and character shine in the records of all nations, and the truest and most lasting memorials of him are found in the rapidly flourishing British States in the regions he handed over to England by peaceful maritime enterprise. The recesses of the globe were investigated by Cook to promote general knowledge as well as with the noble object of civilising the world, and ameliorating its condition. Although this celebrated navigator has no claim to illustrious parentage, he has, by his talents and energy, raised himself to the highest pinnacle of fame as a scientific and learned navigator. His biographers record that James Cook, his father, was a Northumbrian, and filled the humble station of a farm labourer at Morton, in Yorkshire, where he married a farm servant, whose maiden name was Grace. Mr. Cook, senior, removed to Marton, a village in the North Riding of Yorkshire, on the high road from Gisborough, in Cleveland, to Stockton-on-Tees, county of Durham, six miles from each of these towns. At this village, on October 27th, 1728, the subject of this notice was born in a mud-house (demolished about a century ago), and on the following 3rd of November he was baptised by the parish vicar. He was one of nine children and received the first rudiments of his education from Dame Walker, the schoolmistress of the village. When he was eight years old his father, for his skill in husbandry, was appointed head servant or bailiff over a farm belonging to Mr. Thomas Skottow, call Airy Holme, near Great Ayton. Here young Cook was placed at a day school at Mr. Skottow's expense, and at 13 years old he was apprenticed to Mr. William Saunderson, a haberdasher at Straiths, a fishing town 10 miles north of Whitby. The manner of life followed by the seamen of the port, engendered in his breast a passion for a seafaring life, and having a disagreement with his master he obtained his discharge, and apprenticed himself for seven years to Messrs. John and Henry Walker, of Whitby, who were Quakers and owners of two vessels engaged in the coal trade. The greatest part of his service was spent on board one of these vessels, called the Freelove, and at the expiration of his apprenticeship he served as a common sailor, and soon raised himself to be mate of one of Mr. John Walker's ships. In the spring of 1755, hostilities broke out between England and France and the "press-gang" was at work. Captain Cook was then in the Thames in charge of his master's collier. Fearing he would be "pressed," he concealed himself for a time, but reflecting that he could not elude discovery with all his vigilance, he determined that he would voluntarily enter the navy, relying upon his knowledge of the practical part of navigation to rise high in the service. Accordingly at the naval rendezvous at Wapping, he entered with an officer of the Eagle warship carrying 60 guns, and at that time commanded by Captain Hamer. Cook, by his abilities and merit, soon distinguished himself as a practical seaman, and when Captain (afterwards Sir Hugh) Palliser was appointed to command the Eagle, all the officers spoke highly of his conduct. Captain Palliser soon perceived Cook's merit and gave him every encouragement. Hearing this, Cook's friends induced Mr. Osbaldeston, then member of Parliament for Scarsborough, to write to Captain Palliser to know how he could best forward young Cook's interests. The captain replied that Cook had not been long enough in the service to be promoted as a commission officer, but a master's warrant might be procured, which would raise him to a station he was well qualified to fulfil. On May 10th, 1759, the warrant was received by which Cook was appointed master of the Grampus sloop, but the proper master of this vessel having unexpectedly returned to her, Cook did not take command. However, four days afterwards, he was made master of the Garland, but was again disappointed, as the vessel sailed before he got his commission. So strong was the friendship and influence of Captain Palliser, that the next day, the 15th of May, Cook was appointed master of the Mercury, destined for North America to join the fleet under the command of Sir Charles Saunders, which, in conjunction with the land forces under General Wolfe, were engaged in the siege of Quebec. During the siege it was necessary to take soundings in the channel of the River St. Lawrence, between the island of Orleans and the north shore, directly in front of the French fortified camp at Montmorency and Beauport, in order to enable the admiral to navigate his fleet against the enemy's batteries, and cover the English army while they made a general attack under General Wolfe on the enemy's camp. On the recommendation of Captain Palliser, Cook was employed in this service, and for several nights secretly carried on his surveying operations undisturbed. One night Cook was surrounded by Indians in the employ of the enemy, and, hotly pursued, he pushed to the shore on the island of Orleans. The Indians entered at the stern of the barge as he jumped out at the

bow and they carried the barge off as a prize. However, Cook furnished the Admiral with a correct and complete chart of the channel and surroundings after the English were in possession of Quebec, although before this he knew nothing of drawing. The navigation of the river being hazardous and difficult to the English, who had no chart of it, Cook performed another important service, by order of the admiral, by surveying those dangerous parts of the river to the sea below Quebec. Concerning the accuracy and utility of Cook's charts, it is enough to say that it has never been found necessary to publish any other, while they have been copied by all nations. On the 22nd September, 1759, Cook was appointed by warrant from Lord Colvill, master of the Northumberland man-of-war, commanded by his Lordship when commodore of a squadron at Halifax. At Halifax Cook studied euclid, astronomy, and other branches of science. In September, 1762, as master of the ship Northumberland, Cook assisted in the recapture of Newfoundland from the French by the forces under Lieutenant-Colonel Amberst. While at Placentia, Cook made a survey of the harbour and heights of the place which gained the esteem and friendship of Captain (afterwards Admiral) Graves, commander of the Antelope and Governor of Newfoundland. Towards the end of 1762 Cook returned to England, and on 21st December the same year married an estimable young lady named Elizabeth Batts, at Barking, in Essex. Owing to the high duties Cook was frequently called upon to perform, he did not partake of matrimonial felicity without many long interruptions. This was a source of regret to both, for they each reciprocated the tenderest regard and affection for each other. Early in 1763 Captain Graves was again sent out as Governor of Newfoundland, and the place being one of great commercial interest, Cook was appointed to survey the islands. Accordingly he surveyed Miquelon and St. Pierre, which had been ceded by the treaty to the French. Cook then returned to England, but on his constant friend, Sir Hugh Palliser, being appointed Governor and Commodore of Newfoundland and Labradore in 1764, Cook was, on April 18th, the same year, appointed marine surveyor of these two places. With the Grenville schooner he executed his commission most creditably. He penetrated further into the land than any other man had attempted, discovered several large lakes, and the fruits of his labours during the four years he was on this serviee he embodied in his valuable charts which have never been superseded. During the winter seasons he spent his time in England. In 1767 he published a short paper in the 57th volume of the Philosophical Transactions, entitled, "An Observation of an Eclipse of the Sun at the Island of Newfoundland, August 5th, 1766, with the Longitude of the place of Observation deduced from it." The observation was made at one of the Burges Islands, near Cape Ray, in lat. 47 deg. 36 min. and 19 sec. on the S.W. extremity of Newfoundland. Dr. Bevis, Mr. Mitchell, and the Rev. Mr. Hornsby carefully examined the transaction and proved the accuracy of the observations, thereby establishing Cook's character as an able mathematician, and adding considerably to his reputation. About this time the spirit of geographical discovery (which was so vigorous during the latter end of the fifteenth and throughout the sixteenth century, but from national wars declined during the first half of the seventeenth century) began to revive. No sooner was the peace between England and France, and other nations, restored in 1763, than George the Third began to encourage and patronise voyages of discovery. Great navigations were undertaken by adventurers for avarice, ambition, or war, but not for the extension of geography, navigation, and the important sciences. Under the patronage of his Majesty, Commodore Byron, with the ships Dolphin and Tamar, in the years 1764, 1765, and 1766, circumnavigated the globe. This voyage was followed by a similar one by Captain Wallis in the Dolphin (the first ship ever sheathed with copper) in 1768, and by Captain Carteret in the Swallow in 1768 and 1769. These two captains sailed together on the same expedition, but the vessels accidentally separated and returned by different routes. Being directed to hold a certain track in the South Atlantic on their way homeward from the East Indies, they were precluded from making any discoveries in Australasia, and their voyages only slightly increased the knowledge of geography and navigation. About this time the French showed an ardent and enterprising spirit for maritime discovery, and M. De Bougainville was sent on a voyage of discovery in the South Seas. In June, 1768, with the vessels La Boudeuse and L'Etoile, after discovering some reefs 150 miles off the east coast of Australia, between the parallels of 15.20 and 15.40 S. Bougainville, steered northward, until he made the south coast of New Guinea. In the following year he was followed by the French ship, Mauritus, whose commander (Captain Kerguelin) sailed down into the southern latitudes and discovered Kerguelin's Land, or the Island of Desolation, in lat. 50 deg. S., and other countries then supposed to form portions of the Antarctic continent. Early in 1768 the English astronomers calculated that a transit of Venus over the sun's disc would happen in 1769, and as the best place for observing it would be some part of the South Seas, the Marquesas, or one of Tasman's islands called Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburgh (the Friendly Islands), it was urged that the Government should send out a scientific expedition. The affair being of eminent consequence to astronomical science, was taken up by the Royal Society, which presented a long memorial, dated February 15th, 1768, to His Majesty, representing the great importance of the object, and the attention other foreign nations would pay to it. The Earl of Shelburne laid this memorial before the King, who graciously ordered the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to provide a ship to carry the Royal Society scientific party of observers. Accordingly, on April 3rd, Mr. Stephens, Secretary of the Admiralty, informed the society that a vessel was ready. Mr. Alexander Dalrymple, an eminent astronomer and hydrographer of the Royal Society, who had published a collection of several voyages to the Southern Ocean, was selected to take direction of the expedition. As the crew of the ship was not subject to the military discipline of His Majesty's navy, Dalrymple applied for a brevet commission as captain, the same as had been granted Dr. Halley in his voyage of discovery. This demand was absolutely refused by Sir Edward Hawke, then at the head of the Admiralty, who said his conscience would not allow him to trust any of the king's ships to one who had never been bred a seaman, and in this respect he was justified by the mutinous conduct of Halley's crew, who would not acknowledge Halley as their commander. Furthermore, Sir Edward Hawke said he would rather cut his right hand off than sign such a commission, and as Mr. Dalrymple was equally inflexible, Mr. Stephens recommended Cook, who had regularly been educated in the navy, as the next most competent person to command the expedition. Sir Hugh Palliser strengthened this recommendation, and Cook was appointed by the Lords of the Admiralty on the 25th of May, 1768, a lieutenant in the Royal Navy, and received a commission to examine the transit of Venus and to undertake a voyage of discovery. Cook, accompanied by Sir Hugh Palliser, examined a number of ships in the Thames and selected one of 370 tons, which they christened the Endeavour, as the best adapted for the voyage. This vessel was originally intended for the coal trade. She was fitted out with 18 months' provisions and a crew of 85 persons. She carried 22 guns. While the necessary preparations were being made, Captain Wallis returned from his voyage round the world and reported to the Earl of Morton, then President of the Royal Society, that the best place for observing the transit was an island he discovered and called George's Island (Otaheite or Tahiti) which afforded an eligible harbour which he called Port Royal. The society adopted this idea and appointed Mr. Charles Green, assistant to Dr. Bradley at the Royal Observatory, to conduct the astronomical part of the voyage with Cook. Mr. Joseph Banks (afterwards Sir Joseph Banks, and President of the Royal Society) formed one of the expedition. He was a distinguished cultivator of natural history, born in London on January 4th, 1743, and educated under his father's roof at Beverley Abbey, and at Harrow and Eton Grammar Schools, and at Christ Church, Oxford. When he was 21 he succeeded to an ample paternal fortune which he prudently employed for the advancement of science. He joined the Royal Society in 1766 and visited Newfoundland with Lieutenant Phipps, returning therefrom with a fine collection of insects and plants. To gratify his botanical tastes he was, by the influence of Lord Sandwich, First Lord of the Admiralty, allowed to join Cook's expedition. He induced Dr. Solander, a native of Sweden, a medical botanist, and a pupil of Linnœus, to join him. These gentlemen, from a laudable desire to acquire a knowledge of astronomy and botany, undertook to accompany the expedition. They took two draftsmen, one (Mr. Buchan) to delineate natural history, and the other (Mr. Parkinson) landscapes. Mr. Banks had also a secretary and four servants. On May 27th Cook took command of the ship in Deptford yard, sailed on July 30th, and anchored in Plymouth Sound on 30th August. The wind being fair on the 26th, they set sail, and on 13th of September anchored at Madeira, where they were treated with the utmost kindness and liberalty by the British Consul (Mr. Cheap) and the Portuguese Friars, who allowed them to visit the convent of nuns. The navigators left Madeira on November 7th, arriving at Rio de Janiero on the 13th, where their stay for one month was spent in continual altercations with the Viceroy, who ridiculed the object of the expedition. On December 5th, as Cook's vessel was being towed past the Santa Cruz fortifications, two shots were fired at it from the fort. Cook immediately anchored and demanded an explanation, to which the commandant replied that the Viceroy had not sent any permit to let the ship pass, and in the absence of such an order no vessel was ever suffered to go below the fort. The Viceroy explained that he had written the order some days previously, but it was negligently delayed. On December 7th Cook again set sail, doubled Cape Horn on January 26th, and after discovering the islands of Thrump-cap, Bow Island, The Group, Bird Island and Chain Island, anchored in Port Royal (called Matavia by the natives), Otaheite, on the 13th of April. Here a fort was built wherein an observatory was erected and the astronomical instruments were set up. In due time, on June 3rd, the great astronomical event, that is the observations of the transit of Venus, was successfully accomplished. Agreeably to a suggestion of the Earl of Morton, Cook, on

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July 1st, despatched Messrs. Gore, Monkhouse, Sporing and Banks in the long boat to the neighbouring island of Eimeo, and the next day Messrs. Hicks, Clerk, Pickersgill and Saunders proceeded in the pinnace to another island, as second and third parties, with instruments to observe the transit of Venus. As the day approached for executing the grand purpose of the voyage, the anxiety was so great that the astronomers were sleepless on the night of the 2nd, and their apprehension of bad weather was happily removed by the sun rising on the 3rd without a cloud. At the fort, where Messrs. Cook, Green, and Dr. Solander were stationed, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disc was observed with great advantage, and in the other two situations observations were also successfully made. According to Mr. Green the observatory was in lat 17 deg. 29 min. and 15 sec., and long. 149 deg. 32 min. and 30 sec. W. of Greenwich. The first appearance of Venus on the sun was 9-25-42 a.m., and the first total immersion 9-44-4 a.m. The beginning of the emersion was 3-14-8 p.m., and the total emersion was 3-32-10. A full account of this great astronomical event appears in the 61st volume of the Philosophical Transactions. The circumnavigation of Otaheite was subsequently accomplished by Cook, who then made preparations to complete the remaining part of his instructions, to proceed south with the view of making discoveries in the Pacific. If he found no land he was to proceed west until he fell in with New Zealand which he was to explore, and thence return to England. Acting on these instructions the anchor was weighed on July 13th, and the voyagers (after a stay of three months) quitted Otaheite, where much of their time was spent in a perpetual reciprocation of good offices and friendship with the natives. Tupia, a native who had been Oberea's (Queen of Otaheite) first minister and chief priest of the country, and who had been constantly with the English during their stay at the island, expressed a desire to accompany the navigators. His proposal was gladly accepted and he and his son, aged 13 years, accordingly proceeded with the expedition. It would deviate from the plan of this history to enter into a minute account of the nature, productions, people, customs and manners of the countries discovered and visited by Cook, and noted with such skill and intelligence by him in his journals. It will be sufficient here to notice that after a run of 86 days from Otaheite, having discovered the Society and other isles, he sighted the coast of New Zealand on 6th October, 1769. A boy on board the Endeavour, named Nicholas Young, was the first to sight the land, and in his honor Cook called the south-west point "Young Nick's Head." From the date of Tasman's flying visit in 1642, to Cook's visit in 1769, no stranger is known to have visited New Zealand. Claims to earlier discovery of the islands by European voyagers to the time of Cook have been raised, but they are unsupported by any sufficient evidence. There is great reason, however, for believing that some ship from Europe had put in at the islands only a few years before Cook's visit. The Maories expressly told Cook of this vessel in such a manner as convinced Cook that they could not be mistaken. There is too much ground for apprehending that the vessel and her crew must have perished on the coast, having in all probability been destroyed by the Maories. Captain Cruise records that the Maories informed him that a boat's crew, on going ashore on the west coast to trade for provisions, were cut off and murdered by the Maories.

CAPTAIN COOK CIRCUMNAVIGATES NEW ZEALAND.—The land which Cook saw on the 6th October, 1769, naturally became the subject of much eager conversation, and the general opinion on board the Endeavour was that they had discovered the *Terra Australis Incognita*. Approaching nearer they found "the hills were clothed with wood and that some of the trees in the valleys were very large." In fact, Cook soon ascertained from Tasman's chart that he was drawing near to New Zealand. However, he found that he was on the opposite side from that on which Tasman had been nearly 127 years before, and in a latitude considerably to the north of that to which it had presented itself to Tasman. In consequence of a violent north wind Cook found it difficult to weather a point of land which formed the south-west head of a bay he wished to enter, and it was not until 4 p.m. on the 8th that he anchored on the N.W. side of the inlet. This bay was placed in lat. 38 deg. 42 min. S. and long. 181 deg. 36 min. W. from Greenwich in the chart of Cook's first voyage, but Cook on his second voyage found that he had laid down the whole of the north island of New Zealand half a degree and the south island 40 minutes too far east. The Englishmen's first intercourse with the Maories was not calculated to prepossess either party with feelings of friendship towards each other. On the evening of their arrival Cook, with Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, some other gentlemen, and a party of marines, went in the pinnace and yawl and landed at the head of the bay, which Cook, when leaving the place, called Poverty Bay, as it afforded him no supplies except wood. The spot where Cook landed is now the site of a very prosperous and flourishing town called Gisborne, a little distance north of Napier, the capital of the province, and it seems incredible that in little more than a century such a barren and uninviting place, as seen by Cook, would exhibit the picture it now does. At the time of Cook's visit no cornfields, no cattle luxuriating on meadows of the now celebrated Poverty Bay rye-grass, no hamlet, no sign of civilisation, social life and prosperity, but only hills of little or no grandeur, backing a moderate sized flat at the head of the bay whose points were two white projecting cliffs, presented a prospect neither imposing nor hospitable. Cook's first landing resulted in an unfortunate collision with the Maories. "We landed," he says, "abreast of the ship on the east side of the river, which was here about 40 yards broad; but seeing some natives on the west side, with whom I wanted to speak, and finding the river not fordable, I ordered the yawl to carry us over, and left the pinnace at the entrance. When we came near the place where the people were assembled, they all ran away; however, we landed, and, leaving some boys to take care of the yawl, we walked up to some huts, which were about 200 or 300 yards from the waterside. When we got some distance from the boat, four men, armed with long lances, rushed out of the woods, and running up to attack the boat, would certainly have cut her off if the people in the pinnace had not discovered them, and called to the boys to drop down the stream. The boys instantly obeyed, but being closely pursued, the coxswain of the pinnace, who had charge of the boats, fired a musket over their heads. At this they stopped and looked round them, but in a few minutes renewed the pursuit, brandishing their lances in a threatening manner. The coxswain then fired a second musket over their heads, but of this they took no notice, and, one of them lifting up his spear to dart it at the boat, another piece was fired which shot him dead. When he fell the other three stood motionless, as if petrified with astonishment. As soon as they recovered they went back, dragging the dead body, which, however, they soon left that it might not encumber their flight. At the report of the musket we drew together, having straggled a little distance from each other, and made the best of our way back to the boat, and, crossing the river, we soon saw the native lying dead on the ground." After their return to the ship they could hear the Maories talking with great earnestness, and in a very loud tone of voice. As it is interesting to know what impression Cook's arrival made on the Maories, the following account recorded by Mr. Polack who, in 1836, had it from the mouths of their children, will be read with peculiar interest:—"They took the ship at first for a gigantic bird, and were struck with the beauty and size of its wings, as they supposed its sails to be. But on seeing a smaller bird, unfledged, descending into the water, and a number of parti-coloured beings, apparently in human shape, the bird was regarded as a houseful of divinities. Nothing could exceed their astonishment. The sudden death of their chief (it proved to be their great fighting general) was regarded as a thunderbolt of these new gods, and the noise made by the muskets was represented as thunder. To revenge themselves was the dearest wish of the tribe, but how to accomplish it with divinities who could kill them at a distance, was difficult to determine. Many of them observed that they felt themselves ill by being only looked upon by these atuas (gods), and it was therefore agreed that, as the new-comers could bewitch with a look, the sooner their society was dismissed the better for the general welfare." Notwithstanding the disaster, Cook the following morning (July 9th), made another attempt to establish a friendly intercourse with the Maories, which was attended with no better success, although, strange to say, the native of Otaheite named Tupia, who was on board the Endeavour, could made himself perfectly understood by speaking to the Maories in his own language. Tupia's and the Maories' language were the same, except in a slight diversity of the dialect. There is no record of the origin of the Maori race, who have abandoned their savage customs, and cannibal habits, and have now attained such a high degree of civilisation as to dress well, preside as magistrates and judges, and even take part in both branches of the Legislature. There is evidence to support the theory that the Maories were originally Malays, who migrated from Sumatra, and islands in the Malayan Archipelago during the westerly trade winds. The wave of population flowing from the south of Asia seems to have extended to all the islands east of Australia. The physical conformation, language, religion, institutions, and customs of all the natives of the South Sea constitute one family. A diversity of opinion exists as to the origin of the inhabitants of Australia, and there can be little doubt that they partake of the African origin as well as Malayan. The Malays are brown or copper complexioned, while the Australians are black, like the negro race, but New Zealanders show a considerable diversity in shades of colour, and this diversity is attributed to the admixture of Australians. Although the Malay language is spoken in different dialects and degrees of corruption, we find it is generally used throughout the whole of the Pacific Ocean, and it is not to be wondered at that the New Zealanders understood Tupia when he spoke in the language of Otaheite. The origin of the Maori race, according to tradition borne out by the concurrent testimony of tribes and physical possibility, go to show that New Zealand was peopled about the fifteenth century by natives from an island called Hawaüki. It would appear that quarrels among the natives of Hawaüki caused a chief to be banished from the island, and in his double canoe he was carried to New Zealand. Many

years afterwards, returning to Hawaüki, he gave a glowing description of the land he discovered, and set on foot a scheme of emigration. Ultimately a fleet of large double canoes loaded with immigrants, carrying with them the kumera, the taro, seeds of the karaka, trees, dogs, parrots, the pakeko, or red-billed swamp hen, &c., set sail and reached the newly-discovered country. The numerous tribes spread over the islands, even now trace their descent from those who arrived in each of the canoes, and calculations based on the genealogical sticks of the tohungas, or priests, show that 20 generations have passed since this exodus. It is said that the first European navigators found the Maories possessed of vague ideas of astronomy, that they knew how to steer by stars, and knew by astronomical signs the recurrence of seasons for planting and reaping, each season being ushered in with festivals. The position of Hawaüki is unknown, although the old natives still pretend to point out its direction, and it is singular that there are in the Pacific several islands of a somewhat similar name. At Cook's second intercourse with the New Zealanders on Monday, October 9th, the Maories only answered Tupia by brandishing their weapons in a threatening manner, and only desisted from their threats by the discharge of a musket. When the marines were drawn up, Tupia, a second time, told the Maories that the voyagers only wanted wood and water in exchange for axes and iron. At length 20 or 30 Maories were induced to cross the river to traffic with the voyagers, but beyond a few feathers nothing was received in return for the pieces of iron, axes, and beads presented to them. The Maories proposed to exchange their arms for those of the English, but this being refused they made several attempts to snatch them. One of the Maories snatched Mr. Green's hanger, and Mr. Banks fired small shot at him, and as he did not drop it, Mr. Monkhouse fired at him with a ball, which instantly killed him. The Maories then advanced, and were fired upon by the English, who wounded several of them. Cook then formed a design to seize some of the Maories, and by kind treatment and presents obtain their friendship, and render them instruments for establishing for him an amicable intercourse with their countrymen. He had set out with three boats to make the circuit of the bay with this object in view, and in search of fresh water. When he saw two fishing canoes coming in from sea, one under sail, and the other worked with paddles, the English tried to capture them. The one under sail escaped the boats that tried to intercept them, but the Maories in the other boat, finding it impossible to escape their pursuers, made an obstinate resistance with their paddles, and throwing stones, &c. The scuffle ended by the English killing four out of the seven Maories in the canoe. The other three, who were boys, the eldest about 19, and the youngest about 11, leaped into the water, where they were overpowered and taken on board the Endeavour. It is impossible to reflect upon this part of Cook's conduct with any degree of satisfaction. It is possible he lost some of that self-possession which eminently distinguished his character, and became irritated by the disagreeable hostilities of the Maories during the early part of the day. In extenuation, not in self-defence, of the unfortunate transaction, Cook says:—"I am conscious that the feeling of every reader of humanity will censure me for having fired upon these unhappy people; and it is impossible that, upon calm review, I should approve it myself. They certainly did not deserve death for not choosing to confide in my promises, or not consenting to come on board my boat even if they had apprehended no danger, but the nature of my service required me to obtain a knowledge of their country, which I could not otherwise effect than by forcing my way into it in a hostile manner, or gaining admission through the confidence and goodwill of the people. I had already tried the power of presents without effect; and I was now prompted by my desire to avoid further hostilities, to get some of them on board, as the only method left of convincing them that we intended them no harm, and had it in our power to contribute to their gratification and convenience. Thus far my intentions were not criminal, and though in the contest our victory might have been complete without so great an expense of life, yet in such situations when the command to fire has been given, no man can restrain its excess, or prescribe its effect." The minds of the boys were soon conciliated by Tupia, and when their fears were allayed, they edified the company with a song. "The tune," says Cook, "was solemn and slow, like those of our psalms, containing many notes and semitones." Next morning they were dressed and adorned with bracelets, anklets, and necklaces, and they expressed great joy on being told they were to be sent ashore. When put ashore they preferred to return to the ship, but they were not many days on board when they desired to be again sent ashore. This was done, but as soon as the boat began to return to the ship they waded into the water and entreated to be taken on board. As the boats-crew had positive orders to leave them, their request was not complied with. On the 11th Cook weighed anchor and left "this unfortunate and inhospitable place," as he calls it. The bay was called Taoneroa on Long Sand by the Maories. He then sailed along the coast towards the south, giving the name of Cape Table to a point of land seven leagues south of Poverty Bay, its figure resembling a table, and to an island called by the Maories Teahowry, he bestowed the appelation of Portland Island, it being similar to the one so named in the British Channel. On Sunday, the 15th, some Maories came to the ship, and while trafficking with Cook, unexpectedly seized Tupia's little boy, Tayota. As they were carrying him off in their canoe, several muskets were fired at them, which caused them to let go their hold of Tayota, who swam to the ship. A large canoe followed him, but desisted on being fired at by muskets and cannon from the ship. With glasses, those on board traced the canoes to shore, and saw three Maories, either dead or wounded, carried up the beach. Cape Kidnappers was given to the point of land where this event happened. The bay between it and Portland Island Cook named Hawkes Bay, after Sir Edward Hawke, President of the Admiralty Board. At the head of this bay the town of Napier is situated. Cook soon found that the places he touched along the coast were not all "Poverty Bays," and that the natives were less hostile when spared the rough oratory and usage of fire-arms. On the 17th he gave the name Cape Turnagain to a headland and proceeded to return homeward. On the 19th he passed a remarkable headland, distinguished by a rock in the shape of a church spire, and called it Gable-end Foreland. On the 20th he explored two bays called respectively by the natives Tegadoo Bay and Tolego Bay. On October 29th they sailed again and passed East Cape. In the evening of the 30th Lieutenant Hicks discovered a bay to which his name was given. In this bay a number of canoes with armed Maories came with great expedition to attack the ship, but a cannon shot being fired over their heads, they fled with much precipitation, causing Cook to name the cape off which the transaction occurred Cape Runaway. On November 4th the ship was anchored in an inlet and next day a great number of canoes, containing nearly 200 armed Maories came off to attack the ship. After the discharge of some muskets they laid aside their hostile intentions and began to trade. During the next four days the Maories treated the English with great hospitality, supplying the ship with as much mackerel which, when salted, was sufficient to last the ship's company for a month or two. In the "Bay of Plenty" the ship was heeled and her bottom scrubbed, while Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander made inland explorations securing many rare plants. On the 9th Mr. Green took observations of the transit of Mercury in an inlet which Cook denominated Mercury Bay. In this bay the oysters were so plentiful that the ship might have been loaded at one tide. On the 15th a memorial of Cook's visit was cut on a tree near the watering place, and after displaying the British colours on shore, Cook took formal possession of the place in the name of His Majesty King George the Third. The same evening the voyagers sailed from Mercury Bay and anchored in a fine bay where a river was discovered and called the Thames from its resemblance to the English estuary of that name. After rounding Cape Bret, on the 26th, they entered the Bay of Islands, where Cook and several of his companions landed and were surrounded by warlike Maories, who would have murdered them had not the fire of small arms and cannon from the ship dispersed the hostile Maories without loss of life. On December 5th the ship struck on a rock and was in imminent hazard of being wrecked. On the 9th Cook anchored in a deep bay which he called Doubtless Bay. By the help of Tupia, Cook learned from the Maories that after three days' rowing to the north in their canoes, the land would take a short turn to the southward, which point Cook concluded was Tasman's Cape Maria Van Dieman. Cook enquired fnrther if they knew of any other country than their own, and was told that some of their people had sailed N.W. by N. or N.N.W. to a great country called Ulimaroa, where (after a passage of a month) they met with a people who eat animals like hogs. On the 16th the northern extremity of New Zealand was reached and named North Cape. On Christmas Day the ship encountered a tremendous gale of wind, and had it not been a great distance from the land it was highly probable the navigators would never have returned to relate their adventures. Cook was three weeks in getting 10 leagues to the westward and five weeks in getting 50 leagues. The Endeavour was not the only ship that chanced to be contending with this fearful gale on these inhospitable shores. Singularly enough, four days after Cook left Doubtless Bay, namely, the 12th December, 1769, a French vessel, the Saint Jean Baptiste, under the command of M. De Surville, visited the same bay and called it Lauriston Bay. M. De Surville had left Engely in the Ganges on March 3rd, 1769, in quest of an island said to have been discovered by the English 700 leagues west of Peru, peopled by Jews and abounding both in precious metals and every other description of wealth. After exploring the Indian Archipelago he reached an island to the east of New Guinea on November 30th and called it Island of Contrariety, which is probably one of the Solomon Isles. From this he steered south, and, as stated, visited Doubtless Bay on December 12th, but from contrary winds did not anchor in it until the 17th. He landed twice and was abundantly supplied by the Maories with provisions. On the 22nd De Surville left his first anchorage and proceeded to another cove, which he called Cove Chevalier. Soon after he dropped anchor a terrible tempest swept the coast with such fury as to tear the ship

from her moorings and expose her to the most imminent hazard of destruction. Cook encountered the same gale on the other side of New Zealand. During the storm a boat containing the invalids of De Surville's crew attempted to make from the shore to the ship and was nearly lost, but contrived to get into Refuge Bay. Here the Maori chief, Naginoui, hospitably nursed and fed them in his house until the 29th, when the gale subsided and they got to the ship. De Surville ill-requited this humane treatment by ensnaring and imprisoning the Maori chief on board his ship, and burning the village to the ground, because he lost a boat which he supposed the Maories had stolen. Immediately after this treacherous and infamous transaction De Surville left New Zealand, carrying with him the poor chief, who died of a broken heart on March 24th, 1770, when the ship was off the island of Juan Fernandez, on her voyage to Peru. In the Abbé Rochon's narrative of this voyage, published in 1786, it is stated that De Surville, in a similar manner, ill-treated a New Guinea Chief, when off New Guinea. De Surville was an intrepid seaman, and a man of great ability and energy of character, but he was in an equal degree unscrupulous and unfeeling. His ship was victualled for three years, and after 12 months unsuccessful cruise for the Eldorado, the general ill-health of his crew caused him to put into Callao on April 5th, 1770. In his anxiety to obtain an audience of the Viceroy of Peru, he immediately put off in a small boat when the tide was unfavourable for landing, and he perished in the surf. After the gale had abated Cook, early in January, 1770, rounded the northern extremity of New Zealand and sailed southward along the coast seen by Tasman. On the 9th he saw a point of land N.N.E., which he called Albatross Point, and two leagues further north he discovered a remarkable mountain as high as Teneriffe Peak, which he called Mount Egmont. On the 15th the ship was steered into an inlet, where she was careened the following day, and plenty of wood and water were obtained. While the necessary repairs were being effected, the officers of the expedition made several explorations inland. On the 29th Cook landed and erected another pyramid of stones, in which he put some bullets, beads, a silver coin, &c., and placed part of an old pendant on the top. On Tuesday, the 30th, two posts were erected, inscribed with the ship's name, &c., and surmounted with union flags. One was erected at the watering-place, and the other on the island of Motuara, the natives promising not to destroy these memorials of the visit of the Endeavour. Cook then named the inlet Queen Charlotte's Sound, and took possession of the country in the name, and for the use of George the Third, the ceremony concluding in the navigators drinking a bottle of wine to Queen Charlotte's health. Toward night, on the 31st, a gale arose, and the next day increased to a storm, which moderated about midnight. On the 16th of February the Endeavour sailed out of the bay, which the crew called Cannibal Bay, from an abhorrence of the brutal custom of eating human flesh that prevailed there. Having passed through the passage called Cook's Straits, the voyagers on the 8th reached a point called Cape Palliser, when it was discovered that the land stretched away to the N.E. towards Cape Turnagain. Some of the officers started a notion that the North Island, which was called Eaheinomauwe, was not an island, and there being 12 or 15 leagues between Cape Turnagain and Cape Palliser unsurveyed, the land between these capes might reach away to the S.E. Cook, from the existence of the straits and other concurrent circumstances, believed it was an island, but to remove all doubt he steered to Cape Turnagain, off which he called the officers on deck, and they readily acknowledged that they were now satisfied that Eaheinomauwe was an island. Anyone who has recourse to Cook's charts will plainly see that the names Cook has fixed to the bays, capes, promontories, islands, rivers, and other places he discovered were either derived from certain characteristics or adventitious events, or were conferred in honour of his friends and naval acquaintances excepting in those cases where their original appelations were learned from the Maories. Noticing that a country of considerable extent extended south of the straits, Cook, on the 9th February, commenced to circumnavigate it. This country was the south island of New Zealand, called by the Maories Poenammoo, and during his voyage round it, he passed and denominated an island on which some Maories were looking at them "The Lookers On," on the 14th; also Banks Island on the 17th; Cape Saunders, in honour of Sir Charles Saunders, on the 25th; and some rocks which, from their situation, are so well adapted to catch unwary strangers, and on which the ship narrowly escaped shipwreck on March 9th, he called The Traps. Rounding South Cape, the southern extremity of New Zealand on the same day, the voyagers fell in with an island, which Cook called Solanders Island; Dusky Bay, Point Five Fingers, and Cape West were reached on the 13th; Cascade Point on the 16th, Rocks Point on the 23rd, and Cape Farewell on the same day. In a bay Cook called Admiralty Bay (lying between an island and Queen Charlotte's Sound) the ship anchored on the 28th, and remained there until the 31st. The N.W. point of this bay Cook called Cape Stephens, and the S.E. point Cape Jackson, after the two secretaries of the Admiralty Board. Cook had now circumnavigated the two islands of New Zealand, and during the circuit, which had taken six months, he made large additions to the knowledge of geography and navigation. His journals published by Dr. Hawkesworth, give most interesting details of his intercourse with the Maories, a general account of the situation, extent, climate, and productions of the country, and a truthful description of the habitations, dress, manners, customs, navigation, government, religion, weapons, and language of the Maories. The minute variety of entertaining information contained is these accounts is truly wonderful, and could only have been obtained by the assistance of Tupia, who was the interpreting medium. The aspect of the face of the country as seen by Cook from the sea was not very prepossessing, although the west coast presents scenery unsurpassed in the world. The vast plains of hay-coloured grasses, and brown fern; the swamps bearing the Phormium of commerce the New Zealand flax, and the farinaceous raupo, dense forests of trees (notably the gigantic scarlet flowering myrtle) and beautiful vegetation; the 100 miles of snow-capt Alpine ranges, towering 14,000 feet nigh, whose mountain-slopes to the Pacific are clothed with dense evergreen forests and numerous cascades; the stately cone of Mount Egmont, rising 10,000 feet in solitary grandeur, and the stupendous precipices of Milford Sound from undulating wooded plateaus have had their grandeur and beauty depicted by painter and poet. The general character of the country remains to-day as when Cook saw it, and one can hardly be surprised that he should suggest the establishment of a colony either on the banks of the Thames, or in the territory adjoining the Bay of Islands. He says, "In either place there would be the advantage of an excellent harbour; and by means of the river, settlements might be extended, and a communication established with the inland parts of the country; vessels might be built of the fine timber which abounds in these parts, at very little trouble and expense." Little has been added to the geographical information of New Zealand furnished by Cook's charts and journals, and Cook himself stated his conviction that the situation of few parts of the world have been better investigated and ascertained than New Zealand. M. Crozet, the eminent French navigator, who sailed along the west coast of the North Island, adds the following eulogium to Cook's merits. He says, "As soon as I got hold of the voyage of the English I compared with care the chart that I had drawn of the portion which we ran along of the coast of New Zealand, with that taken by Captain Cook and his officers. I found it to possess an exactness and minuteness which astonished me beyond all expression. I doubt whether our own coasts of France have been delineated with more precision." Before leaving New Zealand, and under date of March 30th, 1770, Cook says that upon the subject as to the route he should return home he took the opinion of his officers, and adds, "I had myself a strong desire to return by Cape Horn, because that would have enabled me finally to determine whether there is or is not a southern continent; but against this it was a sufficient objection that we must have kept in a high southern latitude in the very depth of winter, with a vessel which was not thought sufficient for the undertaking; and the same reason was urged against our proceeding directly for the Cape of Good Hope, with still more force, because no discovery of moment could be hoped for in that route; it was therefore resolved that we should return by the East Indies, and that with this view we should, upon leaving the coast, steer westward, till we should fall in with the east coast of New Holland, and then follow the direction of that coast, until we should arrive at its northern extremity, but if that should be found impracticable it was further resolved that we should endeavour to fall in with the land or islands said to have been discovered by Quiros." Although Captain Cook speakes definitely of Australia, he seems to have some doubt of its actual existence. He had a copy of Tasman's chart before him, but it only delineated small tracts of land such as the southern extremity of Tasmania, and the north-west coast of Australia, which Cook considered very doubtful discoveries. The Dutch and Portuguese were jealous of their discoveries, and suppressed them, hence the existence of the *Terra Australis Incognita* was an enigma which Captain Cook was determined to solve. It is marvellous how he disproved the assertions of Dalrymple that Quiros discovered Australia, and how erroneous were the hypothetical positions of the Great South Land delineated on most of the English, Portuguese and Dutch maps. Writing in March, 1770, just before quitting New Zealand, he says, "Thus far our navigation has certainly been unfavourable to the notion of a southern continent, for it has swept away at least three-fourths of the positions upon which it has been founded. The principal navigators, whose authority has been urged on this occasion, are Tasman, Juan Fernandez, Hermite, the commander of a Dutch squadron, Quiros, and Roggewein; and the track of the Endeavour has demonstrated that the land seen by these persons, and supposed to be part of a continent, is not so; it has also totally subverted the theoretical arguments which have been brought to prove that the existence of a southern continent is necessary to preserve an equilibrium between the two hemispheres; for upon this principle what we have already proved to be water, would render the southern hemisphere too light." At this time Cook's discoveries

had only extended to the northward of 40 deg. S. lat., therefore he could not give an opinion concerning what land might be further to the southward. This was a matter therefore which he set about examining, and, as hereafter recorded, it will be seen the honour was reserved to him to elucidate the mystery that shrouded the existence of the Terra Australis.

CAPTAIN COOK DISCOVERS NEW SOUTH WALES.—With misgivings as to the existence of a continent in the southern hemisphere north of lat. 40 deg. Cook takes a course westward earnestly hoping, if no continent could be found, to discover some new islands in the tropical regions of which Tupia gave him an account of about 130 and actually laid down in a chart the position of 74. The course of the Endeavour, after leaving New Zealand until Australia was sighted, is narrated by Cook in the following extract from Dr. Hawkesworth's voyages:—"Having sailed from Cape Farewell, which lies in lat. 40 deg. 33 min. S. long. 186 W., on Saturday, the 31st of March, 1770, we steered westward, with a fresh gale at N.N.E., and at noon on the 2nd of April, our latitude by observation was 40 deg., our longitude from Cape Farewell 2 deg. 31 min. W. In the morning of the 9th, being in lat. 38 deg. 39 min. S., we saw a tropic bird, which in so high a latitude is uncommon. On the 15th we saw an egg bird and a gannet, and as these are birds that never go far from the land, we continued to sound all night, but had no ground with 130 fathom. At noon on the 16th we were in lat. 39 deg. 45 min. S., long. 208 deg. W. About two o'clock the wind came to the W.S.W., upon which we tacked and stood to the N.W. Soon after a small land bird perched upon the rigging, but we had no ground with 120 fathom. At eight we wore and stood to the southward till 12 at night, and then wore and stood to the N.W. till four in the morning, when we again stood to the southward, having a fresh gale at W.S.W. with squalls and dark weather till nine, when the weather became clear, and there being little wind, we had an opportunity to take several observations of the sun and moon, the mean result of which gave 207 deg. 56 min. W. long. Our latitude at noon was 39 deg. 36 min. We had now a hard gale from the southward, and a great sea from the same quarter, which obliged us to run under our foresail and mizen all night, during which we sounded every two hours, but had no ground with 120 fathom. In the morning of the 18th, we saw two Port Egmont hens, and a pintado bird, which are certain signs of approaching land, and, indeed, by our reckoning, we could not be far from it, for our longitude was now one degree to the westward of the east side of Van Diemen's Land, according to the longitude laid down by Tasman, whom we could not suppose to have erred much in so short a run as from this land to New Zealand; and by our latitude we could not be above fifty or fifty-five leagues from the place whence he took his departure. All this day we had frequent squalls and a great swell. At one in the morning we brought to and sounded, but had no ground with 130 fathom; at six we saw land extending from N.E. to W., at the distance of five or six leagues, having eighty fathom water, with a fine sandy bottom. We continued standing westward, with the wind at S.S.W., till eight, when we made all the sail we could, and bore away along the shore N.E. for the easternmost land in sight, being at this time in lat. 37 deg. 58 sec. S., and long. 210 deg. 39 min. W. The southernmost point of land in sight, which bore from us W. ¼ S., I judged to lie in lat. 38 deg., long. 211 deg. 7 min, and gave it the name of Point Hicks, because Mr. Hicks, the first lieutenant, was the first who discovered it. To the southward of this point no land was to be seen, though it was very clear in that quarter, and by our longitude, compared with that of Tasman, not as it is laid down in the printed charts, but in the extracts from Tasman's journal, published by Rembrantse, the body of Van Dieman's Land ought to have borne due south; and, indeed, from the sudden falling of the sea after the wind abated, I had reason to think it did; yet as I did not see it, and as I found this coast trend N.E. and S.W., or rather more to the eastward, I cannot determine whether it joins to Van Diemen's Land or not."

LIEUT. HICKS FIRST SIGHTS EASTERN AUSTRALIA.— Lieutenant Hicks was the first Englishman to sight the eastern coast of Australia, and the first discoverer of the land embraced within the limits of Victoria. As time rolls on, the most trivial incidents connected with the discovery and foundation of an empire become objects of the deepest interest, and it does seem passing strange that all mention of Point Hicks is left off the Australian maps, although it is clearly depicted on Cook's charts. Lieutenant Hicks deserves some acknowledgment of his services in the cause of Australian discovery by having his name inscribed on the headland he discovered. Poor fellow, he died a martyr to his love of adventure and discovery. Cook says he was consumptive when he left England and may truly be said to have been dying during the whole voyage, though his decline was very gradual until near the close of the voyage. Consumption accelerated by a cold caught on the coast of Australia, and the unhealthy climate of Batavia, hastened his decease, which took place on May 21st, 1771, a few weeks before Cook's vessel anchored in the river Thames. According to Cook's charts, Point Hicks is indentical with Cape Everard in Gippsland, midway between Cape Howe and the mouth of the Snowy River. The latest computation of its latitude is 37 deg. 49 min, S., and the longitude 149 deg. 17 min. E., which materially differs from the position Cook "judged" Point Hicks to be in, the squally dark weather prevailing preventing Cook making accurate observations. Cook saw no land south of Point Hicks though Tasmania (which was supposed to be connected to Australia) appeared on Tasman's chart due south. However, from the appearance of the sea, Cook suspected its presence where Tasman had placed it and continued his course E.N.E., along the coast of Gippsland, so named after Sir George Gipps, and comprising one-fifth of the territory of Victoria. Gippsland north and east being rugged and mountainous, and to a great extent inaccessible from its stupendous precipices and glens, is in a great measure unavailable for agricultural and pastoral purposes, while its south and west portions contain fine tracts of grazing and tillable country. Its mineral resources are immense. Its flourishing towns, systematically worked gold fields, its colossal snow-capt mountains, its magnificent estuaries and lakes approachable at times from the sea, a belt or bar of sand only separating them therefrom, are the favourite resorts of tourists. When Cook passed along its coasts it was inhabited by intractable and miserable blacks, who were found less ferocious and treacherous than the Maories.

COOK'S PASSAGE FROM POINT HICKS TO BOTANY BAY.—Captain Cook did not land on Point Hicks, or even approach near the shore, but pursued his course to the northward. Under date April 19th, 1770, Cook (after sighting Point Hicks) says, "At noon we were in latitude 37° deg. 5 min., longitude 210 deg. 29 min. W. The extremes of the land extended from N.W. to E.N.E., and a remarkable point bore N. 20 E. at the distance of about four leagues. This point rises in a round hillock, very much resembling the Ram Head at the entrance of Plymouth South, and therefore I called it by the same name. The variation by an azimuth taken this morning, was 3 deg. 7 min, E.; and what we had now seen of the land appeared low and level; the sea shore was a white sand, but the country within was great and woody. About one o'clock we saw three water-spouts at once; two were between us and the shore, and the third at some distance, upon our larboard quarter; this phenomenon is so well known that it is not necessary to give a particular description of it here. At six o'clock in the evening we shortened sail, and brought to for the night, having fifty-six fathom water, and a fine sandy bottom. The northernmost land in sight then bore N. by E. ½ E., and a small island (Gabo Island now used as a light-house) lying close to a point on the main bore W., distant two leagues. This point, which I called Cape Howe, may be known by the trending of the coast, which is north on the one side and S.W. on the other, it may also be known by some round hills upon the main, just within it. (An imaginary line drawn from Cape Howe to the nearest source of the river Murray, and by the westerly course of that river separates New South Wales from Victoria.) We brought to for the night (Cook passed Twofold Bay during the night without seeing it), and at four in the morning (April 21st) made sail along the shore to the northward. At six the northernmost land in sight bore N.N.W., and we were about this time four leagues from the shore. At noon we were in latitude 36 deg. 51 min. S., longitude 209 deg. 53 min. W., and about three leagues distant from the shore. The weather being clear gave us a good view of the country, which has a very pleasing appearance; it is of a moderate height, diversified by hills and valleys, ridges and plains, interspersed with a few lawns of no great extent, but in general covered with wood; the ascent of the hills and ridges is gentle, and the summits are not high. We continued to sail along the shore to the northward, with a southerly wind, and in the afternoon we saw smoke in several places, by which we knew the country to be inhabited. At six in the evening we shortened sail, and sounded; we found 44 fathom water, with a clear sandy bottom, and stood on under an easy sail till twelve, when we brought to for the night, and had ninety fathom water. At four in the morning (April 21st) we made sail again, at the distance of about five leagues from the land, and at six we were abreast of a high mountain, lying near the shore, which, on account of its figure, I called Mount Dromedary (near Mount Townsend); under this mountain the shore forms a point, to which I gave the name of Point Dromedary, and over it there is a peaked hillock. At this time being in latitude 36 deg. 18 min. S., longitude 209 deg. 55 min. W., we found the variation to be 10 deg. 42 min. E. Between 10 and 11, Mr. Green and I took several observations of the sun and moon, the mean result of which gave 209 deg. 17 min. longitude W. By an observation made the day before, our longitude was 210 deg. 9 min. W., from which 20 deg. being substracted, there remained 209 deg. 49 min. The longitude of the ship this day at noon the mean of which with this day's observations gives 209 deg. 33 min., by which I fix the longitude of this coast, at noon our latitude was 35 deg. 49 min. S., Cape Dromedary bore S. 30 deg. W. at the distance of twelve leagues, and an open bay (marked Bateman's Bay on Cook's charts) in which were three or four small islands bore N.W. by W. at the distance of five or six leagues. This bay seemed to afford but little shelter from the sea winds, and yet it is the only place where there appeared a probability of finding anchorage upon the whole coast. We continued to steer along the shore N. by E. and N.N.E. at the distance or about


VICTORIA
BY J. BARTHOLOMEW, F.R.G.S.
English Miles
Kilometres
Railways thus
NEW SOUTH WALES
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
BASS STRAIT
MILLEWA
WEEAH WIMMERA
KARKAROOC
TATCHERA
GUNBOWER
LODDON DISTRICT
BENDIGO
RODNEY
MOIRA
MURRAY DISTRICT
BOGONG
BENAMBRA
DELATITE
AUSTIN
TAMBO
CROAJINGOLONG
WONANGATTA
DARGO
TANJIL
EVELYN
BOURKE
GRANT
HAMPDEN
GRENVILLE
VILLIERS
NORMANBY
DUNDAS
FOLLETT
RIPON
HEYTESBURY
POLWARTH
MORNINGTON
BULN BULN
ANGLESEY
DALHOUSIE
TALBOT
KARA-KARA
GLADSTONE
BORUNG
LOWAN
DISTRICT
Tattiara Country
Longitude East 146 from Greenwich
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three leagues, and saw smoke in many places near the beach. At five in the evening we were abreast of a point of land which rose in a perpendicular cliff, and which for that reason I called Point Upright. Our latitude was 35 deg. 35 min. S., when this point bore from us due W., distant about two leagues; in this situation we had about 31 fathom water with a sandy bottom. At six in the evening, the wind falling, we hauled off E.N.E., and at this time the northernmost land in sight bore N. by E. half E. At midnight, being in 70 fathom water, we brought to till four in the morning (Sunday, April 22nd), when we made sail in for the land; but at daybreak, found our situation nearly the same as it had been at five the evening before, by which it was apparent that we had been driven about three leagues to the southward by a tide or current, during the night. After this we steered along the shore N.N.E. with a gentle breeze at S.W., and were so near the land as to distinguish several of the natives upon the beach, who appeared to be of a black, or very dark colour. At noon, our latitude, by observation, was 35 deg. 27 min. S. and longitude 209 deg. 23 min. W., Cape Dromedary bore S. 28 W., distant 19 leagues, a remarkable, peaked hill, which resembled a square dove-house, with a dome at the top, and which for that reason I called the Pigeon House, bore N. 32 deg. 30 min. W., and a small low island (Brush Island) which lay close under the shore, bore N.W., distant about two or three leagues. When I first discovered this island, in the morning, I was in hopes, from its appearance, that I should have found shelter for the ship behind it; but when we came near it, it did not promise security even for the landing of a boat. I should however have attempted to send a boat on shore, if the wind had not veered in that direction, with a large hollow sea rolling in upon the land from the S.E., which indeed had been the case ever since we had been upon it. The coast still continued to be of a moderate height, forming alternately rocky points and sandy beaches; but within, between Mount Dromedary and the Pigeon House, we saw high mountains (the Australian Alps), which, except two, are covered with wood; these two lie inland behind the Pigeon House, and are remarkably flat at the top, with steep rocky cliffs all round them, as far as we could see. The trees, which almost everywhere clothe this country, appear to be large and lofty. This day the variation was found to be 9 deg. 50 min. E. and for the last two days the latitude, by observation, was 12 or 14 miles to the southward of the ship's account, which could have been the effect of nothing but a current setting in that direction. About four in the afternoon, being near five leagues from the land, we tacked and stood off S.E. and E., and the wind having veered in the night, from E. to N.E. and N., we tacked about four in the morning (April 23rd) and stood in, being then about nine or ten leagues from the shore. At eight the wind began to die away, and soon after it was calm. At noon our latitude, by observation, was 35 deg. 38 min., and our distance from the land about six leagues. Cape Dromedary bore S. 37, W. distant 17 leagues, and the Pigeon House N. 40 W.; in this situation we had 74 fathom water. In the afternoon we had variable light airs and calms, till six in the evening, when a breeze sprung up at N. by W.; at this time, being about four or five leagues from the shore, we had 70 fathom water. The Pigeon House bore N. 45 W., Mount Dromendary S. 30 W., and the northernmost land in sight N. 19 E. We stood to the N.E. till noon the next day (April 24th) with a gentle breeze at N.W., and then we tacked and stood westward. At this time our latitude by observation was 35 deg. 10 min. S., and longitude 208 deg. 51 min. W. A point of land which I had discovered on St. George's day, and which therefore I called Cape George, bore W. distant 19 miles, and the Pigeon House (the latitude and longitude of which I found to be 35 deg. 19 min. S. and 209 deg. 42 min. W.) S. 75 W. In the morning we found the variation by amplitude, to be 7 deg. 50 min. E., and by several azimuths 7 deg. 54 min. E. We had a fresh breeze at N.W. from noon till three; it then came to the west, when we tacked and stood to the northward. At five in the evening, being about five or six leagues from the shore, with the Pigeon House bearing W.S.W. distant about nine leagues, we had 86 fathom water; and at eight, having thunder and lightning, with heavy squalls, we brought to in 120 fathom. At three in the morning (April 25th) we made sail again to the southward, having the advantage of a fresh gale at S.W. At noon we were about three or four leagues from the shore, and in lat. 34 deg. 22 min. S. long. 208 deg. 36 min. W. In the course of this day's run from the preceding noon, which was 45 miles north-east, we saw smoke in several places near the beach. About twe leagues to the northward of Cape George, the shore seemed to form a bay (Jervis Bay), which promised shelter from the N.E. winds, but as the wind was with us, it was not in my power to look into it without beating up, which would have cost me more time than I was willing to spare. The north point of this bay, on account of its figure, I named Long Nose (now Point Perpendicular); its lat. is 35 deg. 6 min. and about eight leagues north of it there lies a point, which, from the colour of the land about it, I called Red Point (now called Black Point, between Kiama and Shoalhaven River); its latitude is 34 deg. 29 min., and long. 208 deg. 45 min.W. To the north-west of Red Point, and a little way inland, stands a round hill, the top of which looks like the crown of a hat. In the afternoon of this day we had a light breeze at N.N.W. till five in the evening, when it fell calm; at this time we were between three and four leagues from the shore, (Cook's chart depicts Lake Macquarie and five islands north of it) and had 48 fathom water; the variation by azimuth was 8 deg. 48 min. E., and the extremities of this land were from N.E. by N. to S.W. by S. Before it was dark we saw smoke in several places along the shore, and a fire two or three times afterwards. During the night we lay becalmed, driving in before the sea till one in the morning (April 26th), when we got a breeze from the land, with which we steered N.E. being then in 38 fathom. At noon it veered to N.E. by N., and we were then in lat. 34 deg. 10 min. S. long., 208 deg. 27 min. W.; the land was distant about five leagues, and extended from S. 37 W. to N. ¼ E. In this latitude there are some white cliffs (near Bulli) which rise perpendicularly from the sea to a considerable height. We stood off the shore till two o'clock, and then tacked and stood in till six, when we were within four or five miles of it, and at that distance had 50 fathom water. The extremities of the land bore from S. 28 W. to N. 25 deg. 30 E. We now tacked and stood off till twelve, then tacked and stood in again till four in the morning (April 27th), when we made a trip off till daylight, and during all this time we lost ground, owing to the variableness of the wind. We continued at the distance of between four and five miles from the shore till the afternoon, when we came within two miles (between Bulli and Wattamolle), and I then hoisted out the pinnace and the yawl to attempt a landing, but the pinnace proved to be so leaky that I was obliged to hoist her in again. At this time we saw several of the natives walking briskly along the shore, four of whom carried a small canoe upon their shoulders. We flattered ourselves that they were going to put her into the water, and come off to the ship, but finding ourselves disappointed, I determined to go on shore in the yawl, with as many as it would carry. I embarked, therefore, with only Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, Tupia, and four rowers; we pulled for that part of the shore where the Indians appeared, near which four small canoes were lying at the water's edge. The Indians sat down upon the rocks, and seemed to wait for our landing; but to our great regret, when we came within about a quarter of a mile, they ran away into the woods. We determined, however, to go ashore, and endeavour to procure an interview: but in this we were again disappointed, for we found so great a surf beating upon every part of the beach, that landing with our little boat was altogether impracticable. We were therefore obliged to be content with gazing at such objects as presented themselves from the water. The canoes, upon a near view, seemed very much to resemble those of the smaller sort at New Zealand. We observed, that among the trees on shore, which were not very large, there was no underwood; and could distinguish that many of them were of the palm kind, and some of them cabbage trees."

COOK ARRIVES IN BOTANY BAY.—Cook was not only prevented from landing on the beach near Wattamolle by the violence of the surf, but he saw by the wind suddenly falling calm that his vessel was in imminent danger of drifting on some rocks to the southward and becoming a wreck. He hastened on board, and thus recounts his narrow escape and discovery of Botany Bay:—"After many a wishful look we were obliged to return, with our curiosity rather excited than satisfied, and about five in the evening got on board the ship. About this time it fell calm, and our situation was by no meaus agreeable. We were now not more than a mile and a half from the shore (off Port Hacking) and within some breakers, which lay to the southward; but happily a light breeze came off the land and carried us out of danger. With this breeze we stood to the northward, and at day-break (Saturday, April 28th) we discovered a bay (Botany Bay), which seemed well sheltered from all winds, and into which, therefore, I determined to go with the ship. The pinnace being repaired, I sent her, with the master, to sound the entrance, while I kept turning up, having the wind right out. At noon, the mouth of the bay bore N.N.W., distant about a mile, and seeing a smoke on the shore, we directed our glasses to the spot, and soon discovered ten people, who, upon our nearer approach, left their fire, and retired to a little eminence, whence they could conveniently observe our motions. Soon after two canoes, each having two men on board, came to the shore just under the eminence, and the men joined the rest on the top of it. The pinnace, which had been sent ahead to sound, now approached the place, upon which all the Indians retired further up the hill, except one, who hid himself among some rocks near the landing place. As the pinnace proceeded along the shore, most of the people took the same route, and kept abreast of her at a distance; when she came back the master told us that in a cove a little within the harbour some of them had come down to the beach, and invited him to land by many signs and words of which he knew not the meaning; but that all of them were armed with long pikes (spears) and a wooden weapon shaped somewhat like a cimeter (boomerang). The Indians who had not followed the boat, seeing the ship approach, used many threatening gestures, and brandished their weapons; particularly two, who made a very singular appearance, for their faces seemed to have been dusted with a white powder, and

their bodies painted with broad streaks of the same color, which passing obliquely over their breasts and backs, looked not unlike the cross-belts worn by our soldiers; the same kind of streaks were also drawn round their legs and thighs like broad garters; each of these men held in his hand the weapon that had been described to us as like a cimeter (boomerang), which appeared to be about two feet and a half long, and they seemed to talk to each other with great earnestness. We continued to stand into the bay, and early in the afternoon anchored under the south shore (called Kundel by the blacks, and Point Sutherland by Cook), about two miles within the entrance, in six fathom water, the south point (Point Solander) bearing S.E., and the north point (Point Banks) east. As we came in we saw on both points of the bay a few huts (gunyahs) and several of the natives, men, women, and children. Under the south head (Kundel) we saw four small canoes with each one man on board, who were very busily employed in striking fish with a long pike or spear (mooting or callarr), they ventured almost into the surf, and were so intent upon what they were doing, that although the ship pased within a quarter of a mile of them, they scarcely turned their eyes towards her; possibly being deafened by the surf, and their attention wholly fixed upon their business or sport, they neither saw nor heard her go past them. The place where the ship had anchored was abreast of a small village, consisting of about six or eight houses (gunyahs); and while we were preparing to hoist out the long boat, we saw an old woman, followed by three children, come out of the wood; she was loaded with firewood, and each of the children had also its little burden: when she came to the houses (gunyahs) three more children, younger than the others, came out to meet her; she often looked at the ship, but expressed neither fear nor surprise: in a short time she kindled a fire and the four canoes came in from fishing. The men landed, and having hauled up their boats (noweys) began to dress their dinner, and to all appearance wholly unconcerned about us, though we were within half a mile of them. We thought it remarkable that all of the people we had yet seen, not one had the least appearance of clothing, the old woman herself being destitute of even a fig-leaf."

COOK LANDS IN BOTANY BAY.—The landing place of Captain Cook in the far-famed Botany Bay is the historic spot where the first Englishman landed on Australian soil, and where "the meteor flag of England" was first unfurled to the Australian breeze. Cook's landing was opposed by the natives, and throughout his stay in the bay (from April 28th to May 6th) they rejected every effort of the voyagers towards a friendly intercourse, the effects of the Englishmens' firearms intimidating and terrifying them. Unlike Tasman, who was afraid to meet the natives of Van Dieman's Land, Cook fearlessly made explorations inland, and exerted his utmost to engage the natives in a friendly intercourse, but without success. By these explorations Cook discovered a new world full of interest, rich treasures, and beauty, which one day will rival Great Britain and constitute "a new Britannia in another world." The landing place of the great circumnavigator forms part of the estate of the Hon. Thomas Holt, M.L.C., and Cook's account of his landing there is thus described in his journal:—"After dinner the boats were manned, and we set out from the ship, having Tupia of our party. We intended to land where we saw the people, and began to hope that as they had so little regarded the ship's coming into the bay, they would as little regard our coming on shore. In this, however, we were disappointed; for as soon as we approached the rocks two of the men came down upon them to dispute our landing, and the rest ran away. Each of the two champions was armed with a lance about 10 feet long (war spears called ghe-rub-bine), and a short stick (womerra) which he seemed to handle as if it was a machine to assist him in managing or throwing the lance. They called to us in a very loud tone, and in a harsh dissonant language, of which neither we nor Tupia understood a single word; they brandished their weapons, and seemed resolved to defend their coast to the uttermost, though they were but two, and we were forty. I could not but admire their courage, and being very unwilling that hostilities should commence with such inequality of force between us, I ordered the boat to lie upon her oars; we then parlied by signs for about a quarter of an hour, and to bespeak their good will, I threw them nails, beads and other trifles, which they took up, and seemed to be well pleased with. I then made signs that I wanted water, and, by all the means that I could devise, endeavoured to convince them that we would do them no harm. They now waved to us, and I was willing to interpret it as an invitation; but upon our putting the boat in, they came again to oppose us. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a man of middle age; as I had now no other resource, I fired a musket between them. Upon the report, the youngest dropped a bundle of lances upon the rock, but recollecting himself in an instant, he snatched them up again with great haste. A stone was then thrown at us, upon which I ordered a musket to be fired with small shot, which struck the eldest upon the legs, and he immediately ran to one of the houses, which was distant about 100 yards. I now hoped that our contest was over, and we immediately landed; but we had scarcely left the boat when he returned, and we then perceived that he had left the rock only to fetch a shield or target for his defence. As soon as he came up, he threw a lance at us, and his comrade another; they fell where we stood thickest, but happily hurt nobody. A third musket with small shot was then fired at them, upon which one of them threw another lance, and both immediately ran away; if we had pursued, we might probably have taken one of them; but Mr. Banks suggesting that the lances might be poisoned, I thought it not prudent to venture into the woods. We repaired immediately to the huts, in one of which we found the children, who had hidden themselves behind a shield and some bark; we peeped at them, but left them in their retreat, without their knowing that they had been discovered, and we threw into the house, when we went away, some beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth, and other presents, which we hoped would procure us the good-will of the inhabitants when they should return; but the lances which we found lying about we took away with us, to the number of about 50; they were from six to fifteen feet long, and all of them had four prongs (goongun) in the manner of a fish-gig, each of which was pointed with fish-bone, and very sharp; we observed that they were smeared with a viscous substance of a green colour, which favoured the opinion of their being poisoned, though we afterwards discovered that it was a mistake; they appeared, by the sea-weed that we found sticking to them, to have been used in striking fish. Upon examining the canoes that lay upon the beach, we found them to be the worst we had ever seen; they were between 12 and 14 feet long, and made of the bark of a tree in one piece, which was drawn together and tied up at each end, the middle being kept open by sticks, which were placed across them from gunwale to gunwale as thwarts. We then searched for fresh water, but found none, except in a small hole which had been dug in the sand. Having re-embarked in our boat, we deposited our lances on board the ship, and then went over to the north point of the bay (called Korriwal by the blacks, and now known as La Perouse), where we had seen several of the inhabitants when we were entering it, but which we now found totally deserted. Here, however, we found fresh water (in Frenchman's Bay), which trickled down from the top of the rocks, and stood in pools among the hollows at the bottom; but it was situated so as not to be procured for our use without difficulty. In the morning (Sunday, April 29th), therefore, I sent a party of men to that part of the shore where we first landed, with orders to dig holes in the sand where the water might gather; but going ashore myself with the gentlemen soon afterwards we found, upon a more diligent search, a small stream, more than sufficient for our purpose. (This "watering place" was near Point Sutherland.) Upon visiting the hut where we had seen the children, we were greatly mortified to find that the beads and ribbons which we had left there the night before had been moved from their places, and that not an Indian was to be seen. Having sent some empty water-casks on shore, and left a party of men to cut wood, I went myself in the pinnace to sound, and examine the bay; during my excursion I saw several of the natives, but they all fled at my approach. In one of the places where I landed I found several small fires, and fresh muscles broiling upon them; here also I found some of the largest oyster-shells I had ever seen. As soon as the wooders and waterers came on board to dinner, 10 or 12 of the natives came down to the place, and looked with great attention and curiosity at the casks, but did not touch them; they took away, however, the canoes which lay near the landing-place, and again disappeared. In the afternoon, when our people were again ashore, 16 or 18 Indians, all armed, came boldly within about 100 yards of them, and then stopped; two of them advanced somewhat nearer; and Mr. Hicks, who commanded the party on shore, with another, advanced to meet them, holding out presents to them as he approached, and expressing kindness and amity by every sign he could think of, but all without effect; for before he could get up with them they retired, and it would have answered no purpose to pursue. In the evening I went with Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander to a sandy cove on the north side of the bay (Frenchman's Bay), where, in three or four hauls with the seine, we took above 300 weight of fish, which was equally divided among the ship's company. The next morning (April 30th), before daybreak, the Indians came down to the houses that were abreast of the ship, and were heard frequently to shout very loud. As soon as it was light, they were seen walking along the beach; and soon after they retired to the woods, where, at the distance of about a mile from the shore, they kindled several fires. Our people went ashore as usual, and with them Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, who, in search of plants, repaired to the woods. Our men, who were employed in cutting grass, being the farthest removed from the main body of the people, a company of 14 or 15 Indians advanced towards them, having sticks (boomerangs) in their hands, which, according to the sergeant of the marines, shone like a musket. The grass cutters, upon seeing them approach, drew together, and repaired to the main body. The Indians being encouraged by this appearance of a flight, pursued them; they stopped, however, when they were within about a furlong of them, and after shouting several times went back into the woods. In the evening they came again in

the same manner, stopped at the same distance, shouted and retired. I followed them myself, alone and unarmed, for a considerable way along the shore, but I could not prevail upon them to stop. This day Mr. Green took the sun's meridian altitude a little within the south entrance of the bay, which gave the latitude 34 deg. S.; the variation of the needle was 11 deg. 3 min. E."

THE LANDING PLACE DESCRIBED.—As the foundation of the Australian empire arose from the representations of Cook and his scientific companions (their accounts of the salubrity of the climate, the beautiful vegetation, the richness of the soil and the magnificent scenery creating considerable interest in England) concerning their discovery of Botany Bay, which may be designated as one of the greatest events in the history of the world, it is somewhat unfortunate that there is a difference of opinion as to the precise spot where Cook landed upwards of a century ago. The land around still retains unmarred its natural beauty, and the stream of water, called "the watering place," from which Cook filled his casks, is still running. This "small stream," as Cook calls it, is also rendered memorable as the place where Governor Phillip (who arrived there with the first fleet 18 years after Cook) filled his water casks and caused the first land in Australia to be cleared. The circumstances under which the spot now consecrated as the landing place of the great circumnavigator was determined may be thus briefly summarised. Shortly after Dr. Henry Grattan Douglass arrived in Sydney in 1821 he induced a number of gentlemen to form themselves into an association for the purpose of collecting information as to the capabilities and resources of Australia. The association was somewhat pretentiously designated "The Philosophical Society of Australasia," and the following gentlemen were its officers and members:—President: Major General Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., F.R.S.,S., and E. and corresponding member of the French Institute. Treasurer and Secretary: Henry Grattan Douglass, M.D. Members: Alexander Berry, Esq., Barron Field, Esq., barrister-at-law, Frederick Goulburn, Esq., major in the army, Patrick Hill, Esq., surgeon R.N., William Howe, Esq., Captain Irvine 11th Bengal N.I., Captain King, R.N., John Oxley, Esq., lieutenant R.N., and Edward Wollstencroft, Esq. Sir Thomas Brisbane (who entered so enthusiastically into the objects of the society as to deliver essays on the colony, which were published in Barron Field's work on the colony) first suggested the desirability of ascertaining the exact spot where Cook landed, and directed enquiries to be made among the Botany Bay natives. After a discouraging search for nearly twelve months, a hoary-headed old black was found on the south shore of Botany Bay, who said he remembered Captain Cook (or the man with the "bang-alle" hat, as the members of the society understood him) and others leaving the great ship (murry-nowey) in a small boat (gnattang-nowey) and pull to the south shore (Kooriwall), where the captain (with the big hat) sprang ashore. This native at first displayed terror and confusion on being closely interrogated. as if he feared punishment for some action of his towards the whites during the landing of Cook. Dr. Douglass says, "That he was a reliable witness, could not be doubted, for his account when his fears, which were great, were dissipated, tallied exactly with Captain Cook's published account of the matter, and led to the supposition that he was one of those who threw the spear, and attempted to prevent the landing of the party." Sir Thomas Brisbane having caused a brazen tablet to be prepared with an engraved inscription thereon, proceeded on Wednesday, the 20th March, 1822, with the old white-haired blackfellow and the members of the society in boats from the north to the south side of Botany Bay. Among the guests were Captain Gambier and several officers of the man-o-war vessel Dauntless. After dining together in a natural arbour near the "watering place," the party repaired to the rock pointed out as the landing-place of Cook by the old native. On the wall of a remarkable rock convenient to the spot, and about 25 feet above the level of the sea, was soldered the brass tablet bearing the following inscription:—

"A.D. MDCCLXX.

"Under the auspices of British science, these shores were discovered by James Cook and Joseph Banks—the Columbus and Macænas of their time. This spot once saw them ardent in the pursuit of knowledge; now to their memory, this tablet is inscribed, in the first year of the Philosophical Society of Australasia. Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., F.R.S., S. and E. (corresponding member of the Institute of France) president.

"A.D. MDCCCXXI."

When the interesting ceremony was ended the company in solemn silence drank to the immortal fame of the illustrious men whose discoveries they were then met to commemorate. In April, 1863, a movement was set on foot for a demonstration to commemorate the landing of Captain Cook, in which it was expected Messrs. Alexander Berry and Dr. H. Douglass would take part and point out the precise spot that the native had shown the society as Cook's landing place. The demonstration took place on April 18th and was attended by a few ladies and nearly one hundred gentlemen. Among those present were the Hon (afterwards Sir) Charles Cooper (Colonial Secretary), Hon T. W. Smart, M.L.C. (Treasurer), Hon (afterwards Sir) J. B. Darvall, M.L.C.; Mr. Thomas Holt, M.L.A., Mr. Justice Wise; Mr. S. H. Terry, M.L.A., the Rev. Messrs. S. C. Kent, J. Milne and Dr. West; also Messrs. Spence (Mayor of Sydney), J. Fairfax, J. F. Josephson. M. E. Murnin, Richard Hill, E. S. Hill, E. Bell, F. Smith, E. Wrench, R. P. Richardson, A. H. Richardson, W. Jolly, G. Thornton, James Holt, T. S. Mort, J. Bird and J. Rae. The party proceeded by land to the Botany Waterworks pier and thence by steamer to the south side of the bay. Dr. Douglass here pointed out some rocks at the waterside adjacent to the bold rock on which the plate was erected as the spot where Cook landed, but the general opinion of the company was that although the rock was very convenient for affixing the tablet it was for various reasons very unlikely that Cook ever landed there. A little further up the beach, on the Hon Thomas Holt's property a place was pointed out as exactly corresponding to the description given by Cook in his diary; and what makes this supposition credible is that close by there was a remarkable fissure in the rocks, which formally afforded the natives facilities to easily reach the elevated land. On this interesting occasion Mr. Darvall, in asking the company to drink to the memory of Captain Cook, said it was a great day for England, and in the providence of God, for the happiness of mankind, when that intrepid navigator Captain Cook visited these shores. After the toast was drunk in silence Dr. Douglass gave a retrospective view of the marvellous prosperity of the country. The inscription on the tablet at the present day has not been obliterated by the effects of time, but it is somewhat overcast with branches of plants growing out of the fissures of the rock. An early Australian poet and Judge, in his "Geographical Memoirs of New South Wales," says there is in Australia "one and only one poor spot of classic ground—that on which Cook first landed." He describes Cook's landing in the following verse:—

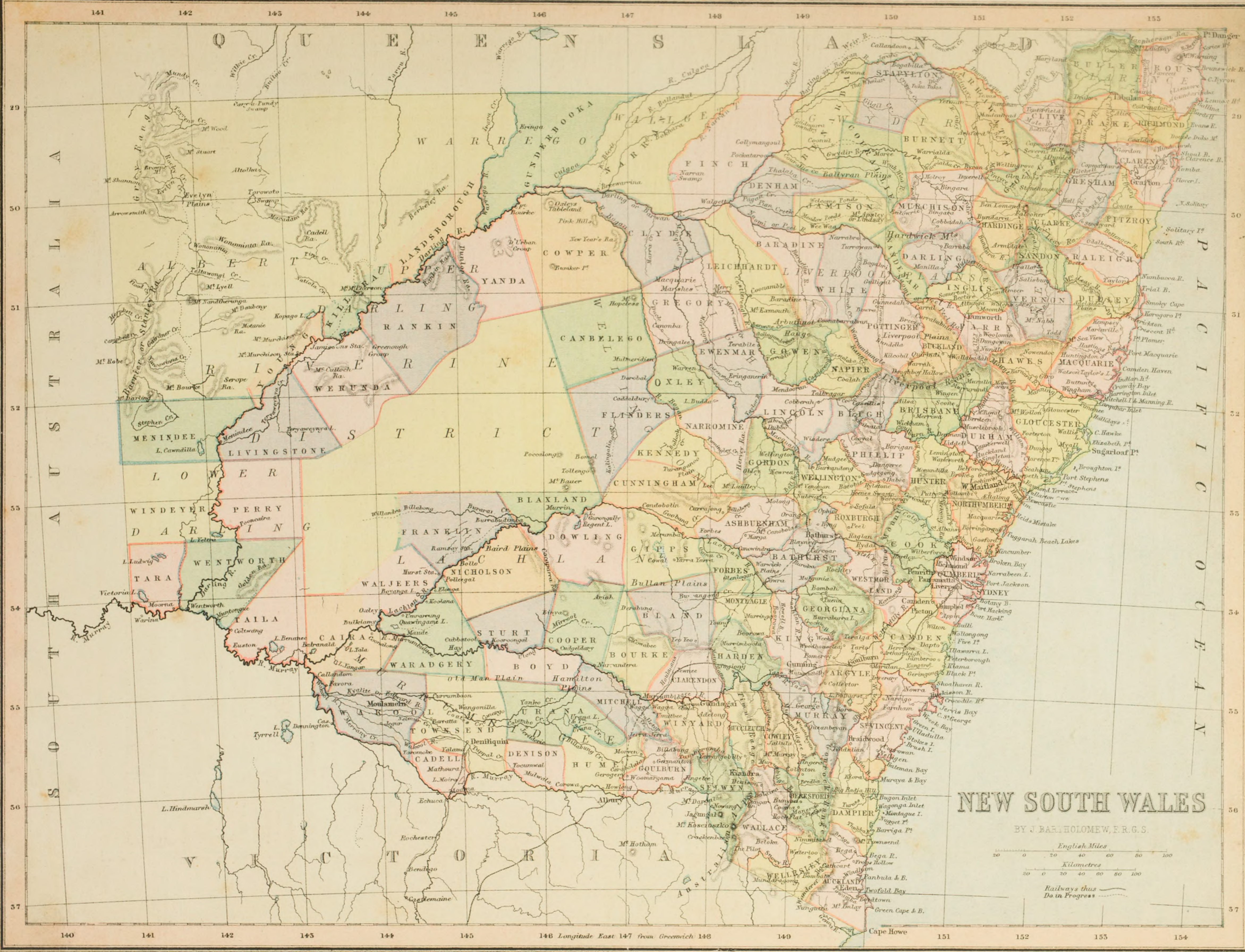
"This was the place
Where our Columbus of the South did land;
He saw the Indian village on that sand,
And on this rock first met the simple race
Of Austral Indians, who presumed to face
With lance and spear his musket. Close at hand
Is the stream from whence his venturous band
Refreshed their ship; and thence a little space
Lies Sutherland, their shipmate; for the sound
Of Christian burial better did proclaim
Possession than the flag of England's name.
These were the flowers illustrious Banks first found."

Whatever difference of opinion there might be as to the precise spot Cook landed on, there can be no dispute whatever as to the "watering place" which exists and flows in all its natural beauty at the present day. Cook tells us in his diary that during his stay in the bay he caused the English colours to be displayed on shore every day, and the ship's name and the date of the year to be inscribed on one of the trees near "the watering place." There is now no tree standing near the running stream, and it is probable that as Governor Phillip had caused the land about the "watering place" to be cleared while he went to examine Port Jackson, the memorable tree on which was affixed the plate was cut down by the convicts. The natives, like the Maories, who saw Cook's ship anchor in Botany Bay, first imagined that the vessel with its outspread sails was a large white bird; but when they saw the navigators rowing in boats on the bay, and walking and talking on the beach, they believed them to be warlike human beings from distant climes come to dispossess them of their territory. Since the day the two warriors made their puny but gallant resistance to Cook's landing the aboriginal races have gradually become extinct, and the inheritors of the adventurous white men are now dominant all over their territory. The shores of the bay are still in their primeval condition, although the scenery of the place is grand and imposing. Except here and there, and at seasons of the year when the bush flowers appear, the place presents an almost barren, scrubby, sandy, and marshy tract of country, leading one to believe it was called Botany Bay out of savage irony. The place has an inheritance which conjures up associations of a most unpleasant character, while in fact Port Jackson and not Botany Bay was the only receptacle of felons. Probably the reason why the historic spot is not well populated is because most colonists have a squeamish dislike to live at a place where their letters will be addressed "Botany Bay." But the once dreaded Botany Bay is fast becoming a popular place of residence and pleasure resort, and ere long will surpass any sea-side town in Australia. Its scenery is wild and grand, and into it and past the rugged cliffs that skirt its entrance the Pacific rolls with singular picturesqueness upon a semicircular beach of white sand nearly 10 miles long. The magnificent expanse of water forming the bay covers an area of twenty square miles. Gardens are fast usurping the places where wild flowers grew in thick abundance and magnificence. The delightful waterside retreats, La Perouse, Sandringham, Sans Souci, and the banks of the estuary George's River, are as full of exquisite landscape scenery as the romantic and beautiful retreats that surround Port Jackson and Middle Harbour.

MONUMENTS TO CAPTAIN COOK.—It is to be regretted that there was no commemoration of the centenary of the landing at Botany of Cook, the admired and truly glorious navigator, who on such an auspicious day deserved some expression of national admiration for

the incalculable services he had rendered Australia. On such a day a monument should have been raised to his memory, or some demonstration held to note a generous and grateful nation's remembrance of the eventful occasion. Cook found Australia a desolate waste inhabited by hostile savages, but since then it has proved a terrestrial paradise to thousands, and will continue to do so to millions yet unborn. Australia, like America and immortal Rome, rose from the refuse of mankind and, since it cast aside the stigma of its origin it has prospered beyond the most sanguine anticipations of its warmest admirers, its population on the centenary of Cook's landing being two millions with a likelihood of increasing to fifty millions at the next centenary. The country is now covered with flocks and herds, fertile grain fields, busy cities and hamlets, churches and schools, railways and telegraphs, and mines of mineral wealth that render the land the richest in the world. England rejoiced at the discoveries made by the illustrious Cook which produced the colonization of Australia, but for nearly a century Australians showed but a poor appreciation of his worth and labours. Some manifestation of a patriotic kind should have honoured the centenary of his landing, although neither "storied urn" or "animated bust" could add to his fame and glory. But no, the day passed without any public recognition of his wonderful genius, and, instead of being a red-letter day in the annals of Australia, was only honoured or remembered by some equine contests on the classic ground at Randwick in New South Wales. With much festivity the people of New South Wales annually commemorate the day when Governor Phillip (18 years after Cook discovered Botany Bay), with his fleet of miserable outcasts, landed in Port Jackson, and established the rule of the chain and the lash, which lasted nearly half a century; but "Cook's centenary," an event so full of unwonted interest in relation to the past, present, and future, was allowed to pass comparatively unnoticed. It is due to the people of Liverpool to say that they were the first to complete a monument to Captain Cook. This monument is constructed of freestone, bears a suitable inscription, as follows: "In memory of Captain Cook, R.N., the celebrated navigator and discoverer of New South Wales. Born at Marton, Yorkshire, 27th October, A.D. 1728; killed at Sandwich Islands, 14th February, 1779." This monument stands at the corner of Elizabeth and Castlereagh streets in that old township. Although there was no demonstration on the hundredth anniversary of Cook's landing, the event was duly commemorated some time afterwards by the Hon. Thomas Holt, M.L.C., who, during the year 1870, erected a monument or obelisk, consisting of a stone column, on a cube base and bearing two brass plates. One of the plates has the following inscription:—"Captain Cook landed here 28th April, A.D. 1770. This monument was erected by the Hon. Thomas Holt, M.L.C., A.D. 1870. Victoria Regina. The Earl of Belmore, Governor." The other contains the following extracts from Captain Cook's journal:—"28th April, A.D. 1770. We discovered a bay, and anchored under the south shore, about two miles within the entrance, in six fathoms water, the south point bearing S.E., and the north point E., lat. 34 deg. S., long. 208 deg. 37 min. W." The honour of erecting the first statue in Australia to the renowned navigator fell to the late Captain Watson (an old sailor, and after whom Watson's Bay was named), who from his limited means erected a fine statue, as an expression of his admiration of Cook's worth, in front of his castellated building at the corner of Avoca and High streets, called High Cross Randwick, its base being 220 feet above the level of the sea. The pedestal is 10 feet high and the figure of Captain Cook is in height over eight feet. Cook is represented in the dress of a post captain, with his left hand resting on the globe, which is partly covered with the Union Jack, while there is a telescope in his right hand. The captain is bareheaded, and the eyes are turned towards the spot on the southern shores of Botany Bay, where Cook landed. At the feet of the figure there is an anchor. The whole of the work is of Pyrmont freestone, and the sculptor was Mr. Walter McGill. The ceremony of unveiling the statue was performed on October 27th, 1874, by Commodore Goodenough, R.N., in the presence of nearly 1000 persons. Among those present were Sir Alfred Stephen, C.B., K.C.M.G.; Sir E. Deas-Thompson, C.B., K.C.M.G.; the Right Rev. Dr. Barker, Hon. T. W. Smart, Mr. R. B. Smith, M.L.A.; Captains Hixon, Burns, Broomfield, Edwards, Moody, Fox, Sidney, and Lieutenant Dawson, R.N. Captain Watson on his death bequeathed the statue to the Municipality of Randwick, on behalf of the colonists. Not only is the colony indebted to Captain Watson for this munificent gift, but as early as 1868 he and others took the initiatory steps in the matter of the costly and noble work of art erected on Hyde Park, as this colony's tribute to the noble-hearted navigator who laid the foundation of the Greater Britain in the southern hemisphere. It was not until the Australian Patriotic Association (of which Mr. R. B. Smith, M.P., was the president) took up Captain Watson's idea, and called a public meeting at the Victoria Theatre, that a committee was organised to collect subscriptions for the statue. By the strenuous efforts of this committee and Messrs. R. Driver, M.P.; E. Sadler, and G. H. Reid, £1777 was subscribed, and on March 27th, 1869, the foundation stone of the pedestal was laid by H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh, who on that memorable occasion, when replying to the address of the colonists presented by Sir Alfred Stephen, eloquently said, "One of the happiest privileges which the members of the Royal Family enjoy is that of being able to do honour to the memory of great men and of noble deeds, by their presence at such a ceremony as that which we are met to perform to-day. But when the man whose fame we desire to commemorate has, by a life of great discoveries and of scientific researches, increased so materially the territorial extent of the Empire, and has conferred so great benefits upon the whole civilised world by his valuable additions to geographical knowledge, and when by these noble actions he has shed a lustre upon the profession of which he belonged, and to which I am so proud to belong—I mean the maritime service of the greatest maritime nation of the world—then indeed I feel that a very high honour is conferred upon me in having my name associated with this memorial of his greatness. There is no one among the names of England's heroes more deserving of this recognition on your part, and none whose career could be held up as a brighter example to every Englishman than that of Captain Cook. Humble as his origin was, he possessed that true nobility of character which has for its object —not the agrandisement of self, but the welfare of the nation. He is among the chief of those who, in making Englishmen proud of their name and of their mother country, have helped to cement in one powerful brotherhood the subjects of the British Empire in every part of the world. In couclusion, I trust there are many among the sons of Australia who will emulate his example, and gild with noble deeds the name of this great country and the fame of England." Subsequent to this demonstration the column was erected. After a lapse of nine years, during which time the meaningless pedestal was a standing reproach to the patriotism of Australians, the committee interviewed Sir Henry Parkes, who was then Premier, and induced him to move Parliament to vote £2000 to complete the statue. This sum was subsequently supplemented by a further vote of £2000, making £4000 in all. Although Cook's name was a household word in Australia, and his nautical skill and genius commanded the profound admiration of Australians, the apathy on the part of the public for nearly 10 years, in subscribing towards the erection of the statue, can in no way be attributed to any want of energy or perseverance on the part of the committee, whose untiring efforts to raise a statue in imperishable bronze and granite, worthy of the immortal Cook, can be vouched for by the author of these pages, who attended most of the committee's meetings during his journalistic career, extending over a period of nine years. Although the business of the erection of the statue was finally carried out by the Government, the committee, comprising Captain Watson (the originator of the idea), Sir Alfred Stephen, C.B. (President), Mr. R. B. Smith, M.P. (Honorary Secretary), Hon. A. Campbell, M.L.C., Messrs. E. Fosberry, William Day, J. Davies, M.P., S. Bayliss, John Alger, D. O'Connor, F. Senior, James Barnett, Richard Hill, G. M. Pitt, and John Williamson, are deserving of nearly all the merit of such a colossal statue being erected. The statue, which is one of bronze, is the largest ever cut in England, measuring 13 feet 6 inches from the crown of the head to the feet, and nearly three feet more to the end of the uplifted arm. The sculptor (Mr. Thomas Woolner) has depicted Cook standing in an easy and imposing attitude, dressed in the old-fashioned garb of a Post-captain, with laced coat, large-pocketed waistcoat, tight knee-breeches, and large-buckled shoes. The great navigator has come on deck bareheaded, with a telescope in his right hand, and he has his right hand raised as if in the moment of joy at discovering the loom of the land (Point Hicks) in the distance. He has just made out the new continent, and is represented as exulting at his great discovery. The pedestal was erected at a cost of £1800, raised by public subscription, and the statue cost the Government £4000. The unveiling on Tuesday, February 25th, 1879, in the presence of 60,000 or 70,000 persons (40,000 taking part in a grand procession) was the most stupendous demonstration ever held in Australia. The then Governor, Sir Hercules Robinson, G.C.M.G., delivered an eloquent oration on Cook's life, voyages, and death. It is somewhat remarkable that the ceremony was witnessed from the parapet of the Museum by a native of New Guinea, the first who had, up to that date, ever set foot on the shores of New South Wales, while at the base of the statue stood three young Solomon Islanders, sons of the Kings of Cicila, Symbo, and Wanderer Bay, brought to Sydney in the ship Princess Louise. There were also present some Australian aborigines and "gentlemen of colour" from Africa and Asia.

First White Man Buried in Australia.—The first grave that was ever dug for a white man in Australia was near the small stream where Captain Cook filled his water-casks. This historic spot forms part of the Hon. Thomas Holt's estate at Botany Bay, but the exact position of the grave is unknown, otherwise Mr. Holt would have had the spot consecrated, and erect thereon a fitting monument. Cook tells us in his journal that "Early the next morning (Tuesday, May 1st, 1770), the body of Forby Sutherland, one of our seaman, who died the evening before, was buried near the watering place; and from this incident I called the south point of this bay Sunderland



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Point." It is strange that Cook gives no further mention of the cause of Sutherland's death, although he gives full details of all other deaths on board his vessel. This reticence or omission has in a great measure led many to believe an apparently unreliable account that Sutherland died from wounds received from the natives when taking from them an inscribed memorial copper or pewter plate left by Dutch navigators in Botany Bay before Cook's time. Sutherland was a native of The Orkneys.

APOCRYPHAL ACCOUNTS OF BOTANY BAY BEING DISCOVERED PRIOR TO COOK'S VISIT.—Doubts have been expressed in various historical works as to Cook's actual discovery of New South Wales, and it has been inferred that he was possessed of a chart of the whole coast of Australia before he left England. Efforts have been made to disprove these statements, but Cook's diary under the date of Monday, 3rd September, 1770, when he had passed through Torres Straits, and was off New Guinea, records that, "The Spaniards indeed, as well as the Dutch, seem to have circumnavigated all the islands in New Guinea, as almost every place that is distinguished in the chart has a name in both languages. The charts with which I compared such part of this coast as I visited are bound up with a French work, intituled 'Histoire des Navigationes aux Terres Australes,' which was published in 1756, and I found them tolerably exact; yet I know not by whom, nor when they were taken; and though New Holland and New Guinea are in them represented as two distinct countries, the very history in which they are bound up leaves it in doubt. I pretend however to no more merit in this part of the voyage, than to have established the fact beyond all controversy." Throughout Cook's journal he refers to Dampier's voyages and Tasman's charts. In the Harleian collection of charts in the British Museum there are two charts, one French without a date, and the other English, apparently a copy bearing date 1542, and a note to the effect that it was dedicated to the King of England. In both these charts is depicted as "Great Java," an extensive country south of the Moluccas, agreeing more with the position and extent of Australia than other land. It is a singular coincidence in geographical nomenclature that on the French chart the east coast of the land marked "Great Java," something like a Botany Bay, should be designated under the name of "Coste des Herbages." The Rev. J. E. T. Woods, in his history of Australian discovery and exploration, referring to these charts, says, "It is singular that one of these maps should contain French equivalents for three names given by Cook to the same places on the east coast. But it seems to be no more than a coincidence. Even supposing, however, that Cook had seen the maps and the names, one cannot see how the circumstance would in the least detract from his merit. He only professed to have explored the eastern part of the Australian coast; and in what he did these imperfect and rude charts could have been of no assistance to him whatever." Mr. R. H. Major, in his work, "Early Voyages to Terra Australis," published by the Hakluyt Society in 1859, quotes, in refutation of the surmise that Cook was not the discoverer of New South Wales, and that he borrowed the names and places on his chart from a chart of some other navigator, cites extracts from a work published by M. Metz, a Frenchman, in 1805, who states that the hydrographer, Dalrymple, endeavoured to do Cook an injury (as he was jealous of the discoveries of Cook, who was preferred to himself in the command of the expedition in the Endeavour) by trying to show that localities named by Cook were like places named by other navigators. The Rev. Mr. Woods, in his able work, publishes a reduced chart of Australia by Vancondy, from Callander's "Terra Australis Cognita; or a collection of voyages to the Australis Terra," which was published in London in 1763, which the writer is sorry to say is an unacknowledged translation of De Brosse's work. This chart, with but little discrepancy, depicts the west, north, and south part of Australia and Van Dieman's Land. On each side of Bass' Straits is a dotted line, and this line for about a thousand miles marks the east coast and then erroneously diverges northeast, apparently taking in De Quiros's discoveries marked "Terra du St. Esprit" and islands called "St. Philippe St. Jaques;" "Tucopea;" "Pt. de la Vera Cruz;" "Guaycatopo;" and the city "New Jerusalem or Jerusalem la neuve;" which places are now generally admitted constitute the New Hebrides. The contour of Australia, New Zealand, and New Guinea, are well depicted, and bear upwards of one hundred names on their coasts. However unjust the surmises may be that Cook, desirous of having the credit of discovering New South Wales, suppressed all mention of Sutherland's death, it is still indisputable that his diary speaks of his being in possession of charts similar, if not the same, as those above described, for they were extensively published in London before he left England. It is certainly true that he surveyed 2000 miles of the east coast of Australia which was previously unknown to European nations, except by imaginary chartographical lines in continuation of discoveries made before Cook's time. His discoveries and surveys surpassed every other navigator, setting at rest questions that for ages had divided the opinions of speculative geographers, and accomplishing as much in one voyage as the Spanish and Portuguese navigators had effected in two centuries. Hereafter the author will show that not half of his literary works and accounts of his voyages have been published, and he believes that when they are rescued from oblivion, Australian geography and history will be enlarged. The great problem of the day is "who were the discoverers of Australia." Cook certainly was one of its most famous discoverers, and recently Mr. Major, although according the priority of discovery in 1542 to one Guilleume de Testa, he believes that Manuel Godinho de Eredia, in the year 1601, was the first to make Australia known to Europeans. In an old chart of the world Australia is depicted and accompanied by a statement that Eredia discovered it in 1601. This supposed fact is rendered somewhat authentic by the discovery in the Burgundian Library at Brussels of the original report of Eredia, illustrated by original charts and drawings.

EXCURSION INTO THE COUNTRY.—Although the natives boldly confronted Cook and his companions in the contest at their landing in Botany Bay, and imperatively ordered them off their hunting grounds, it was soon observed that they (the natives) displayed great fear and timidity at the Europeans through witnessing the havoc and deadly effects of the firearms among the birds and animals that abounded near the shores of the bay. Though the natives watched with caution and suspicion the movements of the clothed strangers they refrained from hostilities, and even went so far as to daily fish in parties from 12 to 20 with the utmost stoical indifference in the neighbourhood of the ship, but whenever the boats came near them they would paddle away as if afraid to open up a friendly intercourse. Having little to fear from the natives Cook organised an exploration party and proceeded from the ship to the watering place and thence "up into the country." The locality he explored was probably a portion of the National Park, near Port Hacking, and in the direction of the road leading to the Illawarra district, justly designated the "Garden of Australia." Under date Tuesday, May 1st, 1770, Cook gives the following account of the expedition:—"This day we resolved to make an excursion into the country. Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, myself, and seven others, properly accoutred for the expedition, set out, and repaired first to the huts, near the watering place, whither some of the natives continued every day to resort; and though the little presents which we had left there before had not yet been taken away, we left others of somewhat more value, consisting of cloth, looking-glasses, combs, and beads, and then went up into the country. We found the soil either swamp or light sand, and the face of the country finely diversified by wood and lawn. The trees are tall, straight, and without underwood, standing at such a distance from each other that the whole country, at least where the swamps do not render it incapable of cultivation, might be cultivated without cutting down one of them; between the trees the ground is covered with grass, of which there is great abundance, growing in tufts about as big as can well be grasped in the hand, which stand very close to each other. We saw many houses (Go-nie huts), and places where they had slept upon the grass without any shelter; but we saw only one of the people, who, the moment he discovered us, ran away. At all these places we left presents, hoping that at length they might produce confidence and good-will. We had a transcient and imperfect view of a quadruped (probably a large fox-rat, native name wee-ree-am-by, or a hare-kangaroo, whose scientific name is lagorchestes, the fleetest jumper of the kangaroo tribe) about as big as a rabbit. Mr. Banks' grey-hound which was with us, got sight of it, and would probably have caught it, but the moment he set off he lamed himself against a stump which lay concealed in the long grass. We afterwards saw the dung of an animal (most likely a large grey kangaroo, called by the natives pal-a-go-rang), which fed upon the grass, and which we judged could not be less than a deer; and the footsteps of another, which was clawed like a dog (a native dog called by the natives a dingo and a woz-re-gal) and seemed to be about as big as a wolf. We also tracked a small animal (vulgarly called "native cat," but scientifically called dasgures) whose foot resembled that of a pole-cat or weasel. The trees over our heads abounded with birds of various kinds, among which were many of exquisite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos, which flew in flocks of several scores together. We found some wood which had been felled by the natives with a blunt instrument (a stone hatchet which the natives call a mo-go), and some that had been barked. The trees were not of many species; among others there was a large one (the eucalyptus resinfera, or red gum-tree) which yielded a gum (possessing a powerful astringent) not unlike the *sanguis draconis*, and in some of them steps had been cut at about three feet distance from each other, for the convenience of climbing them."

THREATENED HOSTILITIES WITH THE NATIVES.—While Cook and his companions were upon this excursion he did not meet with any natives on his journey, but the case was different with Lieutenant Gore and a midshipman who had been oystering near the entrance to George's River, and narrowly escaped a conflict with a body of 22 natives. Cook records the occurrence in these words:—"From this excursion we returned between three and four o'clock, and having dined on board, we went ashore again at the watering-place, where a party of men were filling casks. Mr. Gore, the

second lieutenant, had been sent out in the morning with a boat to dredge for oysters at the head of the bay; when he had performed this service he went ashore, and having taken a midshipman with him, and sent the boat away, set out to join the waterers by land. In his way he fell in with a body of two-and-twenty Indians, who followed him, and were often not more than twenty yards distant. When Mr. Gore perceived them so near, he stopped, and faced about, upon which they stopped also; and when he went on again, continued their pursuit. They did not, however, attack him, though they were all armed with lances, and he and the midshipman got in safety to the watering-place. The Indians, who had slackened their pursuit when they came in sight of the main body of our people, halted at about the distance of a quarter of a mile, where they stood still. Mr. Monkhouse and two or three of the waterers took it into their heads to march up to them; but seeing the Indians keep their ground till they came pretty near them, they were seized with a sudden fear very common to the rash and fool-hardy, and made a hasty retreat. This step, which insured the danger that it was taken to avoid, encouraged the Indians, and four of them running forward, discharged their lances at the fugitives with such force, that flying no less than forty yards, they went beyond them. As the Indians did not pursue, our people, recovering their spirits, stopped to collect the lances when they came up to the place where they lay; upon which the Indians, in their turn, began to retire. Just at this time I came up with Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and Tupia; and being desirous to convince the Indians that we were neither afraid of them, nor intended them any mischief, we advanced towards them, making signs of expostulation and entreaty; but they could not be persuaded to wait till we could come up. Mr. Gore told us that he had seen some of them up the bay, who had invited him by signs to come on shore, which he, certainly with great prudence, declined."

SECOND JOURNEY TOWARDS PORT HACKING.—Highly pleased with the result of their journey, Cook and his companions made another excursion inland, which is thus recounted in Cook's diary:—"The morning of the next day (May 2nd) was so rainy, that we were all glad to stay on board. In the afternoon, however, it cleared up, and we made another excursion along the sea-coast to the southward; we went ashore, and Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander gathered many plants; but besides these we saw nothing worthy of notice. At our first entering the woods, we met with three of the natives, who instantly ran away; more of them were seen by some of the people, but they all disappeared with great precipitation as soon as they found that they were discovered. By the boldness of these people at our first landing, and the terror that seized them at the sight of us afterwards, it appears that they were sufficiently intimidated by our fire-arms; not that we had any reason to think the people much hurt by the small shot which we were obliged to fire at them when they attacked us at our coming out of the boat; but they had probably seen the effects of them, from their lurking-places, upon the birds that we had shot. Tupia, who had now become a good marksman, frequently strayed from us to shoot parrots; and he had told us that while he was thus employed, he had once met with nine Indians, who, as soon as they perceived he saw them, ran from him in great confusion and terror."

COOK EXAMINES THE HEAD OF BOTANY BAY.—In order to obtain additional knowledge concerning the nature of the soil and its capabilities for cultivation, Cook, on May 3rd, determined to examine that part of the country at the head of the bay, between George's River and the village now called West Botany. Cook gives the following narrative of the day's proceedings. He says:—"The next day (May 3rd) twelve canoes, in each of which was a single Indian, came towards the Watering-place, and were within half a mile of it a considerable time: they were employed in striking fish, upon which, like others that we had seen before, they were so intent that they seemed to regard nothing else. It happened, however, that a party of our people were out a shooting near the place, and one of the men, whose curiosity might at length, perhaps, be aroused by the report of the fowling pieces, was observed by Mr. Banks to haul up his canoe upon the beach and go towards the shooting party. In something more than a quarter of an hour he returned, launched his canoe, and went off in her to his companions. This incident makes it probable that the natives acquired a knowledge of the destructive power of our firearms when we knew nothing of the matter: for this man was not seen by any of the party whose operations he had reconnoitred. While Mr. Banks was gathering plants near the watering place, I went with Dr. Solander and Mr. Monkhouse to the head of the bay, that I might examine that part of the country, and make further attempts to form some connection with the natives. On our way we met with eleven or twelve small canoes, with each a man in it, probably the same that were afterwards abreast of the shore, who all made into shoal water upon our approach. We met other Indians on shore the first time we landed, who instantly took to their canoes, and paddled away. We went up the country to some distance, and found the face of it nearly the same with that which has been described already; but the soil was much richer; for, instead of sand, I found a deep black mould, which I thought very fit for the production of grain of any kind. In the woods we found a tree which bore fruit that in colour and shape resembled a cherry: the juice had an agreeable tartness, though but little flavour. We found also interspersed some of the finest meadows in the world (places between Salt Pan Creek and Wolli Creek); some places, however, were rocky (especially about Rocky Point where Cook landed, as would appear by his chart of Botany Bay), but these were comparatively few; the stone is sandy and might be used with advantage for building. When we returned to the boat, we saw some smoke upon another part of the coast (Tom Uglys Point), and went thither in hopes of meeting with the people, but at our approach these also ran away. We found six small canoes, and six fires very near the beach, with some muscles roasting upon them, and a few oysters lying near; by this we judged that there had been one man in each canoe, who, having picked up some shell fish, had come ashore to eat it, and made his separate fire for that purpose. We tasted of their cheer, and left them in return some strings of beads, and other things which we thought would please them. At the foot of a tree in this place (the spot marked with a tree and a well on Cook's chart, is Tom Uglys Point about one mile round the point, the east side of Kangaroo Point being directly opposite), we found a small well of fresh water, supplied by a spring; and the day being now far spent, we returned to the ship. In the evening Mr. Banks made a little excursion with his gun, and found such a number of quails, resembling those in England, that he might have shot as many as he pleased, but his object was variety and not number."

CONDUCT OF THE NATIVES.—All attempts at a friendly intercourse between the Europeans and natives proved unsuccessful. The natives dreaded the presence of the whites and rejected their pacific intentions or expressions of kindness or amity. The following instances of their dread and treacherous conduct are narrated by Cook. He says, "The next morning (May 4th) as the wind would not permit me to sail, I sent out several parties into the country to try again whether some intercourse could not be established with the natives. A midshipman who belonged to one of these parties, having straggled a long way from his companions, met with a very old man and woman, and some little children; they were sitting under a tree by the waterside, and neither party saw the other till they were close together. The Indians showed signs of fear, but did not attempt to run away. The man happened to have nothing to give them but a parrot that he had shot; this he offered, but they refused to accept it, withdrawing themselves from his hands either through fear or aversion. His stay with them was but short, for he saw several canoes near the beach fishing, and being alone, he feared they might come ashore and attack them. He said that these people were very dark-coloured, but not black; that the man and woman appeared to be very old, both being gray-headed; that the hair of the man's head was bushy, and his beard long and rough; that the woman's hair was cropped short; and both of them were stark naked. Mr. Monkhouse, the surgeon, and one of the men, who were with another party near the watering place, also strayed from their companions, as they were coming out of a thicket, observed six Indians standing together, at the distance of about fifty yards. One of them pronounced a word very loud, which was supposed to be a signal, for a lance was immediately thrown at him out of the wood, which very narrowly missed him. When the Indians saw that the weapon had not taken effect, they ran away with the greatest precipitation; but on turning about the place whence the lance had been thrown, he saw a young Indian, whom he judged to be about nineteen or twenty years old, come down from a tree, and he also ran away with such speed as made it hopeless to follow him. Mr. Monkhouse was of opinion that he had been watched by these Indians in his passage through the thicket, and that the youth had been stationed in the tree to discharge the lance at him, upon a signal as he should come by; but however this may be, there could be no doubt but that he was the person who threw the lance."

COOK EXPLORES LAND BETWEEN COOK'S RIVER, BOTANY AND COOGEE.—It is not generally known that Cook explored the country which now forms the boroughs of West Botany, St. Peters, Botany, Waterloo and Randwick. His chart shows soundings of Cooks River, as far as the present Dam, and George's River, as far as Kangaroo Point, also a view of the country within a radius of 8 or 9 miles from the centre of the bay. The following is Cook's account of his excursion on the afternoon of Friday, May 4th, 1770, and shows how unfortunate Cook was in not extending his explorations a little further, and discovering the beautiful land-locked waters of Sydney Harbour. "In the afternoon I went myself with a party over to the north shore (between Banks' Meadows and La Perouse) and while some of our people were hauling the seine (near Frenchman's Bay), we made an excursion a few miles into the country, proceeding afterwards in the direction of the coast. We found this place without wood, and somewhat resembling our moors in England; the surface of the ground, however, was covered with a thin brush of plants, about as high as the knees. The hills near the coast are low, but others rise behind them, increasing by a gradual ascent to a considerable distance, with marshes and morasses (Bunnerong, Botany and Lachlan Water Reserve) between. When we returned to the boat, we found that our

people had caught with the seine a great number of small fish, which are well-known in the West Indies, and which our sailors call leather-jackets, because their skin is remarkably thick. I had sent the second lieutenant out in the yawl a striking, and when we got back to the ship we found that he also had been very successful. He had observed that the large sting-rays, of which there is great plenty in the bay, followed the flowing tide into very shallow water; he therefore took the opportunity of flood, and struck several in not more than two or three feet water: one of them weighed no less than two hundred and forty pounds after his entrails were taken out. The next morning (May 5th) as the wind continued northerly, I sent out the yawl again, and the people struck one still larger, for when his entrails were taken out he weighed three hundred and thirty-six pounds."

BOTANY BAY NAMED AND DESCRIBED BY COOK.—Captain Cook never suspected that Botany Bay with its healthful atmosphere, its picturesque rocks, aromatic shrubs and various floral forms would ever be destined to bear the importance it has in the annals of the world, otherwise he would have made a longer stay on its shores, and explored the inland country much more extensively than he had done, or equally as well as he explored and described the Endeavour River and other places he touched at on the Australian coast. The numerous rich and rare specimens in natural history, that the naturalists, Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander collected on its shores astonished English naturalists, the botany of Australia being entirely distinct from that of any other part of the world, there being an entire absence of fruit-bearing trees, while nearly all the mammals belong to the ancient marsupial type, being furnished with a pouch or indications of a morphological character, and the ornithology being characterised with an endemic genera of every low organisation, that is to say the birds instead of incubating their own eggs, simply deposit them in earth-mounds, where they are hatched by the heat generated from decaying vegetable matter. We are told that Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, the medical botanist, displayed such astonishing vigor and enthusiasm in their botanical researches around Botany Bay, making large collections of the fauna of Australia, that Captain Cook named the principal scene of their labors Botany Bay. Banks like Cook was a man of wonderful genius, and by his introduction of numerous Australian plants and animals into Britain attracted much attention to Australia as the land of anomalies as well as the naturalist's paradise. His name is linked with that of the history of Australia, for it was he who originated the plan of a colony at Botany Bay, and a New Holland genus of trees, Banksia, (which are to be found growing all over Australia) was named in compliment to him. For 30 years Banks was the centre of attraction for all naturalists. He took an active part in the management of Kew Gardens, where nearly every Australian plant and animal was to be found existing as if on their native soil. Many useful plants and fruits were introduced by his instrumentality into the British colonies, New South Wales receiving a large share during Governor Phillips' time. He encouraged voyages of discovery and afforded great assistance towards the publication of many valuable works on natural history. In 1781 he was created a baronet and on July 1st, 1795, he was invested with the order of the Bath and two years later he was made a member of the Privy Council. He was to have accompanied Captain Cook on his second voyage and had engaged on a grand scale draughtsmen, secretaries, servants and apparatus of all kinds, but he was thwarted in his scheme by the controller of the navy, and forced to give up his plans in disgust. However, he secured the appointment of Dr. John Reinhold Forster and his son as naturalists to the expedition. In 1772 he equipped a vessel at his own expense, and with Dr. Solander, Dr. Cind and Von Troil spent six weeks making botanical researches in Ireland. In 1778 he was elected President of the Royal Society and continued to discharge that office until the time of his death from gout, at his house in Soho Square, London, on 19th August, 1820, at the age of 77. He left no family. He bequeathed to the British Museum his valuable library, his foreign correspondence and herbarium under the care of the celebrated botanist Robert Brown. A catalogue of his library was published in 5 volumes in 8 mo. by Dr. Dryander and most of his manuscripts, books, &c., contain valuable historical references to Australia. Having dilated thus far on one who has proved himself one of Australia's greatest benefactors, and whose memory will be cherished by all lovers of science, the author subjoins Cook's account of naming Botany Bay on May 5th, 1770, and his general description of the place. "The great quantity of plants which Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander collected in this place induced me to give it the name of Botany Bay. It is situated in the latitude of 34 degrees S., longitude 208 degrees 37 minutes W. It is capacious, safe, and convenient, and may be known by the land on the sea-coast, which is nearly level, and of a moderate height; in general higher than it is father inland, with steep rocky cliffs next the sea, which have the appearance of a long island lying close under the shore. The harbour lies about the middle of this land, and in approaching it from the southward, is discovered before the ship comes abreast of it; but from the northward it is not discovered so soon; the entrance is a little more than a quarter of a mile broad, and lies in W.N.W. To sail into it, the southern shore should be kept on board till the ship is within a small bare island, (which is called Bare Island to this day) which lies close under the north shore; with this island the deepest water on that side is seven fathom, shallowing to five a good way up. At a considerable distance from the south shore there is a shoal reaching from the inner south point quite to the head of the harbour; but over towards the north and north-west shore there is a channel of twelve or fourteen feet at low water, for three or four leagues, up to a place where there is three or four fathom; but here I found very little fresh water. We anchored near the south shore, about a mile within the entrance, for the convenience of sailing with a southerly wind, and because I thought it the best situation for watering (the stream of water where Cook filled his casks and the land place marked on Cook's charts of Botany Bay); but I afterwards found a very fine stream on the north shore (near La Perouse) in the first sandy cove within the island, before which a ship might lie almost land-locked, and procure wood as well as water in great abundance. Wood, indeed, is everywhere plenty, but I only saw two kinds (the evergreen Eucalyptic and Acacias) which may be considered as timber. These trees are as large, or larger, than the English oak, and one of them has not a very different appearance; this is the same that yields the reddish gum like *sanguis draconis*, and the wood is heavy, hard, and dark-coloured, like lignum vitæ; and the other grows tall and straight, somethlng like the pine; and the wood of this, which has some resemblance to the live oak of America, is also hard and heavy. There are few shrubs, and several kinds of the palm; mangroves also grow in great plenty near the head of the bay. The country in general is level, low, and woody, as far as we could see. The woods, as I have before observed, abound with birds of exquisite beauty, particularly of the parrot kind; we found also crows here, exactly the same with those in England. About the head of the harbour, where there are large flats of sand and mud, there is great plenty of water-fowl, most of which were altogether unknown to us; one of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan, (the Australian pelican called by the natives Car-rang-a-boumur-ry, and scientifically called pelecanus conspicillatus) and in shape somewhat resembling a pelican. On these banks of sand and mud there are great quantities of oysters, muscles, cockles, and other shell-fish, which seem to be the principal subsistence of the inhabitants, who go into shoal water with their little canoes, and pick them out with their hands. We did not observe that they ate any of them raw, nor do they always go on shore to dress them, for they have frequently fires in their canoes for that purpose. They do not, however, subsist wholly upon this food, for they catch a variety of other fish, some of which they strike with gigs, and some they take with hook and line. All the inhabitants that we saw were stark naked; they did not appear to be numerous, nor to live in societies, but, like other animals, were scattered along the coasts and in the woods. Of their manner of life, however, we could know but little as we were never able to form the least connection with them; after the first contest at our landing, they would never come near enough to parley; nor did they touch a single article of all that we had left at their huts, and the places they frequented, on purpose for them to take away. During my stay in this harbour I caused the English colours to be displayed on shore every day (nine days) and the ships name and the date of the year, to be inscribed on one of the trees near the watering place. It is high water here at the full and change of the moon about 8 o'clock, and the tide rises and falls perpendicularly between 4 and 5 feet."

PORT JACKSON DISCOVERED AND DESCRIBED.—Captain Cook having sojourned nine days in Botany Bay, partially exploring the flowery country around it, and recruiting the health of his crew by a plentiful supply of fish, oysters, &c., the Endeavour evacuated the bay at daylight on Sunday, May 6th, 1770, and proceeded on the homeward route *via* Torres Straits. To the left was seen a high bluff range of coast mountains, extending southerly in the direction of Illawarra, famous for its richly varied forest vegetation and beautiful coast scenery. Westward beyond the numberless undulations of the wooded country, which rises into swelling hills of beautiful outline and moderate elevation, and towering behind the whole background of the scene Cook and his companions espied the Blue Mountains, with their grey felspar peaks rising above the monotonous billows of the table-land of endless forests and close brushwood, like islands in a rough sea. Rounding Cape Banks the voyagers admired the grandeur of the bold and extremely picturesque iron-bound coast, which presents a wall of steep, rugged, grey cliffs, broken at intervals by some inlets (Long, Coogee, and Bondi Bays), against which the Pacific hurls a tremendous surf even in its calmest moods. As the Endeavour slowly sailed along these light-coloured and lofty sandstone cliffs the voyagers saw a huge breach in the natural wall. The opening presented two bold precipitous headlands rising with singular abruptness to a height of three or four hundred feet from the level of the ocean. While glancing at the grim magnificence of these majestic barriers, the vessel gliding past the entrance reveals a middle headland inside the lofty headlands, reposing in an extensive harbour, the universally admired Port Jackson, which is scarcely equalled for beauty and capacity, and

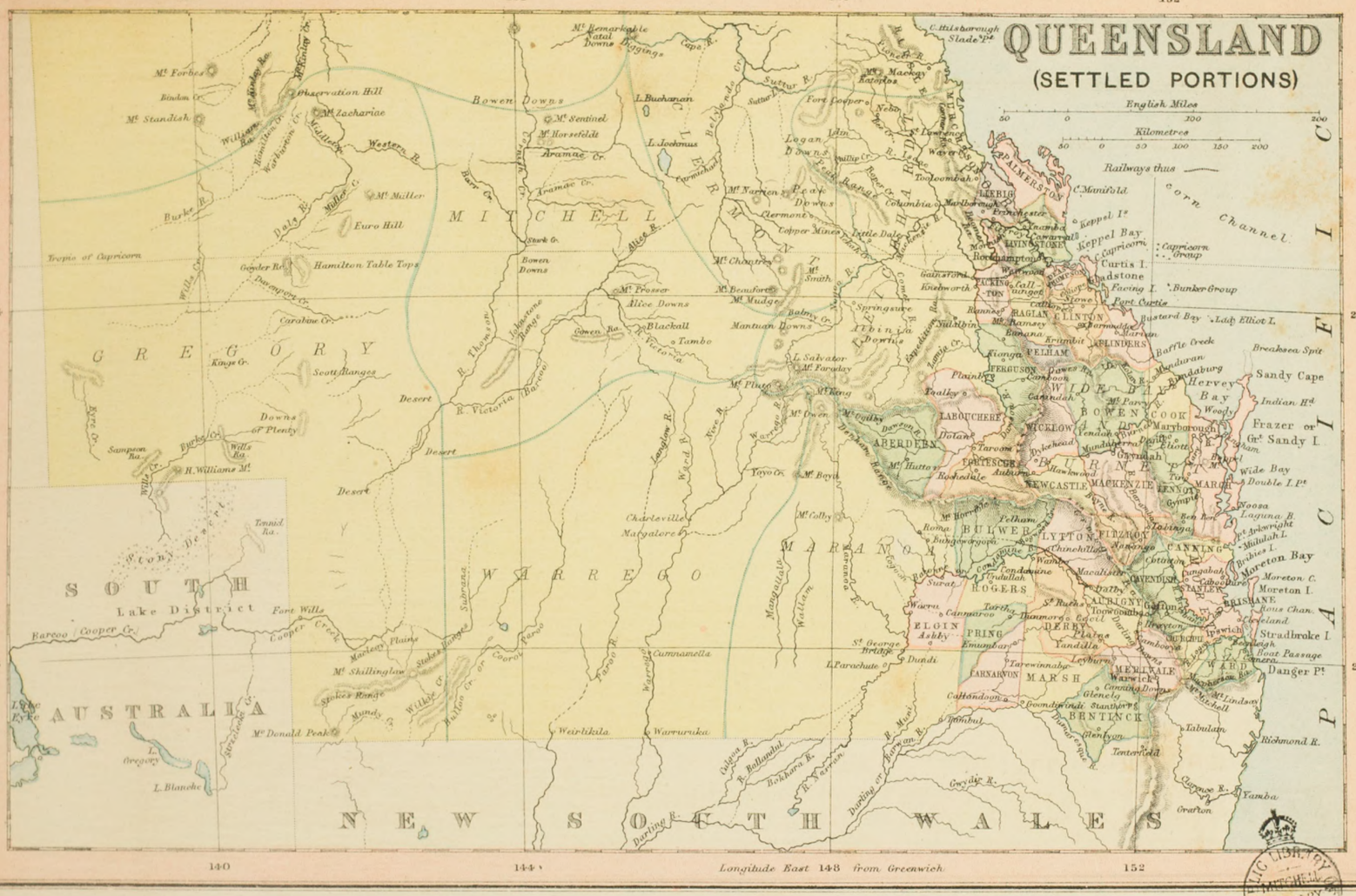
certainly not surpassed by any known harbour in the world,

"Where the mighty Pacific with soft-swelling waves,
A thousand bright regions eternally laves."

The discovery of this far-famed harbour Cook records in these words:—"At daybreak, on Sunday, 6th of May, 1770, we set sail from Botany Bay, with a light breeze at N.W., which, soon after coming to the southward, we steered along the shore N.N.E.; and at noon, our latitude, by observation, was 33 deg. 50 min. S. At this time we were between two and three miles distant from the land, and abreast of a bay or harbour, in which there appeared to be good anchorage, and which I called Port Jackson. This harbour lies three leagues to the northward of Botany Bay, the variation, by several aximuths, appeared to be 8 deg. E." Cook must have considered Port Jackson a capacious harbour, and not, as some writers have erroneously affirmed, "a boat harbour," for it is marked on his charts as an extensive bay almost land-locked. He places the North and South Heads which guard the entrance about two miles apart, and the bay within six or seven miles long, extending inland towards Botany, with a width of three or four miles. Viewed at a distance from the sea the North Head rises 300 feet high, and South Head under the light-house reaches an elevation of 350 feet, but the rocks dip towards the north to the inner entrance, where the elevation is only 80 or 90 feet. It is two and a quarter miles from Outer South Head to Outer North Head, one mile 256 yards from Inner South Head to Inner North Head, and 1100 yards from Inner South Head to Middle Head, which boldly faces the ocean, rising about 300 feet high, and out at sea makes the port appear as of comparatively small dimensions; therefore it is not at all surprising that Cook did not see its true magnitude, or consider it worthy of the same closer examination that he gave other bays he met with on the coast. For some distance the coast presents a line of unbroken sandstone cliffs, and not until the inlet is closely approached is the opening in the sea wall obsrvable; nor can the harbour's capacity and safety be conjectured until an entrance has been effected beyond the ocean swell. Even then its magnitude is not half seen, for it is only when one has proceeded some six miles in the south-west direction up this noble estuary that its rocky shores, indented with numerous bays (the points of land between them forming bold projections), are seen to advantage, and display shores of great promise and unequalled beauty. That Cook believed it to be an extensive harbour there cannot be the slightest doubt, for he gave it the appellation of a port, and named it after one of his warmest patrons and zealous friends. His omission to investigate the inlets of this excellent and natural seaport, which of themselves form capacious harbours, was one of those unaccountable oversights that occasionally happen to the most vigilant of navigators. In this respect his usual good fortune and sagacity failed him, for if he had seen the extent of this land-locked inland sea, fringed with innumerable coves, possessing excellent anchorage, well sheltered from the fury of ocean tempests, and the channel navigable for vessels of any burden, 15 miles from its entrance he would have pronounced it one of the safest havens in the world for the purposes of commerce and navigation. Its natural dock conveniences, centralisation as a port of shipment, its inland diversity of hill and dale, and of rock and woodland, would have induced him to have recommended it to the British Government as the most advantageous position whereon to found a colony in preference to his advocacy of Botany Bay; which, although a lake-like expanse of water of considerable extent, is useless as a shipping harbour, being exposed to the full swell of the Pacific, which rolls in tremendous seas, with easterly winds, and which, from its shallowness, vessels of a moderate draught have to anchor just within its entrance. The exploration of Port Jackson was reserved for Governor Phillip in 1788, who, finding that Botany Bay was deficient in fresh water, cultivable land, and a safe anchorage, and moreover was not suitable for the purposes designed, namely, a penal settlement, he explored the coast to the northward, and entering the strait between the lofty basaltic portals of Sydney Harbour, was agreably surprised to discover the safest and finest harbour in the world. In Sydney Cove, seven miles S.W. of the port's entrance, he laid the foundation of the "Queen City of the South," the future capital of a great nation, and the cradle in which have been nursed the Australian colonies, whose wonderful natural products and industrial enterprise will, to use the expressive language of the late W. C. Wentworth, "be speedily precipitated into a nation." Sydney, where all the civilisation of the antipodes has been given birth, will always remain the Metropolis of Australia. Nearly all histories of Australia have erroneously asserted that Cook named Port Jackson after the mast-headman of his ship, who first sighted the port, whereas the fact is that Cook called Port Jackson in New South Wales, and Cape Jackson in New Zealand, after his warm patron, Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Jackson, one of the secretaries of the Board of Admiralty. The following quotation from Cook's diary, under date Saturday, the 31st March, 1770, when Cook was quitting New Zealand for Australia, clearly proves the naming of Cape Jackson, New Zealand:—"The bay out of which we had just sailed I called Admiralty, giving the name of Cape Stephens to the north-west point, and Cape Jackson to the south-east, after the two gentlemen who at this time were secretaries to the Board." Mr. Jackson, soon after Cook's death, was appointed Judge Advocate of the fleet, and on being created a Baronet assumed the name of Duckett. On his tomb at Bishop-Stortford, England, there appears the following sentence:—"Captain Cook, of whom he was a zealous friend, and an early patron, named after him Cape Jackson, in New Zealand, and Port Jackson, in New South Wales." In further refutation of the statement that Sydney Harbour was named after the look-out of the Endeavour, there was not among Cook's companions or crew any person of the name of Jackson. No doubt historians committed the mistake by thinking that Cook, having named his first Australian landfall after Lieutenant Hicks, who first saw it, it was probable that Port Jackson was named after the mast-headman who sighted it. The noble harbour of Port Jackson, with its succession of picturesque bays and promontories lifting their vendure-clad rocky sides from deep water, separated by a navigable water-way (upwards of 15 miles in length, and varying from one to three miles wide), winding and branching in beautiful combination and variety, most strikingly resembles the shape of an oak-leaf. The alternation of lovely sandy-beached coves and recesses, and fine bluffs clothed with bush and wild flowers, form a vista of natural beauties in a harbour unequalled in the world. Sydney Harbour, including the oceanic channel of Parramatta River, has no less than 900 miles of coast line along its 150 bays and coves. The hundred fantastic irregularities of its shores, which sweep in gentle slopes down to the water's edge, are covered with a natural luxuriant growth of wood; graceful groves and gardens, interspersed with innumerable handsome white-stone villa residences, which lend artificial charms to a panorama of picturesque and beautiful landscapes of singular beauty. The blue and glorious expanse of smooth sea flows into numerous lovely coves, which would afford the safest anchorage for all the navies of the world, even if the vessels were of the heaviest burthen; its beautiful islands, without impeding navigation, add grandeur to the unsurpassed splendour of the port. The harbour of Port Jackson proper has an area of nine square miles; Middle Harbour, one of its arms, three square miles; and Parramatta River, one of its estuaries, extends inland 15 miles. The charming character of the scenery of Port Jackson is described by Mr. Anthony Trollope, who says:—"I despair of being able to convey to any reader my own idea of the beauty of Sydney Harbour. I have seen nothing equal to it in the way of land-locked scenery—nothing second to it. Dublin Bay, the Bay of Spezia, New York, and the Cove of Cork, are all picturesquely fine. Bantry Bay, with the nooks of sea running up to Glengariff, is very lovely. But they are not equal to Sydney, either in shape, in colour, or in variety. I have never seen Naples, or Rio Janeiro, or Lisbon; but, from descriptions and pictures, I am led to think that none of them can possess such a world of loveliness of water as lies within Sydney Heads. It is so inexpressibly lovely, that it makes a man ask himself whether it would not be worth his while to move his household goods to the eastern coast of Australia, in order that he might look at it as long as he can look at anything. The sea runs up in various bays or coves, indenting the land all round the city, so as to give a thousand different aspects to the water; and not of water, broad, unbroken, and unrelieved,—but of water always with jutting corners of land beyond it, and then again of water, and then again of land." The late W. C. Wentworth (in his poem on Australasia, which stood second to W. M. Praed's poem that gained the Chancellor's medal at Cambridge in 1822 among 27 competitors), in speaking of "the spacious harbour, with its hundred coves and fairy islets—seats of savage loves," gives the following pleasing picture—

"And thou, fair Port! whose triad sister coves
Peninsulate these walls; whose ancient groves
High towering southward rear their giant form
And break the fury of the polar storm;
Fairest of Ocean's daughters! who dost bend
Thy mournful steps to seek thy absent friend,
Whence she, coy wild rose, on her virgin couch
Fled loath from Parramatta's amorous touch!
Skirting thy watery path, lo! frequent stand
The cheerful villas 'midst their well cropped land;
Here lowing kine, there bounding coursers graze,
Here waves the corn, and there the woody maze;
Here the tall peach puts forth its pinky bloom,
And there the orange scatters its perfume,
While, as the merry boatmen row along,
The woods are quickened with their lusty song."

Another early colonial writer, Roger Therry, says, concerning its unsurpassed splendour:—"A distinguishing feature of this remarkably fine harbour is the variety of contrasted views which it presents. As, on a summer's eve, one stands upon the well-known heights overlooking Mr. Wentworth's villa of Vaucluse, shrubs and wild flowers of dazzling hue springing up beneath his feet, he beholds, as he looks seaward, the heavy swell of the huge billows of the Pacific outside the Heads; then, turning the eye towards Sydney, it rests upon the tranquil waters of the harbour within, smooth and motionless as a sheet of molten lead. Beyond, the spires of the city rise, and a distant



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glimpse of the Blue Mountains is caught. The whole scene is one that, to use a felicitous expression of Southey,

'Quite sends a summer feeling through the heart.'"

BROKEN BAY AND PORT STEPHENS DISCOVERED.—To the northward of Port Jackson the coast is composed of bold, lofty cliffs, with bluff headlands fringed by rocky ledges of horizontal strata of sandstone, occasionally broken by low beaches of sand, behind which are salt lagoons. On May 6th, 1770, Cook writes in his diary:—"At sunset the northernmost land in sight bore N. 26 E., and some broken land, that seemed to form a bay, bore N. 40 W., distant four leagues. This bay, which lies in latitude 33 deg. 42 min., I called Broken Bay." The name refers to its numerous sinuosities. This bay receives at its upper extremity the Hawkesbury River (which excels in beauty the Rhine and Mississippi), and the number of coves or branches into which it ramifies is more numerous than at Port Jackson. It was originally thought as a suitable location for the first settlement, before Sydney harbour was discovered by Governor Phillip, but it is not a safe roadstead, being exposed to the influence of easterly and north-west winds." Cook's diary proceeds to state:—"We steered along the shore N.N.E. all night, at the distance of about three leagues from the land, having from 32 to 36 fathom water, with a hard sandy bottom. Soon after sunrise, on the 7th, I took several azimuths, with four needles belonging to the azimuth compass, the mean result of which gave the variations 7-56 E. At noon our latitude, by observation, was 33-22 S.; we were about three leagues from the shore; the northernmost land in sight bore N. 19 E., and some land which projected in three bluff points (probably Bungaree Nora near Tuggerah), and which, for that reason, I called Cape Three Points, bore S.W., distant five leagues. Our longitude from Botany Bay was 19 min. E. In the afternoon we saw smoke in several places upon the shore, and in the evening found the variation to be 8 deg. 25 min. E. At this time we were between two and three miles from the shore in 28 fathom; and at noon the next day (May 8th) we had not advanced one step to the northward. (Cook's chart shows that his ship had tacked seven or eight times). We stood off shore, with the winds northerly, till twelve at night, and at the distance of about five leagues had 70 fathom; at the distance of six leagues we had 80 fathom, which is the extent of the soundings; for at the distance of 10 leagues we had no ground with 180 fathom. The wind continuing northerly till the morning of the 10th, we continued to stand in and off the shore, with very little change of situation in other respects, but a gale then springing up at S.W., we made the best of our way along the shore to the northward. At sunrise our latitude was 33 deg. 2 min. S., and the variation 8 E. At nine, in the forenoon, we passed a remarkable hill (Wattagoa, or Sugar Loaf), which stood a little way inland, and somewhat resembled the crown of a hat; and at noon our latitude, by observation, was 32 deg. 53 min. S., and our longitude 208 deg. W. We were about two leagues distant from the land, which extended from N. 41 E. to S. 41 W., and a small round rock or island (Nobbys, the entrance of Port Hunter and Newcastle Harbour, into which the River Hunter, which waters one of the most fertile districts in New South Wales, disembogues itself), which lay close under the land, bore S. 22 W., distant between three and four leagues. At four in the afternoon we passed, at the distance of about a mile, a low rocky point, which I called Point Stephens, on the north side of which is an inlet which I called Port Stephens (extends 15 miles, but the entrance is impeded by sand banks); this inlet appeared to me, from the masthead, to be sheltered from all winds. It lies in latitude 32 deg. 40 min., longitude 207 deg. 51 min., and at the entrance are three small islands, two of which are high; and on the main, near the shore, are some high round hills, which, at a distance, appear like islands. In passing this bay, at the distance of two or three miles from the shore, our soundings were from 33 to 27 fathom, from which I conjectured there must be a sufficient depth of water within it. At a little distance within land we saw smoke in several places; and at half-an-hour past five, the northernmost land in sight bore N. 36 E. (Cook's charts show a point called Black Head, identical with Sugar Loaf Point), and Point Stephens S.W., distant four leagues. Our soundings in the night were from 48 to 62 fathom, at the distance of between three and four leagues from the shore, which made in two hillocks. This point I called Cape Hawke; it lies in the latitude of 32 deg. 14 min. S., longitude 207 deg. 30 min. W.; and at four o'clock in the morning (May 11th) bore W., distant about eight miles; at the same time the northernmost land in sight bore N. 6 E., and appeared like an island. At noon this land bore N. 8 E., the northernmost land in sight N. 13 E. (close to the entrance of the Manning River and Crowdy Head, marked on Cook's chart), and Cape Hawke S. 37 W. Our latitude, by observation, was 32 deg. 2 min. S., which was 12 miles to the southward of that given by the log; so that probably we had a current setting that way; by the morning amplitude and azimuth, the variation was 9 deg. 10 min. E. During our run along the shore, in the afternoon, we saw smoke in several places, at a little distance from the beach, and one upon the top of a hill, which was the first we had seen upon elevated ground since our arrival upon the coast. At sunset we had 23 fathom, at the distance of a league and a-half from the shore; the northernmost land then bore N. 13 E., and three hills (behind Camden Haven), remarkably large and high, lying contiguous to each, and not far from the beach, N.N.W. As these hills bore some resemblance to each other we called them The Three Brothers. They lie in latitude 31 deg. 40 min., and may be seen 14 or 16 leagues. We steered N.E. by N. all night (passing Port Macquarie, into which the River Hastings disembogues, during the darkness), having from 27 to 67 fathom at the distance of between two and six leagues from the shore." On Sunday, May 13th, the voyagers saw a point of headland on which some fires produced a large quantity of smoke. Cook says:—"To this point I gave the name of Smoky Cape; it is of considerable height, and over the pitch of the point is a round hillock; within it are two others much higher and larger, and within them (Trial Bay) the land is low." At five a.m., on the 14th, the voyagers experienced squally weather, at eight thunder and rain for an hour followed by a gale from the southward. In the afternoon Cook passed and named the Solitary Isles. During the night, although having the advantage of the moon, the entrance to the Clarence River was passed unnoticed. At noon, on the 15th, a high point of land was sighted, which Cook named Cape Byron. At sunset breakers were suddenly discovered ahead, directly in the course of the ship, which was brought to for the night. Next morning Cook called a remarkably sharp peaked mountain, which lies inland from the coast where he first saw the breakers, Mount Warning, and the point off which the shoals lie Point Danger.

MORETON BAY DISCOVERED AND DESCRIBED.—Cook, as he proceeded from Point Danger northward, discovered an undulating and well-wooded country down to the sea-shore. The hills were craggy and precipitous, but the low lands had every appearance of fertility. Cook's discovery of Moreton Bay, the site of Brisbane, the capital city of Queensland, is thus recorded in his diary under date May 16th, 1770:—"At noon we were about two leagues from the land, and by observation, in latitude 26 deg. 47 min. S., which was 17 miles to the southward of the log; our longitude was 206 deg. 26 min. W. Mount Warning bore S. 26 W., distant 14 leagues, and the northernmost land in sight bore N. We pursued our course along the shore at the distance of about two leagues, in the direction of N. ¾ E. till between four and five in the afternoon, when we discovered breakers on our larboard bow. Our depth of water was 37 fathom, and at sunset the northernmost land bore N. by W., the breakers N.W. by W., distant four miles, and the northernmost land set at noon, which formed a point to which I gave the name of Point Look-out, W., distant five or six miles, in the latitude of 27 deg. 6 min. On the north side of this point the shore forms a wide open bay, which I called Moreton's Bay (after his patron the Earl of Moreton, president of the Royal Society), in the bottom of which the land is so low that I could but just see it from the top-mast head. The breakers lie between three and four miles from Point Look-out, and at this time we had a great sea from the southward, which broke upon them very high. We stood on N.N.E. till eight o'clock, when, having passed the breakers and deepened our water to fifty-two fathoms, we brought to till midnight, when we made sail again to the N.N.E. At four in the morning (May 17th) we had 135 fathom, and when the day broke I perceived that, during the night, I had got much further northward and from the shore than I had expected from the course we steered, for we were distant at least seven leagues; I therefore hauled in N.W. by W. with a fresh gale at S.S.W. The land that was furthest to the north the night before now bore S.S.W., distant six leagues, and I gave it the name of Cape Moreton, it being the north point of Moreton's Bay; its latitude is 26 deg. 56 min., and its longitude is 206 deg. 28 min. From Cape Moreton the land trends away west further than can be seen, for there is a small space where at this time no land is visible, and some on board have also observed that the sea looked paler than usual, were of opinion that the bottom of Moreton Bay opened into a river (the Brisbane River). We had here 34 fathom water, and a fine sandy bottom; this alone would have produced the change that had been observed in the colour of the water; and it was by no means necessary to account for the land at the bottom of the bay not being visible, for supposing the land there to be as low as we knew it to be in a hundred other parts of the coast, it would have been impossible to see it from the station of the ship; however, if any future navigator should be disposed to determine the question whether there is or is not a river in this place, which the wind would not permit us to do, the situation may always be found by three hills which lie to the northward of it, in the latitude of 26 deg. 53 min. These hills lie but a little way inland, and not far from each other; they are remarkable for the singular form of their elevation, which very much resembles a glass house, and for which reason I called them the Glass Houses; the northernmost of the three is the highest and largest; there are also several other peaked hills inland, to the northward of these, but they are not nearly so remarkable. Moreton Bay is a considerable sheet of water, sheltered from the Pacific by Stradbroke and Moreton Islands. It is 45 miles from north to south, and about 20 miles in width. The bay is unfortunately encumbered with shoals and sandbanks, which materially

damage its value as an anchorage. The islands named are composed of sand, supporting thick forests of a kind of cypress, which make good furniture. Where the seaboard is muddy dense lines of mangroves stand out into the water. The first to anchor in the bay after Cook was Captain Flinders in July, 1799, in the crazy sloop Norfolk, of 24 tons, but the limited time at his disposal prevented anything like an examination of its shores. In 1802 Flinders, after examining Moreton Bay, discovered Port Curtis. Into the west side of Moreton Bay falls two of the largest seaboard rivers of Queensland, the Brisbane, on whose fertile banks is the City of Brisbane, the central seat of the Government of the colony, and the Cogan, on whose beauteous banks the town of Ipswich is founded.

Discovery and Description of the River Brisbane.—Cook and Flinders failed to discover any of the six rivers that disembogue into Moreton Bay. The merit of discovering the Brisbane River is bestowed on Lieutenant John Oxley, who was born in England in 1781, and on January 1st 1812, was appointed Surveyor-General of New South Wales, which then included Victoria and Queensland. After discovering the Lachlan in 1817, the Macquarie and Castlereagh in 1818, and the Liverpool Plains and ranges to the northward, he, on October 23rd, 1823, left Sydney with Lieutenant Stirling and Mr. John Uniacke in the Mermaid to search for a spot to form a penal establishment at Moreton Bay. Having surveyed Port Curtis on November 6th, and discovered the Boyne River November 10th, the expedition anchored in Moreton Bay on November 29th. While exploring the country Oxley rescued from the blacks three convict sawyers named respectively, Thomas Pamphlet, — Parsons, and — Finnegan. These unfortunate men, with one Thomas Thompson, left Sydney on March 21st, 1823, in a coasting boat for Illawarra, for a cargo of timber, and were driven to sea by a terrible storm. When they were a fortnight on the ocean Thompson died from thirst. On the 14th of April Pamphlet, Parsons, and Finnegan reached land near Moreton Bay, which they believed was south instead of north of Port Jackson. Travelling northerly (as they thought towards Sydney) they reached the Brisbane River, and there lived five months with the blacks. Pamphlet told Oxley of the existence of a fine river flowing into Moreton Bay, and Oxley, on December 2nd, explored the river pointed out, and named it the Brisbane, after Sir Thomas Brisbane, then Governor of New South Wales. In his journal, Oxley says, "At sunset we had proceeded about 20 miles up the river; the scenery was peculiarly beautiful; the country along the banks alternately hilly and level, but not flooded; the soil of the finest description of brushwood land, on which grew timber of great magnitude; in particular a magnificent species of pine was in abundance. At this point the river was navigable for vessels drawing 16 feet water, and for 30 miles further, no diminution had taken place in the breadth or depth of the river, excepting in one place, for the extent of about 30 yards, where a ridge of detached rocks extended across, having not more than 12 feet on them. The tide ascends daily 50 miles above the Brisbane's mouth, flowing also up the Bremer, the depth of whose channel it augments by eight or more feet." In February Oxley reported favourably of the place, and on September 12th, 1824, Lieutenant Miller, of the 40th regiment, was appointed superintendent of the new convict settlement ordered to be formed at Redcliff Point. The first batch of colonists (convicts of the most desperate and incorrigible character) were landed at Eagle Hawk, near the present site of Brisbane, under the idea that the spot gave little chance for any of them to escape to Sydney. The settlement was soon extended to a place called by the natives Meganchan, which was visited by Sir Thomas Brisbane, and called Brisbane in honour of his visit on November 10th, 1825, when Captain Bishop was commandant. By proclamation on August 15th, 1826, the district of Moreton Bay was appointed a place of transportation for the worst of offenders. In 1827. Governor Darling visited the district. During the sixteen years of the convict settlement there were eight commandants (Captain Miller, 1824; Captain Bishop, 1824 to 1825; Captain Logan, 1825 to 1830; Captain Clunie, 1830 to 1835; Captain Fyans, 1835 to 1837; Major Cotton, 1837 to 1839; Lieutenant Gravett, May, 1839 to July the same year, and Lieutenant Gorman, 1839 to 1840); who exercised unlimited power over the convicts, who at times were very turbulent. Captain Logan, who ruled from 1825 to 1830, was charged with being excessively tyrannical with the lash, and was murdered on November 16th, 1830, by the natives (it is supposed at the instigation of the convicts) while on a botanical expedition at the Limestones, now called Ipswich. His remains were brought to Sydney, and with military honours, were interred on Garden Island in Judge Bent's tomb. In 1825 Mr. Allen Cunningham, the Sydney botanist, continued Oxley's work of exploration west of Moreton Bay (in pursuance of a request made by Oxley on his dying bed), and in April, 1827, came upon the Garden of Australia, the renowned Darling Downs. On May 21st, 1839, the convict era came to a close by the breaking up of the settlement, which was proclaimed a free settlement, and thenceforward the colony marched on its rapid career of progress. The episcopal city of Brisbane is situated on the Brisbane River, which surrounds it on two sides about 25 miles from its debouchment into the bay. Although the metropolis lacks the snow-capped mountainous background of Hobart Town, or the noble harbour of Sydney, it occupies a fine hilly site, commanding an unsurpassed view of the surrounding country extending 160 miles N. to S., and 100 from E. to W. On the south is seen Mount Lindsay and the M'Pherson range at right angles to the coast, on the north is the Kilcoy and other ranges, on the west the blue peaks of the Main Range, serrated by the gaps of the Koreelah and other passes, and on the east the ocean view, shut in by cypress pine hills, and sandy cliffs. The city is built on a promontory of land formed by a bend in the river, which is about 1000 feet wide. There are many public buildings and beautiful villas commanding extensive and picturesque views of mountains, sea, river, garden, farms, and forest in every shade of sharp outline and pleasing tint under a tropical sky.

Cook's Run from Moreton Bay to Hervey's Bay.—Continuing his course from Moreton Bay, past the Glass Houses (mountains of trachyte or metamorphic slate which have puzzled geologists, so named from their resemblance to glass agricultural frames), Cook sights a low bluff point, which forms the south head of a sandy shore. As the point looked like two small islands lying under the land, Cook named it Double Island Point, and where "the land trends to the N.W. and forms a large open bay," Cook's chart bears the name of Wide Bay. He says, "This part of the coast, which is of moderate height, is more barren than any we have seen," and "the woods appeared to be low and scrubby, and we saw no sign of inhabitants. Two water snakes swam by the ship; they were beautifully spotted, and in every respect like land snakes, except that their tails were broad and flat, probably to serve them instead of fins in swimming." At one o'clock, on the 19th, Cook says "we passed a black bluff head or point of land, upon which a great number of natives were assembled and which, therefore, I called Indian Head." Near the head the voyagers saw more natives and fires by night on the neighbouring shores. At daybreak on Sunday, May 20th, they saw that the land ended in a cape with a reef running out to the northward as far as they could see. The point Cook named Sandy Cape, from two large patches of white sand which lay upon it. The boat was sent ahead of the ship to sound, and then the ship passed over the tail of the shoal in six fathom. Cook says, "this shoal I called the Break Sea Spit, because we had now smooth water, and to the southward of it we had always a high sea from the S.E." This spit is a reef of broken coral and sand, extending 20 miles off the land, which Cook thought was a promontory, but which actually was an island now called Frazers, or Great Sandy Island. Cook's Indian Head is the easternmost cape of Australia, and, within the point called Sandy Cape and the mainland, there is a considerable opening, which Cook called Hervey's Bay in honour of Captain Hervey. This bay has good anchorage, but what Cook thought was a "lagoon river or inlet" was a strait between Fraser Island and the mainland.

Cook's Second Landing on Australia.—Cook found the country for many miles northward of Hervey's Bay very low and barren near the sea coast, while inland great mountains, thickly clothed with wood, were visible, forming irregular chains which have no general direction. Steering N.N.W., as the land lay, into the tropical regions, he found the land covered with palm-nut trees, which he had not seen from the time of his leaving the islands within the tropics. In the evening, about 8 p.m., of May 22nd, he anchored in a large open bay which he called Bustard Bay. The next day Cook, Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and other gentlemen, with Tupia, landed for the second time on Australia and examined the country. They entered a channel leading into a large lagoon where they found the West Indian mangrove growing, the first of the kind they had met with. On the branches were many nests of ants as green as grass, and on the leaves hairy green caterpillars ranged in rows. Among the shoals and sandbanks many pelicans were seen. Cook says:—"Upon the shore we saw a species of bustard, one of which we shot; it was as large as a turkey, and weighed 17 pounds and a half. We all agreed that this was the best bird we had eaten since we left England, and in honour of it we called this inlet Bustard Bay. The sea seemed to abound with fish, but, unhappily, we tore our seine all to pieces at the first haul; upon the mud banks under the mangroves we found innumerable oysters of various kinds; among others the hammer oyster, and a large proportion of small pearl oysters; if in deeper water there is equal plenty of such oysters at their full growth, a pearl fishery might certainly be established here to very great advantage." Cook's party saw no natives, but those on board the ship saw 20 natives on shore abreast of the ship. At four a.m., on May 24th, the Endeavour sailed out of the bay. At night-time the voyagers passed a bay now called Port Curtis, and at nine a.m., the next morning (May 25th), they were abreast of a point of land resembling the hump of a dromedary which forms Curtis Island, which Cook found lay immediately under the tropic of Capricorn; and for that reason he called it Cape Capricorn. There was a large sheet of water (Kepple Bay) on the west side of the cape, and on the two spits that formed its entrance, he saw an incredible number of pelicans. On the 26th, the voyagers passed between several small

islands (Keppel Islands) and the mainland. The mainland was high and mountainous, and the islands, although high, had more the appearance of barrenness than fertility. Cook says:—"At this time we saw smoke in many places at a considerable distance inland, and therefore conjectured that there might be a lagoon river or inlet (the Fitzroy River on which Rockhampton is located) running up the country, the rather we had passed two places which had the appearance of being such; but our depth of water was too little to encourage me to venture where I should probably have less. We had not stood to the northward about an hour when we suddenly fell into three fathoms, upon which I anchored and sent the master to sound the channel." The master reported that in many places the channel was only two and a-half fathoms, and the ship had only 16 feet of water, being only two more than she drew. While the channel was being examined Mr. Banks, with a hook and line, from the cabin window, caught two kinds of crabs that the navigators had never seen before. One was adorned with a beautiful blue shell, equal to the ultramarine, while the other was exquisitely white like old polished china. On Sunday, May 27th, the Endeavour followed the master's boat which signalled the course of the channel until deep water was reached. To a point of land Cook gave the name of Cape Manifold, from the many high hills that appeared over it, and to a large bay between it and Cape Capricorn he gave the name of Kepple Bay, and also distinguished the islands by the name of Kepple Islands. He describes the land at the cape as high and rising in hills directly from the sea. At 9 a.m., on May 28th, the ship was abreast of a point which Cook called Cape Townsend. Cook says:—"Several islands lie to the northward of it at the distance of four or five miles out at sea; three or four leagues to the S.E. the shore forms a bay (Cook's chart shows a bay identical with Port Bowen) in the bottom of which there appeared to be an inlet or harbour. To the westward of the cape the land trends S.W. ½ S., and there forms a very large bay (marked Shoal Water Bay on Cook's chart), which turns to the eastward, and probably communicates with the inlet and makes the land of the cape an island." This conjecture of Cook's is erroneous, as the land of the cape forms a promontory and not an island. Port Bowen, opening to the east, and Shoalwater Bay, opening to the north, are bays of considerable dimensions and their headlands very rugged, but their shores are low and thickly beset with mangroves, and the water is very shallow.

Cook's Third Landing at Thirsty Sound.—On May 29th, the Endeavour sailed among a perfect maze of islands, which Cook's chart designates Northumberland Isles, and also the shore presented numerous inlets, embraced in a circuit on the chart as the Bay of Inlets. At five o'clock, in the morning, Cook sent the master to sound the entrance of an inlet at the south end of Long Island, into which he intended to take the vessel that he might wait a few days for the moon's increase and examine the country. When the Endeavour anchored within the inlet the tide ebbed considerably, and Cook judged the inlet to be a river, but which actually was a strait between Long Island and the mainland. Thinking that this place might afford a commodious situation for laying the ship ashore and cleaning her bottom, he landed with the master, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander, to search for a convenient place for the purpose. The party found walking exceedingly troublesome, as the ground was covered with a kind of grass (spear-grass) whose seeds were sharp and bearded backwards, so that whenever they stuck in their clothes they worked forward by means of the beard to the flesh. Another disagreeable circumstance was their being incessantly tormented by the stings of a cloud of mosquitos. Several convenient places for docking the ship were found but abandoned for want of a stream of fresh water. In proceeding up the country they found gum trees similar to those they had seen before, but on the branches of the trees they found ants' nests, made of clay, as big as a bushel. The ants in these nests were small with white bodies, but another species, the black ant, perforated twigs, and although the pith was worked out the twigs bore leaves and flowers in as flourishing a state as those that were sound. Cook says:—"We found also an incredible number of butterflies, so that for the space of three or four acres the air was so crowded with them that millions were to be seen in every direction, at the same time every branch and twig was covered with others that were not upon the wing." They also found a fish with strong breast fins dry on the beach, which, when approached, leaped away as nimbly as a frog, as if it preferred land to water. The party failed to find any fresh water, and a second excursion in the afternoon was also unsuccessful. At sunrise, on May 30th, Cook landed and, from an eminence, took a view of the coast and the islands that lay off it with their bearings. The needle of an azimuth compass he had with him, differed considerably in its position, even to 30 degrees and once no less than two points in the distance of 14 feet, which led Cook to believe that in the hills there was iron ore, traces of which he had remarked here and other parts of the district. Cook, with Dr. Solander, then explored the inlet eight leagues, when it formed a large lake (marked Broard Sound on Cook's charts) and on the north-west communicated with the sea. Two natives followed their boat a great distance along the shore. Meanwhile, Mr. Banks and a party were engaged in a separate excursion inland. They had not gone far when their course was obstructed by a swamp covered with mangroves. This, with considerable difficulty, they passed and came to a place where they found four small fires, near to which lay some shells and bones of fish that had been roasted. They also found a heap of grass on which four or five natives had apparently slept. Lieutenant Gore, in another place, saw a pool of water in a gully and near it the tracks of a large animal. Some bustards were also seen but none of them shot, nor any other birds, except a few of the beautiful loriquets which the voyagers had seen in Botany Bay. In general the country appeared sandy and barren, and destitute of fresh water, although the deep gullies, worn by torrents from the hills, proved that the rains were copious and heavy at certain seasons of the year. Cook says:—"The inlet in which the ship lay I called Thirsty Sound, because it afforded us no fresh water."

Cook's Run from Thirsty Sound to Trinity Bay.—Having no inducement to stay at Thirsty Sound, Cook put to sea on May 31st, and next day arrived off the north-west point of Thirsty Sound, which he called Pier Head. Passing the western inlet which he named Broard Sound, which is nine or ten leagues wide with numerous islands before it, he reached the N.W. entrance into it and called the N.W. point Cape Palmerston, and between this cape and Cape Townsend lies a bay which he called the Bay of Inlets. At noon, on June 2nd, he called a high promontory Cape Hillsborough, and in his diary he writes:—"The land here is diversified by mountains, hills, plains, and valleys, and seems to be well-clothed with herbage and wood; the islands which lie parallel to the coast, and from five to eight and nine miles distant, are of various height and extent; scarcely any of them are more than five leagues in circumference, and many are not four miles; besides this chain of islands, which lies at a distance from the coast, there are others much less which lie under the land, from which we saw smoke rising in different places." On Sunday, June 3rd, Cook discovered low land across what he mistook for an opening, which proved to be a bay five or six leagues deep in front of the ship's course northerly. Steering eastward, he named the opening or bay Repulse Bay, believing that some good harbours would be discovered in it. The bay lies between Cape Hillsborough and the north point of the bay, which Cook called Cape Conway. The voyagers then steered northward through a safe passage, three to seven miles broad between the main and a mass of islands, their depth of water running 20 to 25 fathoms with good anchorage everywhere. Cook says:—"The whole passage may be considered as one safe harbour, exclusive of the small bays and coves which abound on each side, where ships might lie as in a basin. The land, both upon the main and islands, is high and diversified by hill and valley, wood and lawn with a green and pleasant appearance. On one of the islands we discovered, with our glasses, two men and a woman, and a canoe with an outrigger, which appeared to be larger and of a construction very different from those of bark tied together at the ends, which we had seen upon other parts of the coast; we hoped, therefore, that the people here had made some further advances beyond mere animal life than those we had seen before. As this passage was discovered on Whitsunday I called it Whitsunday's Passage, and I called the islands that form it Cumberland Islands, in honour of his Royal Highness the Duke." At daybreak, on the 4th, the voyagers were abreast of a lofty promontory which Cook called Cape Gloucester, and an island off it at sea he named Holborne Island. A deep bay on the west site of the cape he named Edgecombe Bay (now known as Port Denison), and a point which rises abruptly from the lowlands he called Cape Upstart (marked Point Upstart on Cook's chart). When the Endeavour was close under this cape the variation of the needle at sunset, on the 4th, was nine E., and at sunrise the next day it was no more than 5-35. Hence Cook concluded that it had been influenced by iron ore, or by some other magnetical matter under the earth's surface. At noon, on the 6th, a bay about five or six miles in extent, every way, Cook called Cleveland Bay (the site of Townsville), and the east point Cape Cleveland, and the west, which had the appearance of an island, Magnetical Isle, as the compass did not traverse well when near it. Cook says:—"They are both high and so is the mainland within them, the whole forming a surface the most rugged, rocky, and barren, of any we had seen upon the coast; it was not, however, without inhabitants, for we saw smoke in several parts of the bottom of the bay." On the afternoon of the 7th, several large columns of smoke were seen on the main, and on one of the islands were seen some natives and canoes and what appeared to be cocoa-nut trees. Lieutenant Hicks, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander went ashore, and, on their return, reported the trees to be cabbage palm, 14 or 15 of which were brought aboard. The land, on account of its figure, Cook called Point Hillock, and a large bay between this cape and Magnetical Isle he called Halifax Bay. This bay affords good anchorage, and is sheltered from all winds by a group of islands before it. Seven miles from Point Hillock another point was named Cape Sandwich. The land then trends west and afterwards north, forming a bay with good shelter and anchorage, to which Cook bestowed the appellation of Rockingham Bay, at the head of which Cardwell is situated. Cook

says:—"I kept ranging along the shore to the northward for a cluster of small islands which lay off the northern point of the bay. Between the three outermost of these islands and those near the shore I found a channel of about a mile broad, through which I passed, and upon one of the nearest islands we saw, with our glasses, about 30 of the natives, men, women, and children, all standing together and looking with great attention at the ship, the first instance of curiosity we had seen amongst them." At six a.m., on the 9th, the voyagers were abreast of some small islands which Cook named Frankland Isles, and passing an island of considerable height (Fitzroy Island) at noon they were abreast of a point which Cook called Cape Grafton. The whole coast traversed for 20 leagues Cook describes as high with a rocky surface and thinly covered with wood. To the westward of the cape the ship anchored in a bay which, being discovered on Trinity Sunday, was called Trinity Bay, a low, green, woody island in the offing being called Green Island. Cook, accompanied by Mr Banks and Dr. Solander, went ashore (for the fourth time), and everywhere found the country rising into steep, rocky hills, but, failing in their search for fresh water, soon returned to the ship.

THE ENDEAVOUR STRIKES ON A CORAL ROCK.—Cook had navigated the Endeavour a distance of 1300 miles along the Australian coast without any untoward accident. The coast concealed shoals which suddenly project from the shore, and rocks that rise abruptly like a pyramid from the bottom. Since crossing the tropic of Capricorn he found that the coast was highly dangerous, for he was sailing inside a linear series of coral reefs now collectively known as the Great Barrier Reef, which fringes the N.E. coast of Australia from Break Sea Spit to the vicinity of New Guinea, a distance of 1200 miles, which is the grandest specimen of its kind on the face of the globe, and a wonderful geological curiosity. In some places the reef is 90 miles wide, but in other places it fluctuates considerably in its width from 30 to 1 mile. On the outside it rises perpendicularly from unfathomable depths, and in places approaches and recedes from the coast. The inner passage is intricate and dangerous to navigation from hidden reefs. The uncovered area of the main reef is about 30,000 square miles. The inner passage is five to 15 miles from the mainland. It is asserted that as the mainland descended this reef got separated from it, and that the coralline animalcules built upon the sunken reef, which in some parts is 2000 feet deep. There are many gaps in the reef, one being 12 miles wide, and between 12 deg. and 14 deg. the reef is double. At the best channel for ships to pass through the reef there is a circular stone tower, erected on a small inlet, and a garden attached to it is kept planted with cocoa-nuts, maize, pumpkins, and vegetables for shipwrecked mariners. When the wind blows from the east the waves dash with tremendous fury against the outside of the reef, while the waters inside the reef are always as calm and tranquil as a mill-pond, being protected by the natural break-water. Mr. Jukes, the naturalist to Captain Blackwood's expedition for facilitating the navigation of these waters, describes the exterior scene, "The long ocean-swell, being suddenly impeded by this barrier, lifted itself in one great continuous ridge of deep blue water, which, curling over fell on the edge of the reef in an unbroken cataract of dazzling white foam. Each line of breakers runs often one or two miles in length, with not a perceptible gap in its continuity. There was a simple grandeur and display of power and beauty in this scene that rose even to sublimity. The unkroken roar of the surf, with its regular pulsation of thunder, as each succeeding swell fell first on the outer edge of the reef, was almost deafening, yet so deep toned as not to interfere with the slightest nearer or sharper sound. Both the sound and sight were such as to impress the spectator with the consciousness of standing in the presence of an overwhelming majesty and power." This was the character of the coast Cook was navigating in June 1770. As he was pursuing his course from Trinity Bay the Endeavour fell into a critical situation. Perilous adventures and miraculous escapes from shipwreck have been the inseparable companions of all early voyages of discovery, and Cook, although singularly fortunate in passing nearly half way along this unknown reef, soon found that he was doomed to experience and happily surmount difficulties of no ordinary character. On Sunday, June 10th, 1770, Cook approached near the latitude assigned to the islands discovered by De Quiros, which geographers, without sufficient reason, had erroneously, in their charts, attached to the north-east coast of Australia. With a clear moonlight night and fine breeze the Endeavour sped on her course, and between 6 and 9 a.m. had deep water from 14 to 21 fathom. While all the voyagers were at supper it shoaled, and they fell into 12, 10, and 8 fathom within the compass of a few minutes. Cook ordered every man to his station to let go the anchor when the next cast of the lead gave deep water at 20 and 21 fathom. Cook thereupon concluded that the ship had passed over the tail of some shoals that had been seen at sunset, and all retired tranquilly to bed. At 11 a.m. the water shoaled from 20 to 17 fathom, and before the lead could be cast again the ship struck, and remained immovable except when influenced by the heaving of the surge that beat her against the crags of the reef on which she lay. To complete their distress they, with consternation and fear, saw by the bright moonlight the sheathing boards and finally the false keel float from the bottom of the vessel. Their anxiety abated a little as the ship settled on the rocks as the tide ebbed. Their best chance of floating her off was by lightening her, as she had struck at high water, therefore the pumps were set in operation, and six deck-guns, oil-jars, ballast, casks, and decayed stores, were thrown overboard. Hopes were entertained of her floating at the next high tide, if the ship held together so long, which was doubted, as her bottom kept violently grating the rock. Though amazed at their perilous position, everyone, stimulated by the composure and fortitude of Cook, exerted himself with an alacrity and spirit free from confusion and discontent which almost approached to cheerfulness. They were still prosecuting their labours when daylight of June 11th broke and revealed a fuller prospect of their danger, the land being 8 leagues distant, without an island in the intermediate space, so that if the ship had gone to pieces most of them must inevitably have perished. Providentially the wind had died away and it became a dead calm, for if it had blown hard the ship would have been destroyed. At high water, at 11, unsuccessful efforts were made to heave the ship off, and to the inexpressible surprise of Cook and his officers, the day tide fell short of that of the night, and she did not float by 18 inches, although 50 tons of dead weight had been thrown overboard. Their only hope now depended on the midnight tide, and everything that possibly could be spared was thrown overboard. As the tide fell the water rushed in so fast that the two pumps, although incessantly worked, could scarcely keep the ship free. At five the tide began to rise, and the leak increased to such an alarming degree that two more pumps had to be manned, but one of them would not work. Three pumps were kept vigorously going until nine, when the ship righted, and then the water rushed in so fearfully that they expected she would fill and sink as soon as she got free from the rock. In such a dreadful crisis they feared subordination would be at an end, and the boats (which were not capable of carrying all to the shore) would be rushed and the contest for preference would be more shocking than the horrors of shipwreck; yet it was considered those left on board would meet a milder fate than those condemned to languish in a desolate wilderness with the rudest savages in the world. Their situation was deplorable, and imagination must paint what baffles the power of language to describe. The dreadful moment to determine the fate of the voyagers arrived, when the capstan and windlass was manned by as many hands as could be spared from the pumps, and with one grand effort the ship, at ten minutes past ten, floated and was heaved into deep water. Strange to say the ship did not admit more water than when she was on the rock. For a considerable time the leak had gained on the pumps, and there were three feet nine inches of water in the hold. However, the men kept the water at bay, having endured, for 24 hours, excessive fatigue of body and agitation of mind. With little hope of final success their vigorous efforts began to flag, and with good cause, for, being worn out from fatigue of mind and body, none of them could pump more than five or six minutes at a time, and then, totally exhausted, they would throw themselves on the deck, even amidst a stream of water three or four inches deep, which came from the pumps. The succeeding men being exhausted in their turn would throw themselves down, while the former men would start up and renew their labours, thus mutually struggling for life. While thus employed an accident was nearly rendering them a prey to absolute despair. The man employed in taking the depth of water in the well had taken it no further than the ceiling, but the man who relieved him took it erroneously to the outside planking, which showed the water had apparently gained 18 inches in a few minutes. This circumstance deprived them of all hopes to preserve their lives for a much longer period. However, the mistake was soon discovered and the joy arising from the glad tidings inspired the men with fresh vigour, confidence, and hope, and by their wonderful energy, alacrity, and spirit, by eight o'clock their pumps had gained on the leak. It was now confidently thought that the ship might reach some harbour, and those that could be spared from the pumps heartily set to work to get in the anchors, one of which, the bower anchor, was cut away at a whole cable. Having a good breeze at 11 the Endeavour was got under sail and stood for the land.

WONDERFUL PRESERVATION OF THE SHIP FROM FOUNDERING.—It was impossible to continue the labour at the pumps much longer, and as the water would soon gain on the pumps, and there was no hope of discovering the exact situation of the leak, the vessel was in imminent danger of foundering. While Cook was much perplexed what course to follow in this critical emergency, Mr. Monkhouse, one of the midshipmen, proposed an expedient he had once seen used on board a merchant ship, that at sea sprung a leak which admitted more than four feet of water in an hour, and which, by means of a process called "fothering," had been safely brought from Virginia to London. Cook at once saw the utility of the "fothering" expedient, and directed Mr. Monkhouse to carry out the process with the aid of four or five seamen. Accordingly, Mr. Monkhouse took an old lower studding sail, and having mixed a quantity of oakum and

wool chopped small, he lightly stitched it down in handfulls on the sail, and over this he spread the dung of the sheep in the ship and other filth. The sail was then by ropes hauled under the ship and extended, when the suction carried in the oakum and wool from the surface of the sail. This expedient partly filled up the leak which was so far reduced, that instead of gaining upon three pumps, it was easily kept under with one.

THE ENDEAVOUR CAREENED IN ENDEAVOUR RIVER.—The "fothering" expedient exceeded Cook's warmest expectations, and was a source of consolation and hope to the voyagers who could not have expressed more joy if they had been in a safe port. Just before its adoption, Cook meditated beaching the ship on the mainland and building a vessel out of her materials to carry them to the East Indies, but now he determined to range along the coast for an harbour in which to dock the ship, repair her defects, and prosecute his voyage of discovery as if no impediment had happened. At six, on the 13th of June, the ship anchored seven leagues off the shore, the ship making 15 inches of water per hour, which the pumps could clear. Behind two islands, which Cook called Hope Islands, the voyagers saw an opening like a harbour (marked Weary Bay on Cook's chart), but on reaching the bay the depth of water in it was found insufficient. At sunset they anchored in four fathom, two miles from the shore. At nine, the mate returned from a boat expedition northward, and reported discovering, two leagues distant, a small harbour which was excellently adapted for docking purposes. The Endeavour sailed at six a.m., on the 14th, for this harbour, and, after passing over some dangerous shoals, anchored in four fathom about a mile off the harbour, which turned out to be the best adapted to their purpose to any they had seen in the whole course of their voyage. As it blew very fresh they could not enter the harbour, and the gale continuing the 15th and 16th they kept at anchor. With formidable symptoms the scurvy afflicted Mr. Green, Tupia, and several seamen, and this, combined with the fact that there was nothing but the fothering sail between them and a watery grave, somewhat embittered their joy at their providential deliverance. The wind continued fresh till Sunday, the 17th, when Cook ventured to enter the narrow channel of the harbour, and twice ran the ship aground. The first time she struck she got off easily, but the second time she stuck fast, and not until the booms and top masts were thrown overboard, and made a raft of, and the tide rising at one o'clock, that she floated again. She was then warped into the harbour and moored alongside a steep beach, where the anchors and cables were removed ashore. The next day a stage was erected to the shore that was so bold that the ship floated less than 20 feet from it. The scurvy patients and the ship's stores were then landed and placed in tents. It was not till the 22nd that the tide receded and left the Endeavour in a position that would afford a full opportunity of examining the leak. The leak was found to be in the ship's foreheads, a little below the starboard forechains. In this place the coral rocks had in an extraordinary manner cut through four planks into the timbers, and damaging three other planks. In these breaches not a splinter was seen, the hole being smooth as if cut with a sharp instrument. The preservation of the ship was, however, due to a very singular circumstance. The timbers, although very close, had an aperture sufficiently large enough to have kept eight instead of four pumps going, and this aperture was found plugged up with a fragment of coral rock nearly a yard square. This piece of rock was found firmly imbedded in the leak, and had been broken off the rock on which the vessel struck, through the vessel rolling about. It was through the interstices between the rock and the hole that the water flowed in so rapidly and gained on the pumps. The fothering had answered so well that many pieces of it stuffed up the interstices, thus preventing the ship from foundering. It is unnecessary to enter into the details of the difficulty the carpenters and smiths had in repairing the serious damages to the hull of the ship, and how she had to be redocked through some of the planking tearing off when being heaved off the slip. Altogether her repairs lasted five weeks.

THE VOYAGERS' FIRST INTERCOURSE WITH THE AUSTRALIAN NATIVES.—Hitherto the Australian natives avoided friendly intercourse with Cook and his companions, and through Cook adopting a plan to let the natives be the first to make friendly advances, he soon found them favourably disposed towards an interview without signs of fear or distrust. On the 10th of July four natives in a canoe with outriggers were fishing on the north side of the river, and as some of the ship's crew were going towards them Cook stopped the expedition, as repeated experience convinced him that it would prevent rather than procure an interview. Cook says, "I was determined to try what could be done by a contrary method, and accordingly let them alone, without appearing to take the least notice of them; this succeeded so well, that at length two of them came in the canoe within a musket shot of the ship, and there talked a great deal in a very loud tone; we understood nothing that they said, and therefore could answer their harangue only by shouting, and making all the signs of invitation and kindness that we could devise. During this conference, they came insensibly nearer and nearer, holding up their lances, not in a threatening manner, but as if to intimate that if we offered them any injury, they had weapons to revenge it. When they were almost alongside of us, we threw them some cloth, nails, and beads, paper and other trifles, which they received without the least appearance of satisfaction; at last one of the people happened to throw them a small fish; at this they expressed the greatest joy imaginable, and intimating by signs, that they would fetch their companions, immediately paddled away towards the shore. In the meantime some of our people, and among them Tupia, landed on the opposite side of the river; the canoe with all the four Indians, very soon returned to the ship, and came quite alongside, without expressing any fear or distrust. We distributed some more presents among them, and soon after they left us and landed on the same side of the river where our people had gone ashore. Every man carried in his hand two lances, and a stick, which is used in throwing them, and advanced to the place where Tupia and the rest of our people were sitting. Tupia soon prevailed upon them to lay down their arms, and come forward without them. He then make them signs that they should sit down by him, with which they complied, and seemed to be under no apprehension or constraint. Several more of us going ashore they expressed their jealousy lest we should get between them and their arms. We took care, however, to show them that we had no such intention, and having joined them, we made them some more presents, as a further testimony of our good-will, and our desire to obtain theirs. We continued together with the utmost cordiality until dinner time, and then giving them to understand that we were going to eat, we invited them by signs to go with us. This, however, they declined, and as soon as we left them they went away in their canoe." The next day three of the same natives visited Cook, bringing with them a stranger whom they called Yaparico, who had a bone of a bird five or six inches long, and as thick as a man's finger thrust through his nose. They gave the voyagers a fish, and a native receiving a shirt tied it as a fillet round his head. They seemed pleased, and loathe to leave the voyagers, but noticing some of the Europeans examine their canoe they were alarmed, jumped into it and paddled away. The next day (July 12th) three natives went to Tupia's tent, and were so pleased at their reception that they went away in their canoe and brought three strangers, who received some fish presented them with indifference. Cook found on a further acquaintance with the natives, that their skins were not so dark as he first apprehended, and that all were remarkably clean-limbed and very active. Their language appeared to him more harsh than the South Sea Islanders. On the 14th two natives went on board the ship, and after a short stay went along the shore and caught some fish. The natives after this became quite familiar.

COOK DESCRIBES THE KANGAROO.—Cook was the first navigator to minutely describe the kangaroo. In his diary, under date June 24th, he says, "As I was walking this morning at a little distance from the ship I saw myself one of the animals (kangaroo) which had been so often described; it was of a light mouse colour, and in size and shape very much resembling a grey-hound; it had a long tail also, which it carried like a grey-hound; and I should have taken it for a wild dog, if instead of running, it had not leapt like a hare or deer; its legs were said to be very slender, and the print of its foot to be like that of a goat; but where I saw it the grass was so high that the legs were concealed, and the ground was too hard to receive the track. Mr. Banks also had an imperfect view of this animal, and was of opinion that its species was hitherto unknown." Cook's journal contains a fine picture of a kangaroo standing erect. He gives the following verbal description of one Mr. Gore caught on July 14th:—"This individual was a young one much under its full growth, weighing only 38 lbs. The head, neck, and shoulders are very small in proportion to the other parts of the body; the tail is nearly as long as the body, thick near the rump; and tapering towards the end; the forelegs of this individual were only eight inches long, and the hind legs, 22; its progress is by successive leaps or hops, of a great length, in an erect posture; the forelegs are kept bent close to the breast, and seemed to be of use only for digging; the skin is covered with a short fur, of a dark mouse or grey colour, excepting the head or ears, which bear a slight resemblance to those of a hare, This animal is called by the natives kangaroo. The next day (Sunday, 15th July) our kangaroo was dressed for dinner, and proved most excellent meat; we might now indeed be said to fare sumptuously every day, for we had turtle in great plenty."

COOK VIEWS THE INLAND COUNTRY AND COAST.—While the men were employed getting the ship ready for sea on the 16th July, Cook climbed one of the heights on the north shore, and obtained an extensive view of the inland country, which was agreeably diversified by hills, valleys, and large plains richly covered with wood. On the next day Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander went into the woods, and were welcomed by four strange natives, who walked up to them without any signs of suspicion or fear. The natives had by degrees now become so familiar that several the next day ventured on board the ship, where Cook left them, apparently much entertained, that he might take a survey of the sea-coast. After walking seven or eight miles along the shore to the northward, Cook and his

companions ascended a high hill, and saw in every direction as they turned their eyes seaward numberless rocks and shoals, and no passage out to sea inspiring them with melancholy apprehensions of the difficulty and danger that beset their further progress along the coast.

AFFRAY WITH THE NATIVES, &C.—The natives finding they were well treated and fed when they ventured into the Europeans' camp, soon became troublesome in their exchange of civilities. Noticing the quantities of turtle the English caught, which attracted their attention more than anything else in the ship, they seemed very anxious to obtain some of them by fair or foul means. Cook's diary under date July 19th, records the following open rupture between them:—"On the 19th in the morning we were visited by 10 of the natives, the greater part from the other side of the river, where we saw six or seven more, most of them women, and like all the rest of the people we had seen in this country, they were stark naked. Our guests brought with them a greater number of lances than they had ever done before, and having laid them up in a tree, they set a man and a boy to watch them; the rest then came on board, and we soon perceived that they had determined to get one of our turtles, which was propably as great a dainty to them as to us. They first asked us by signs to give them one; and being refused, they expressed, both by looks and gestures, great disappointment and anger. At this time we happened to have no victual dressed, but I offered one of them some biscuit, which he snatched and threw overboard with great disdain. One of them renewed his request to Mr. Banks, and upon refusal stamped with his foot, and pushed him from him in a transport of resentment and indignation. Having applied by turns to almost every person who appeared to have any command in the ship, without success, they suddenly seized two of the turtles, and dragged them towards the side of the ship where their canoe lay; our people soon forced them out of their hands, and replaced them with the rest. They would not, however, relinquish their enterprise, but made several other attempts of the same kind, in all which being equally disappointed, they suddenly leaped into their canoe in a rage, and began to paddle towards the shore. At the same time I went into the boat with Mr. Banks and five or six of the ship's crew, and we got ashore before them, where many more of our people were already engaged in various employments. As soon as they landed they seized their arms, and before we were aware of their design, they snatched a brand from under a pitch-kettle which was boiling, and making a circuit to the windward of the few things we had on shore, they set fire to the grass in their way, with suprising quickness and dexterity; the grass, which was five or six feet high, and as dry as stubble, burnt with amazing fury; and the fire made a rapid progress towards a tent of Mr. Banks's, which had been set up for Tupia when he was sick, taking in its course a sow and pigs, one of which it scorched to death. Mr. Banks leaped into a boat, and fetched some people from on board, just time enough to save his tent, by hauling it down upon the beach; but the smith's forge, at least such part of it as would burn, was consumed. While this was doing the Indians went to a place at some distance, where several of our people were washing, and where our nets, among which was the seine, and a great quantity of linen, were laid out to dry; here they again set fire to the grass, entirely disregarding both threats and entreaties. We were therefore obliged to discharge a musket, loaded with small shot, at one of them, which drew blood a distance of about 40 yards, and this putting them to flight, we extinguished the fire at this place before it had made much progress, but where the grass had been first kindled, it spread into the woods to a great distance. As the Indians were still in sight, I fired a musket, charged with ball, abreast of them among the mangroves, to convince them that they were not yet out of our reach; upon hearing the ball they quickened their pace, and we soon lost sight of them. We thought that they would now give us no more trouble; but soon after we heard their voices in the woods, and perceived that they came nearer and nearer. I set out, therefore, with Mr. Banks and three or four more, to meet them. When our parties came in sight of each other, they halted; except one old man, who came forward to meet us; at length he stopped, and having uttered some words, which we were very sorry we could not understand, he went back to his companions and the whole body slowly retreated. We found means however to seize some of their darts, and continued to follow them about a mile: we then sat down upon some rocks, from which we could observe their motions, and they also sat down at about one hundred yards distance. After a short time the old man again advanced towards us, carrying in his hand a lance without a point; he stopped several times at different distances, and spoke; we answered by beckoning and making such signs of amity as we could devise, upon which the messenger of peace, as we supposed him to be, turned and spoke aloud to his companions, who then set up their lances against a tree, and advanced towards us in a friendly manner. When they came up we returned the darts and lances that we had taken from them, and we perceived, with great satisfaction, that this rendered the reconciliation complete. We found in this party four persons whom we had never seen before, who, as usual, were introduced to us by name; but the man who had been wounded in the attempt to burn our nets and linen, was not among them; we knew, however, that he could not be dangerously hurt, by the distance at which the shot reached him. We made all of them presents of such trinkets as we had about us, and they walked back with us towards the ship. As we went along they told us, by signs, that they would not set fire to the grass any more; and we distributed among them some musket-balls, and endeavoured to make them understand their use and effect. When they came abreast of the ship they sat down, but could not be prevailed upon to come on board; we therefore left them, and in about two hours they went away, soon after which we perceived the woods on fire at about two miles distance. If this accident had happened a very little while sooner, the consequence might have been dreadful; for our powder had been aboard but a few days, and the store tent, with many valuable things which it contained, had not been removed many hours. We had no idea of the fury with which grass would burn in this hot climate, nor consequently of the difficulty of extinguishing it; but we determined, that if it should ever again be necessary for us to pitch our tents in such a situation, our first measure should be to clear the ground round us. In the afternoon we got everything on board, new berthed her, and let her swing with the tide; and at night the master returned with the discouraging account that there was no passage for the ship to the northward. The next morning (July 20th) at low water, I went and sounded and buoyed the bar, the ship being now ready for the sea. We saw no Indians this day, but all the hills round us for many miles were on fire, which at night made a most striking and beautiful appearance. The 22nd passed without our getting sight of any of the inhabitants and, indeed, without a single incident worth mentioning." On the morning of the 23rd, some people of the ship were sent out to get some West Indian kale, and one of them, straggling from the rest, encountered four natives at breakfast. Being unarmed he feared to run away; he sat down with the natives, showing them his knife. The natives treated him with the greatest civility, and felt his hands and face to satisfy themselves that his body was flesh like their own, When he offered to leave them, they would not let him go, but after half-an-hour's detention they made signs for him to depart. Noticing that he did not take the direct route to the ship, they left their fire and showed him the right way to the ship.

BANKS' AND SOLANDERS' BOTANICAL RESEARCHES.—During Cook's stay at Endeavour River, from the 18th of June to the 4th of August, 1770, Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander made numerous excursions into the country to enlarge their treasury of natural history. On June 19th, they saw vast flocks of beautiful pigeons and crows, and secured several kinds of pigeons. On the 28th they saw many nests of white ants. The nests were from a few inches to six feet high, of pyramidical form like Druidical monuments. On July 5th they discovered innumerable unknown fruits and plants, and various kinds of animals indigenous to the country. On the 8th they explored the Endeavour River, until it contracted into a narrow channel, and was bounded, not by mangroves and swamps like its entrance, but by steep banks covered with trees of a most beautiful verdure. The description of the country, natives' haunts, and animals they met on this expedition is very interesting. On the 9th they collected many shells and marine productions. On the 23rd, 24th, and 25th, contrary winds prevented the Endeavour getting out to sea, and they had the good fortune to discover several marking nuts of the *anacardium orientale*, some oppossums, and a species of animal resembling Mons. de Buffon's phalanger. We are told that while the Endeavour, at the end of June, was refitting for sea, the world was nearly deprived of the botanical knowledge the two botanists had procured at the expense of so much perilous labour. All their curious collections of plants were placed in the after part of the ship, and when the head was raised on the slip the water in the ship was thrown abaft, and the plants in the stern became covered with water. By care and attention the greater part were restored to a state of preservation.

COOK ADDRESSES HIS COMPANY.—Unsuccessful attempts to warp the vessel out of the harbour were made on July 31st and August 3rd owing to the fresh wind blowing. Early on August 4th the Endeavour got under sail with a light air from the land, which soon died away, and was followed by a sea breeze S.E. by S. The ship stood off to sea E. by N., having the pinnace ahead to keep sounding without intermission. At noon the Endeavour anchored in 15 fathom. Cook was then in doubt whether to beat back to the southward, round the great Barrier reef, or seek a passage to the eastward or the northward. Before quitting the harbour which Cook named after his vessel, and on the north bank of which is now established the flourishing town called Cooktown (unfortunately a Chinese town, the Mongolians overshadowing the Europeans), Cook assembled his officers and men, and thus addressed the entire company:—"At a time when, if we have not accomplished the enterprise on which we have entered, we have performed as many and as great things as we could have desired, and overcome great difficulties and great dangers, more successfully than we could have hoped, I do not think, friends and companions, that I subject myself to the

imputation of presumption or egotism in addressing to you a few remarks, such as, in my judgment, are suitable to the occasion and to our general circumstances. My object is not to stimulate you to a better performance of your duties, because more zealous than you have proved yourselves it is impossible that men could be; and I am moreover well aware, that not by the words, so much as by the example of those who lead enterprises, are valour, fortitude, perseverance infused into the breasts of those who follow. Nor is it my intention to extol your conduct, or praise the virtues which you have exhibited; because, inasmuch as I have, I think, been a participator in all your achievements, and a sharer in all your toils, dangers, and fears, then were I to offer praise, I would be guilty of self-laudation. My object, indeed, is simply to establish that community of thought and sentiment so essential between those who have command and those who act on their instructions, or follow where they lead. In the first place permit me to congratulate you as well as myself on the success which has hitherto attended our enterprise. For two years have we traversed the ocean, passing during that period almost from one extreme of the earth to the other; visited countries hitherto unknown to civilised men, explored others so as to acquire geographical information not previously ascertained, and successfully fulfilled the duties assigned to us in connection with the science of astronomy, so important and interesting to the seamen. Finally, we have explored a large extent of the coast of this great and beautiful country, becoming acquainted in our progress with the character of its rude inhabitants, the peculiarities of its natural products, the fertility of its soil, the richness and abundance of its minerals, and the spacious character of its bays and harbours. Although difficulty and danger everywhere beset our path, all this has been accomplished without disappointment, and, with one exception, without accident. Nor indeed should the mishap to which I allude, and from the effects of which we have just so successfully recovered, be regarded in the light of an evil; for if it has proved how slight is the security on which depend at once our lives, our projects, and our hopes, has it not also proved how much we may accomplish by patience, fortitude and energy? Thus, while it has demonstrated our weakness, it has also enabled us to discover our strength; it has developed whatever of heroism was to be found in our characters more than any other event which has occurred in the progress of our undertaking, and accordingly must be regarded as a welcome event rather than an untoward accident. True, when it is considered how much we are removed from all those social pleasures, such as the sympathy of friends, the solace of the domestic circle, the happiness to be found only in the society of those we love best, in which human enjoyment is most frequently placed, our lot may be considered unhappy; but for this estrangement from home and country have we not a recompense in being permitted the pleasure of communing with nature where she appears in most perfect freshness and bloom? Is it nothing to behold the fairest works of creation in the very guise in which they appear from the hands of the Creator? Is it nothing that we are permitted to behold those scenes and explore those wonders which, surpassing in beauty, richness, and skill every work conceived or executed by art, have nevertheless never before revealed themselves to men capable of appreciation or admiring their beauty? Nor should the toils and dangers to which we are exposed be regarded as evils, when it is considered that from true honour these are ever inseparable. The laws which so beautifully rule the affairs of mankind render it impossible that in ease or inaction useful or meritorious deeds can be accomplished. Many ways, indeed, there are by which men may entitle themselves to respect, acquire influence, and enjoy what to some may appear felicity; but only in the arena of action, which throws its portals open alike to soldier, sailor, and scholar, to the studious, the active, and the enterprising, is just renown to be acquired. On this field it is that we have entered, and on the merit which will attend the successful accomplishment of our enterprise, not less than in the self-satisfaction which will spring from the same source, will we find a full recompense for all our labours. I speak of self-satisfaction, because I feel assured that even the humblest amongst you must appreciate the value of those services which we render in the first place to our country, and in the next place to mankind in general. For is it not most gratifying to reflect, that to the possessions of our country we have added, in addition to other discoveries, this immense island, blest by nature, as we can perceive even from our cursory inspection, with all those advantages and properties which render territories preeminent in value? Is it not a consideration to excite pride in the breast of the most indifferent, that here, as elsewhere, we have brought to light unknown lands where the over-crowded populations, not only of our own country, but of all nations, may find an outlet for their exuberance, and enjoy the full fruits of their industry and energy, secure in the protection of that banner which we have had the surpassing privilege of planting on its shores? I have done. As hitherto your own sense of duty has amply sufficed to stimulate you to the performance of the various labours which fall to your portion, I feel confident that the same sense of the obligations you owe to your country, to your commander, and to yourselves, will hereafter more than suffice to infuse into the breasts of each of you that attention, zeal, and fortitude which, under Providence, cannot fail to be the means of bringing our enterprise to a successful termination."

COOK'S PERILOUS PASSAGE THROUGH THE BARRIER REEF.—Great difficulties followed the navigation of the Endeavour from the Endeavour River, for shoals of coral rocks and breakers were discovered in every quarter. To trace the formation of these coral reefs and islands is an interesting object of geological research. At first it was thought these coral rocks which rise perpendicularly from the bed of the ocean, were of a vegetable nature, but subsequent investigation demonstrated the fact that the foundations of thousands of islands in Australia were effected by the minute and combined labours of millions of marine zoophytes, especially the cellepora, isis, madrepora, tubipora, and millepora. The order and regularity with which these species of polypes construct enormous masses of coral reefs, which become the basis of future islands is no less astonishing than the amazing rapidity with which these reefs appear where there were scarcely any traces of such reefs before. When the ridges have reached such a height that they are dry at low water the polypes cease to build any higher, and then by the action of the ever active sea, throwing calcareous sand, sea-shells, coral, sea-drift, &c., between and upon the foundations, the whole becomes a solid mass of stone. The surf then casts upon the flat tops of the reefs seeds of plants and trees, and entire trunks of live trees, which all take root and rapidly form dense woods. With the trees come small animals such as lizards and insects, followed by sea-birds and stray land birds, who soon take refuge in the woods, and form the first inhabitants. Cook got entangled among myriads of these dangerous reefs, some under and others only just above the ocean at low water. Rising perpendicularly from the bottom of the sea, he often found when within only two ships' lengths of them no bottom at a depth of 150 fathoms or 900 feet, therefore navigation in the seas where they abound is extremely difficult. On August 5th Cook kept his course northward, and anchored at dusk. In the morning of the 6th, a strong gale raged, and continued with little remission till the morning of the 10th, when the weather moderated, and Cook weighed and stood in for the land, he having come to the final determination to seek a passage along the shore to the northward. At noon the voyagers were between a headland and three islands, and they began to conceive hopes that they were out of danger, but this not proving the case the headland was called Cape Flattery. The voyagers struggled incessantly to sail safely past the shoals and breakers that every way surrounded them. In such a critical situation Cook anchored under a high point, which he called Point Look Out, by reason of his having ascended it on the 10th, and obtained a grand prospect of the Great Barrier Reef. The next day Cook and Mr. Banks visited the largest of three islands near the reef, and from the top of the highest hill saw outside the island a reef of coral rocks, upon which the sea broke with a dreadful surf. No animals were perceived on the island excepting lizards, for which reason Cook called it Lizard Island. While returning to the ship they landed on a low sandy island, which abounded with an incredible number of birds, mostly sea-fowl. Here they found an enormous eagle's nest 26 feet in circumference, and two feet eight inches high, and therefore they called the place Eagle Island. From what Cook saw he was of opinion that by keeping in with the mainland he would run the risk of being locked in with the great reef, and compelled to return back in search of a passage out to the sea. On a consultation with his officers it was unanimously agreed to quit the coast entirely until it could be approached with less danger. On the 13th the Endeavour successfully sailed (past three islands, which Cook called Islands of Direction, and through one of the channels or openings in the outer reef which Cook saw from Lizard Island) into the open sea, after being surrounded with dreadful shoals and rocks for nearly three months. They had sailed above 1000 miles without even once having a man out of the chains, heaving the lead, and generally spent their nights at anchor within the hearing of a dreadful surge that broke over the shoals and rocks. They now found themselves in an open sea apparently free from shoals that had perpetually threatened them with destruction.

PROVIDENTIAL ESCAPES FROM SHIPWRECK.—The joy of the voyagers was soon dissipated, for the Endeavour's leaks were widened by the blows of the heavy ocean-swell now encountered, and admitted no less than nine inches of water in an hour, while the pumps were rotten and almost useless. On the 16th their state of security was changed to an alarm of danger, for they found the waves which rolled and foamed to a great height upon a reef a mile off, carry the vessel with great rapidity towards the reef, there not being a breath of wind for the sail or any ground for an anchor. By the aid of the long-boat and yawl, the ship's head was towed to the northward. The ship was then within 100 yards of the reef on which the billows broke to a tremendous height, their being but a chasm of water, no wider than the base of a wave, between the voyagers and destruction. Their crazy ship was not capable of contending with the enormous waves of the vast Southern Ocean, which breaks with inconceivable

violence against the reefs of coral rocks, which rise almost perpendicularly, like a wall out of the deep. They were doomed to hear the roaring of the surf, which every minute threatened to engulf them, and the men in the pinnace, long-boat, and yawl, rowed with a resolution and energy inspired with despair. Just at the crisis of the voyagers' fate (for the efforts of the men would have been ineffectual) a light air of wind, hardly discernible, sprang up, turned the scale in favour of the voyagers by aiding the boats in giving the ship a perceptible motion, obliquely from the reef. This providential circumstance revived the voyagers' hopes, but in less than 10 minutes a dead calm succeeded, and the ship was again carried with great rapidity, by the treacherous current, towards the breakers, 200 yards off. However, the breeze once more returned for 10 minutes before the ship lost the little ground gained. Animated by the hope of preserving life, Cook determined to return inside the barrier reef, and attempted to pass through a narrow opening inside of which was smooth water, but this was found impracticable, as the ebb tide ran out like a mill stream, with amazing impetuosity, driving the ship two miles from the reef. The ship was still embayed in the reef, and the ebb tide being spent, the flood tide, despite the most strenuous efforts, carried the ship back again into her former perilous position near the rocks, renewing the voyagers' prospect of instant destruction. Happily, Lieutenant Hicks reported favourably of a narrow and hazardous channel he had examined about a mile to the westward, and the boats, aided by a light breeze springing up, towed the vessel to its entrance. The current now carried the ship safely through the channel (which was not more than a quarter of a mile wide) with amazing rapidity, and while shooting this gulf their soundings varied from 30 to seven fathom, over foul ground. The voyagers now found within the reef a haven of safety, and joyfully congratulated each other on regaining a station that, three days previously, they had quitted with pleasure. With a proper sense of gratitude to the Supreme Being, Cook named the opening (on August 17th) through which the Endeavour had passed, Providential Channel. A high promontory, on the mainland in sight, was denominated Cape Weymouth, and a bay near it Weymouth Bay. Eighty years after Cook visited this bay, it was sighted by the majority of Kennedy's exploring party, who were starved to death. It was in the vicinity of this bay that Cook's companions procured 240 lbs. of shell-fish, chiefly cockles, some of which were as much as two men could move, and contained 20 lbs. of good meat. The further course of the Endeavour was encompassed on every side with rocks and shoals, but Cook resolved not to leave the mainland without determining whethor Australia was joined to New Guinea. The voyagers prosecuting their voyage northward were still encompassed with dangerous rocks and shoals, but having become familiar with these dangers for nearly three months, they now regarded them with comparatively little concern. On the 19th Cape Grenville, Forbes Island, Temple Bay, Sir Charles Hardy's Isles, Cockburn Isles, Bold Head, Shellbourne Bay, and Bird Isles were passed and named. On Tuesday, the 20th, Cape York was sighted and named. Cook gives the following account of this cape, which is the extreme north point of Australia:—"The point of the main which forms the side of the channel through which we passed, opposite to the island, is the northern promontory to the country, and I called it York Cape. Its long. is 218 deg. and 24 sec. W., the lat. of the north point is 10 deg. 37 sec., and of the east point 10 deg. 42 sec. S. The land over the east point, and to the southward of it, is rather low, and as far as the eye can reach, very flat, and of a barren appearance. To the southward of the Cape the shore forms a large open bay, which I called Newcastle Bay, and in which are some small low islands and shoals; the land adjacent is also very low, flat, and sandy. The land on the northern part of the Cape is more hilly, the valleys seem to be well clothed with wood, and the shore forms some small bays, in which there appeared to be good anchorage. Close to the eastern point of the Cape are three small islands, from one of which a small ledge of rocks runs out into the sea; there is also an island close to the northern point. The island that forms the strait or channel through which we had passed, lies about four miles without these, which, except two, are very small; the southernmost is the largest, and much higher than any part of the main land. On the north-west side of this island there appeared to be good anchorage, and on shore, valleys that promised both wood and water. These islands are distinguished in the chart by the name of York Isles." From Endeavour River to Cape York the country is without interest, for Captain King, who minutely examined it, says, "That for the greater part of the space of 700 miles nothing like a river or spring of any consequence was observed, and that to the northward of Endeavour River in 15-27 S., all appearance of fertility ceases, and the remainder of the coast to the North Cape, which is about 300 miles, is low, sandy, and barren; at this spot also the granite rocks cease to appear."

COOK REDISCOVERS TORRES STRAITS.—On August 21st, having rounded Cape York, Cook steered westward through a channel, which he called Endeavour Straits. Conceiving that he had found a passage into the Indian Ocean, he resolved to determine the matter with greater certainty by landing on an island at the south-east point of the passage. On the 21st, accompanied by Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and a party of men, he landed where some natives were congregated, who seemed inclined to oppose their landing, but soon walked leisurely away. Cook and his companions then climbed the highest hill, from which they could see no land between the S.W. and W.S.W., and nothing but a clear channel between Australia and New Guinea. Thus Cook rediscovered Torres Straits, and set at rest the insularity of Australia from New Guinea, which had not previously been proved by any written account except conjecture, and by chartography Cook called the island he landed on, Booby Island, and says, "We turned to the ship, and in the meantime the wind had got to the S.W.; it was but a gentle breeze, yet it was accompanied by a swell from the same quarter, which with other circumstances, confirmed my opinion that we were got to the westward of Carpentaria, or the northern extremity of New Holland, and had now an open sea to the westward, which gave me great satisfaction, not only because the dangers and fatigues of the voyage were drawing to an end, but because it would no longer be a doubt whether New Holland and New Guinea were two separate islands, or different parts of the same." The passage was formed by the mainland and by a congeries of islands to the N.W., which Cook called Prince of Wales Islands. Cook was the first to make known the existence of the strait, for it was not then known that Torres had discovered and sailed through it. In 1605 Torres spent two months in the intricate navigation of the strait, and had sent the account of his voyage to the King of Spain, who kept it secret from the public. Luckily for the fame of Torres (who had lodged a copy of the document he had sent to the king, in the archives of Manilla) that Mr. Dalrymple managed to secure this copy some years after the capture of Manilla by the British troops in 1762, and rescued Torres' name from oblivion by inscribing it on the charts to the strait he had discovered. The fact of Torres discovering the strait was not made public until after Cook had published his voyages, and as Cook was ignorant of its prior discovery, it cannot be wondered at that he does not refer to Torres as its discoverer, and claims to be the first to have established the fact of the insularity of Australia. It has been said that Torres was the first to discover Cape York, but this conjecture was first mooted by Dalrymple, who was an enemy of Cook's. Torres, after coasting along the south side of New Guinea, sailed S.W. to 11 deg. S. lat. He says, "Here were very large islands; and there appeared more to the southward; they were inhabited by black people, very corpulent and naked; their arms were lances, arrows, and clubs of stone ill-fashioned." By this it will be seen that it is questionable that he saw the North Cape, but merely coasted among the archipelago of islands that are scattered in the strait. However, it appears the first to see the N.E. coast of Australia was Eredia, the Portuguese, in 1601, whose chart shows the strait, and an outline of Australia. Tasman's voyages also record that the Dutch yacht Duyfhen was, on 11th November, 1605 (the same year that Quiros and Torres sailed from Peru), despatched from Bantam to explore New Guinea, and that she sailed along the west side of the Gulf of Carpentaria.

COOK TAKES POSSESSION OF EASTERN AUSTRALIA.—On August, 21st, 1770, Captain Cook landed on an island near Cape York, and in a formal manner claimed the sovereignty of the country for George the Third, and he called the whole eastern side of Australia New South Wales, as it bore a striking resemblance to the wild and rugged coast of South Wales. Under date Wednesday, August 21st, 1770, Cook thus records his act of taking possession:—"As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, which I had coasted from lat. 38 deg. south to this place, and which I am confident no European had ever seen before, I once more hoisted English colours; and though I had already taken possession of several particular parts, I now took possession of the whole eastern coast, in right of his Majesty King George the Third, by the name of New South Wales with all the bays, harbours, rivers, and islands situated upon it; we then fired three volleys of small arms, which were answered by the same number from the ship. Having performed this ceremony upon this island, which we called Possession Island, we reimbarked in our boat."

COOK'S ACCOUNT OF NEW SOUTH WALES.—The discouraging accounts of New Holland or Australia by the Dutch navigators, militated against the Dutch, Spanish, or Portuguese nations taking possession of it for the purposes of colonisation. Carstens, of the Dutch East India Co., described it as "barren coasts, shallow water, islands thinly peopled by cruel, poor and brutal natives, and of very little use to the company." Tasman conceived the idea that the country was the abode "of howling evil spirits." Other navigators, as well as Dampier and Cook, pronounced the natives as miserably poor, hostile, and in the lowest state of existence. They looked in vain for cultivated land, the pine-apple, the cocoa, the gourd, and other rich tropical fruits which are indigenous to the islands of the Indian seas, and finding nothing for barter, they denounced the inhabitants as savages, and the country more barren than fertile. Cook, on quitting the Australian coast, gives the following opinion of

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the country:—"New Holland, or, as I have now called the eastern coast, New South Wales, is of a larger extent than any other country in the known world that does not bear the name of a continent; the length of coast along which we sailed, reduced to a straight line, is no less than 27 degrees of latitude, amounting to near 2000 miles, so that its square surface must be much more than equal to all Europe. To the southward of 33 or 34, the land in general is low and level; further northward it is hilly, but in no part can be called mountainous, and the hills and mountains taken together, make but a small part of the surface, in comparison with the valleys and plains. It is, upon the whole, rather barren than fertile; yet the rising ground is chequered by woods and lawns, and the plains and valleys are, in many places, covered with herbage; the soil, however, is frequently sandy, and many of the lawns, or savannahs, are rocky and barren, especially to the northward, where, in the best spots, vegetation was less vigorous than in the southern part of the country; the trees were not so tall, nor was the herbage so rich. The grass in general is high, but thin, and the trees, where they are largest, are seldom less than forty feet asunder; nor is the country inland, as far as we could examine it, better clothed than the sea-coast. The banks of the bays are covered with mangroves, to the distance of a mile within the beach, under which the soil is a rank mud, that is always overflowed by a spring-tide; farther in the country we sometimes met with a bog, upon which the grass was very thick and luxuriant, and sometimes with a valley that was clothed with underwood; the soil in some parts seemed to be capable of improvement, but the far greater part is such as can admit of no cultivation. The coast, at least that part of it which lies to the northward of 25 degrees S., abounds with fine bays and harbours, where vessels may lie in perfct security from all winds."

THE ABORIGINALS: THEIR NUMBER, CHARACTER, AND HABITS.—The Australian aboriginals are not savages, although all attempts to Christianise them seem to be failures, for they prefer to wander perpetually, without a prospect of settlement, rather than dwell among those who have taken their hunting grounds. Their races are rapidly decreasing by the singular unfertility of the females, and many natives, vigorous in their manhood, have, by drink and disease brought by the whites to their tribes, descended childless to the grave. In 1848 their number in Australia was estimated at 3,000,000, but now they form a miserable remnant of about 30,000. Once, numerous and warlike, they opposed an active resistance to the inroads of the whites in newly-opened districts, but their warlike conflicts more often arose from cruelties practised on them, than by resentment at the invasion of their hunting grounds. Though their ranks have been thinned by indiscriminate slaughter, they have, by following the habits of European licentiousness and drunkenness, lost their warlike spirit, and sunk so low that their extinction may be looked for at no great distance of time. Owing to the celebrated Black War and civilised drinking customs, there is not one of the numerous tribes of Tasmania alive to-day. In Victoria as many as several thousand natives gathered at a grand corrobery in 1844, but by the census returns of 1871 there were but 1300 in the colony. The Central Board for the Protection of Aboriginals, fixes the number at 1553, of which 302 males and 255 females are living on Aboriginal stations supported by the Government. In South Australia, where native settlements for civilisation were formed, the natives, though gentle, preferred their own customs and liberty. In 1862 their numbers there were 2642 males and 2404 females, and on March 26th, 1876, their numbers were 2203 males and 1750 females. They lose vigour and die childless when gathered together. In Queensland no accurate returns of the tribes have been attempted, but their number is estimated at fifteen to twenty thousand. Circumcision has been found among the northern tribes, while castes and peculiar laws as to intermarriage are known to exist widely. There are four races of population in Queensland; the Blacks or Aborigines, the Europeans or Whites, the Chinese or Yellows, and the Brown Blacks or Polynesians. The aborigines of Western Australia, in their intercourse with the whites, have been no more happy and virtuous than in any of the other colonies. In 1842 their number exceeded 8000, and has now dwindled down to as many hundreds. Cook found the Maories far more advanced in civilisation than the Australians. He found the Maories living in good houses, well clothed in garments of their own manufacture, having elaborately ornamented boats, and happy under their own tribal laws, although heathens and cannibals. He found the Australians mere wandering hunters, living in large numbers where game was plentiful and water accessible, and without any clothing, ornaments, cultivated land, and form of worship. Except on the northern coast there is but slight difference in their manners, customs, and appearance, yet they are far from being destitute of good feeling and intelligence. The New Zealanders must have, ages ago, had some association with old-world civilization, for what astonishes the learned is that they have an organised system of mythology like the Romans, and a religion like the Phœnicians and Egyptians. Their customs, such as circumcision, washings, sacrifices, and views about food were observed to resemble those of the ancient Jews. From a population of some hundreds of thousands, they have become an almost childless community, and a fast-decaying race. Our civilisation is not suited to them, and since they relinquished tribal wars, polygamy, cannibalism, slavery, tapu superstition, sorcery, human sacrifice, and heathenism, they have strangely lost their enjoyment of life, warlikeness, and elasticity of spirit. Through a misunderstanding of the object of British colonisation, for British statesmen openly advocated the seizure of Maori lands as had been done with Australian lands, native rebellions occurred. The Waikato chiefs, who had never signed the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840 (which guaranteed to Maories the safety of their possessions), did not approve of the sovereignty of England, and, through the indiscretion of hasty officials and designing civilians who complicated matters, were soon precipated into open war. The conciliating policy of giving Maories the rights of citizens, and giving them four representatives in the Assembly and two in the Council has done more than the sword to quiet the disloyal tribes. The Maories believe that as the English clover destroys the native grass, and the English rat annihilates the native rat, so will the ever-rolling wave of British colonisation sweep away the Maori races from the fern-home of their fathers. Captain Cook's observations of the Australian natives are thus summarised in his diary:—"The number of inhabitants in this country appears to be very small in proportion to its extent. We never saw so many as thirty of them together but once, and that was at Botany Bay, when men, women, and children, assembled upon a rock to see the ship pass by; when they manifestly formed a resolution to engage us, they never could muster above 14 or 15 fighting men, and we never saw a number of their sheds or houses together that could accommodate a larger party. It is true, indeed, that we saw only the sea-coast on the eastern side: and that, between this and the western shore, there is an immense tract of country wholly unexplored; but there is great reason to believe that this immense tract is either wholly desolate, or at least still more thinly inhabited than the parts we visited. It is impossible that the inland country should subsist inhabitants at all seasons without cultivation; it is extremely improbable that the inhabitants of the coast should be totally ignorant of arts of cultivation, which were practised inland; and it is equally improbable that, if they knew such arts, there should be no traces of them among them. It is certain that we did not see one foot of ground in a state of cultivation in the whole country, and therefore it may well be concluded, that where the sea does not contribute to feed the inhabitants, the country is not inhabited. The only tribe with which we had any intercourse we found where the ship was careened; it consisted of one-and-twenty persons, twelve men, seven women, one boy, and one girl; the women we never saw but at a distance, for when the men came over the river they were always left behind. The men, here and in other places, were of a middle size, and in general well made, clean limbed, and remarkably vigorous, active, and nimble; their countenances were not altogether without expression, and their voices were remarkably soft and effeminate. They appeared to have no fixed habitations, for we saw nothing like a town or village in the whole country. Their houses, if houses they may be called, seemed to be formed with less art and industry than any we had seen, except the wretched hovels at Tierra del Fuego, and in some respects they are inferior even to them. At Botany Bay, where they were best, they were just high enough for a man to sit upright in, but not large enough for him to extend himself in his whole length in any direction: they are built with pliable rods about as thick as a man's finger, in the form of an oven, by sticking the two ends into the ground, and then covering them with palm leaves and broad pieces of bark: the door is nothing but a large hole at one end, opposite to which the fire is made, as we perceived by the ashes. Under these houses, or sheds, they sleep, coiled up with their heels to their head, and in this position one of them will hold three or four persons. As we advanced northward, and the climate became warmer, we found these sheds still more slight: they were built, like the others, of twigs, and covered with bark; but none of them were more than four feet deep, and one side was entirely open: the close side was always opposed to the course of the prevailing wind, and opposite to the open side was the fire, probably more as a defence from the mosquitos than the cold. They were set up occasionally by a wandering horde in any place that would furnish them for a time with subsistence, and left behind them when, after it was exhausted, they went away; but in places where they remained only for a night or two, they slept without any shelter, except the bushes or grass, which is here near two feet high. The only furniture belonging to these houses that fell under our observation, is a kind of oblong vessel made of bark, by the simple contrivance of tying up the two ends with a withy, which not being cut off serves for a handle; these we imagine were used as buckets to fetch water from the spring, which may be supposed sometimes to be at a considerable distance. They have, however, a small bag, about the size of a moderate cabbage-net, which is made by laying threads loop within loop, somewhat in the manner of knitting used by our ladies to make purses. This bag the man carries loose upon his back by a small string which passes over his head, it generally contains a lump or two of paint and resin, some fish-hooks and lines, a shell or two, out of which their hooks are

made, a few points of darts, and their usual ornaments which includes the whole worldly treasure of the richest man among them. Their fish-hooks are very neatly made, and some of them are exceedingly small. For striking turtle they have a peg of wood, which is about a foot long, and very well bearded; this fits into a socket at the end of a staff of light wood, about as thick as a man's wrist, and about seven or eight feet long; to the staff is tied one end of a loose line about three or four fathom long, the other end of which is fastened to the peg. To strike the turtle, the peg is fixed into the socket, and when it has entered his body, and is retained there by the barb, the staff flies off, and serves for a float to trace their victim in the water; it assists also to tire him, till they can overtake him with their canoes, and haul him ashore. One of these pegs as I have mentioned already, we found buried in the body of a turtle, which had healed up over it. Their lines are from the thickness of a half-inch rope to the fineness of a hair, and are made of some vegetable substance, but what in particular we had no opportunity to learn. Their food is chiefly fish, though they sometimes contrive to kill the kangaroo, and even birds of every kind; notwithstanding they are so shy that we found it difficult to get within reach of them with a fowling piece. The only vegetable that can be considered as an article of food is the yam; yet doubtless they eat the several fruits that have been mentioned among other productions of the country; and indeed we saw the shells and hulls of several of them lying about the places where they had kindled their fires." Of traffic the natives had no idea, and when the English gave them things they could not be made to understand that something in return was required. As they had no vessel in which water could be boiled, they either broiled their meat on coals, or baked it in a hole by the aid of hot stones agreably to the custom of the South Sea Islanders. Fire they produced with great facility, and spread it in a surprising manner. To produce it they take two pieces of soft wood (one eight or nine inches long and the other flat), and reducing one end of the stick into an obtuse point, they press this point upon the flat piece of wood, and turning the upright stick very fast backwood and forward between their hands. In doing this they often shift their hands up, and then move them down, with a view of increasing the pressure as much as possible. By this process they obtain fire in less than two minutes, and from the smallest spark they carry it to any height or extent with great speed and dexterity.

Cook's Disastrous Return Voyage.—On August 23rd the Endeavour sailed from Australia towards New Guinea, and on the 25th narrowly escaped shipwreck on a dangerous shoal. By the 26th the depth of water increased from 6 to 17 fathom, and at daybreak on December 3rd New Guinea was sighted. Cook and a party of 12 persons landed near Cape de la St. Bonaventura, and advancing one mile inland encountered three natives, who rushed at the explorers with a hideous shout, discharging arrows and fire. Cook's party were under the necessity of firing first with small shot, and a second time with balls, which made the hostile natives beat a hasty retreat. With all expedition Cook's party returned to the boat, and as they rowed along the shore between 60 and 100 natives (resembling Australians) kept abreast of them, shouting defiance and letting off their fires by four or five at a time. As the cocoanut, breadfruit, and plaintain flourished in the highest perfection on the coast, some of the officers requested leave to gather two or three hundred cocoanuts, but Cook, judging the preceding treacherous behaviour of the natives, feared a sacrifice of life, and resolved to leave the coast immediately. Sailing westward he passed Timor Timor-lavet, Rotte, Leman, and all the islands between Timor and Java. At this time most of the navigators suffered terribly from scurvy, and many of them expressed dissatisfaction because Cook would not call at Timor. To remove the discontent and sickness Cook touched at a newly formed Dutch settlement on the island of Java, and there procured nine buffaloes, six sheep, three hogs, thirty dozen fowls, eggs, cocoanuts, limes, garlic, and several hundred gallons of palm syrup. The Endeavour sailed on September 21st, sighted Java on October 1st, and anchored on the 9th at Batavia. The voyagers had scarcely been nine days at Batavia when all of them felt the sickening effects of the stagnant and putrid air of the country. Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander were attacked by fevers, which grew to such a height that their recovery was only effected by their removal inland to a purer air. On November 5th Dr. W. B. Monkhouse, the skilful surgeon of the Endeavour, fell the first sacrifice to the unwholesome climate, and his lamentable death was regretted by all. The next day Mr. William Perry was appointed surgeon in his place. On the 9th the Otaheitan boy, Tayeto, died, and his father, who loved him tenderly, survived him only a few days. Out of the whole ship's company only 10 could do duty. In the midst of their distresses the Dutchmen in their fine marine yard repaired the Endeavour, which was found in a more shattered and disabled condition than was apprehended, her false and main keel being greatly injured, while a considerable part of her bottom was thinner than the sole of a shoe. On December 8th the Endeavour was reported perfectly refitted, and on the 15th stood out for sea. On her way to the Cape of Good Hope she became a perfect hospital, all on board being afflicted from an alarming outbreak of disease. Mr. Banks was reduced so low by the malady that for sometime there was no hope of his life. Almost every night a body was committed to the deep, and in the course of six weeks there were buried Mr. Spering, one of Mr. Banks' assistants; Mr. Sydney Parkinson, Mr. Banks' natural history painter; Mr. Green, the astronomer; John Lathrey, the boatswain; John Satterley, the carpenter; Satterley's mate, Mr. Monkhouse, the midshipman; another midshipman, the sail-maker and his assistant, the ship's cook, the corporal of marines, two of the carpenter's crew, and nine seamen, making the loss, including seven that died at Batavia, amount to 23 persons. These calamitous events turned Cook's attention to those methods of preserving the lives of his men in his subsequent voyages, which were so successful that they were ever afterwards successfully adopted by other navigators. On March 15th the Endeavour reached the Cape, where she remained refitting until April 14th, when she sailed for England. The next day the master, Robert Molineaux died, and Richard Pickersgill was appointed in his place. On May 25th Lieutenant Zachariah Hicks died, and Lieutenant Charles Clerke filled his place. The rigging and sails of the ship were now so bad that something was continually giving way. On June 10th the boy, Nicholas Young, sighted the Lizard, and on the 11th the Endeavour sailed up the English Channel. The next day she anchored in the Downs, and Cook and most of his companions landed at Deal, in Kent. Before Cook went ashore he announced to Mr. Phillip Stephens, Secretary of the Board of Admiralty, the arrival of the Endeavour in the Downs in a modestly worded letter, dated 12th July, 1771, which concluded in these words:—"You will herewith receive my journals containing an account of the proceedings of the whole voyage, together with all the plans, charts, and drawings I have made of the respective places we touched at, which you will be pleased to lay before their Lordships. I flatter myself that the latter will be found sufficient to convey a tolerable knowledge of the places they are intended to illustrate, and that the discoveries we have made, though not great, will apologise for the length of the voyage. I have the honour to be, sir, your most obedient servant, James Cook."

Cook and his Companions the Heroes of the Day.—The return of the brave navigators after spending nearly three years in navigating the globe excited great interest throughout Europe. They were lionised by all classes of society, and their adventures listened to with admiration and wonderment. By royal commission Cook was promoted a commander in the Royal Navy. From a consciousness of his own merit he wished to be appointed a Post Captain, but the Earl of Sandwich, who was at the head of the Admiralty, could not concede to the request, as it was not consistent with the rules of the naval service. Cook and some of his fellow explorers were presented at St. James Palace, where the young King (George the Third), who took a delight in patronising science and literature, listened to the voyagers' wondrous tales of the new lands discovered. The British Museum, where most of the specimens collected during the voyage were deposited, was visited by crowds who desired to see the curiosities. Naturally, the publication of Cook's voyage was looked forward to with intense interest. To satisfy the excited general curiosity someone in the expedition published a dry and imperfect account of the voyage under the title of "A Journal of a Voyage Round the World." The journal of Sydney Parkinson, draftsman to Sir Joseph Bank, was likewise published with plates from a copy surreptitiously obtained, but an injunction from the Court of Chancery prevented its appearance for some time. These publications somewhat relieved the eagerness of enquiry, but it was not until Dr. Hawkesworth's account of the voyage taken from Cook's and Bank's journals, embellished with charts and engravings furnished at the expense of the Government, that the public curiosity was completely satisfied. The great price paid by the booksellers for this work, and the avidity with which it was read, showed fully the anxiety of the public (and I may say the nations of Europe) to be informed fully as to Cook's discoveries. The papers of Cook and Green relative to the transit of Venus, the grand purpose of the voyage, were forwarded by the Royal Society to the Astronomer Royal, who ably commended on the success of this great astronomical event, an account of which will be found in the 61st volume of the Philosophical Transactions. By the success that crowned his firse voyage Cook acquired a deservedly great reputation as a navigator in all countries. He not only solved the problem that Australia and New Zealand were distinct islands unconnected with the great Terra Australis Incognita, but he discovered a vast number of islands lurking in the bosom of the South Pacific Ocean, and made considerable additions to the knowledge of geography and navigation.

CHAPTER V.

SUBSEQUENT VISITS OF COOK, FURNEAUX, MARION, AND OTHER NAVIGATORS TO AUSTRALASIA.

FRENCH EXPEDITION UNDER MARION TO VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.—As evidence of the interest excited by the achievements of Cook in prosecuting discoveries in remote parts of the world, the French Government, within a few months after Cook's arrival in England from his first voyage, equipped an expedition to explore the South Seas. The command of this expedition was entrusted to a navigator possessed of the true spirit of discovery, M. Marion du Fresne. His instructions were to proceed to Otaheite, and there land a young native named Aoutourou or Mayoa, whom Bougainville had, a few years before, brought to Europe. He was then to explore the southern Pacific in quest of its hidden islands or continents, and follow up the researches of De Surville respecting the Island of Gold alleged to have been discovered by the English 700 leagues west of Peru, and inhabited by Jews who lived in luxury and splendour. The Abbé Rochon, in his "Voyages aux Indes Orientales," states that he was at Pondicherry, then a French settlement in India, in August, 1769, when the report was spread about the discovery, by the English, of this marvellous isle. It was from Pondicherry, on June 2nd, 1769, that De Surville sailed in the "St. Jean Baptiste," and as he failed to discover the new El Dorado, its existence began to be generally doubted, therefore Marion was ordered only to spend a short time in looking for it. The expedition comprised two ships, one the "Mascarin," commanded by Marion, and the other the "Marquis de Castries," commanded by M. Duclesmeur. The vessels sailed from the Isle of France on October 18th, 1771, and on reaching Madagascar the young native died from small-pox. Marion then pursued his voyage to the south-east, and on the 10th of February, 1772, touched at the west coast of Van Dieman's Land. After cruising off the coast he anchored in Frederik Hendrik Bay on March 4th to procure wood and water. On anchoring 30 natives were seen on the beach, and the next day, when a boat's crew landed, some natives made a pile of wood for them, at the same time presenting a lighted stick to the strangers who lit the pile with it. The natives were armed with spears and stone-axes. They had small eyes, wide mouths, flat noses, woolly hair like the Caffres, and well-made but slender forms. Their utterances apparently came from the bottom of the throat. They refused to receive any presents from the French, although colored cloths, iron and looking-glasses were offered them. Some French poultry was offered them by way of barter, but they took the fowls and threw them away in anger. When Marion landed a fire-stick was offered him by a native, and as soon as it was applied to a heap of wood by Marion, who believed such a proceeding was a ceremony of friendly intentions, the natives retired and threw a shower of stones and spears, some of which wounded Marion and Duclesmeur. The French then fired on the natives, wounding several and killing one outright. The natives set up a frightful howling and fled into the woods pursued by 15 armed Frenchmen. During the next six days the country was traversed two leagues inland for wood to make a foremast of, and also for fresh water, but neither of these necessaries could be obtained.

MARION VISITS NEW ZEALAND.—On March 10th, Marion quitted Van Dieman's Land and sailed eastward till March 24th, when they arrived off the S.W. extremity of the North Island of New Zealand, to which Cook had given the name of Cape Egmont, but which Marion called Le Pic Mascarin. Proceeding northerly till April 4th the island of the Three Kings was sighted. On the 10th, the ships put in to the mainland near Cape Maria Van Dieman, but were soon after driven from their anchorage by a gale of wind. Proceeding S.E. they, on May 3rd, were off Cape Brett, which Marion called Cap Quarre, and here they sent a boat ashore. Some Maories in three canoes came on board the Mascarin and readily eat some bread, but some spirituous liquor given them they drank with manifest repugnance. They put on some shirts and other habiliments, of which they seemed exceedingly vain. Tools, axes, scissors, and hatchets they examined, and showed they understood their uses, for which lesson in civilization they had doubtless been indebted to Cook and De Surville. Another batch of Maories were similarly treated, and some of them, including a chief named Tacouri, ate heartily and slept soundly on board all night. On May 11th, Marion sounded Cape Brett and anchored in the Bay of Islands, where the Maories supplied them with abundance of fish and appeared, by their whole conduct, to regard them as friends. The French having a vocabulary of the Otaheitean language on board, discovered that the Maori language was nearly the same, and found it a useful medium of communication.

MASSACRE OF MARION AND TWENTY-EIGHT OF HIS CREW.—The amicable intercourse between the French and Maories continued from May 3rd to June 12th, when a melancholy termination of their intimacy, friendship, and confidence occurred by the massacre of Marion and many of his officers and men. During this period the Maories were wont to come freely on board the French ships and often remain all night. On the other hand the French traversed the Maori villages, entering their houses, sharing their meals, occasionally making excursions into the interior, and putting themselves in every respect in their power. Every officer had his favourite Maori, whose cheerful services were purchased by trivial rewards. Marion was universally regarded as the one in authority, and he felt a corresponding degree of affection for the Maories. Crozet, who frequently looked with suspicion and precaution on the apparent state of harmony and mutual confidence, frequently pointed out to Marion the imprudence of his conduct in placing unbounded confidence in the honour of the Moaries, and tried to put him on his guard, but without success. Marion became more delighted than ever with his Maori friends when they, on June 8th, received him on shore with great honours and enthusiasm, and bestowed on him the high distinction, of decorating his hair with four white feathers, which form among the Maories the insignia of chieftainship. It was remarked after this day that the Maories discontinued their visits to the ships, and those who were met with wore an air of melancholy, and refused to receive any food or presents from the French. On the 12th Marion, with four superior officers and 12 of his ship's crew, at the invitation of the chief, Tacouri, went ashore to enjoy a day's fishing in Manawaoroa Bay. When evening approached those on board the ships were surprised at the party not returning, but entertained no suspicion that any misfortune had befallen them, as they supposed Marion had been prevailed upon to accept Tacouri's hospitable invitation to remain with him for the night. Early next morning a boat from the Marquis de Castries was sent ashore for wood and water, and after an absence of four hours, one of the 12 occupants of that boat was seen swimming towards the ship from the shore in great distress. When he got on board he told a fearful narrative of how his comrades had been treacherously massacred. He said the Maories welcomed them ashore in a mostly friendly manner, even proffering to carry them on their backs from the boat through the shoal water to the dry shore. While the boat's crew unarmed were dispersed gathering wood, each man was suddenly seized and overpowered by six or eight Maories, who beat out the brains of their victim with their short stone war-clubs. In this manner 11 of the seamen were speedily despatched; only one, the relator of the bloody transaction, who, being attacked by only a few bloodthirsty assailants, contrived to extricate himself in the confusion, and with only a few wounds, plunged himself into a thick underwood hard by, where he lay concealed, and from which hiding-place he saw his messmates' bodies cut into pieces and divided among their murderers, who soon left the place with their portions, and then he obtained the opportunity to swim to the ship. Naturally, this horrible account gave cause for the greatest alarm for the safety of Marion and those with him, and with the utmost despatch the Mascarin's long-boat filled, with a well-armed party, was sent to the head of Manawaroa Bay, where Marion's boat was seen lying on the strand, filled and surrounded with a tumultuous crowd of Maories. There was little room to doubt what was the awful fate of Marion and his companions, and the boat's crew hastened to an adjoining island, where Crozet and 60 seamen were cutting down some kauri pines, to inform them what had happened, and warn them to save themselves from destruction by quitting the island with all possible expedition. Crozet was horror-struck at the intelligence, and wisely refrained from acquainting his party of what he had heard, lest they, exasperated to a phrenzy of rash revenge, would sacrifice their safety by a conflict with the Maories. The tools were collected and packed up in an orderly manner, and then Crozet marched the men in the direction of the boats through multitudes of Maories, who saluted them with cries of triumph, intimating that Tacouri had slain Marion and eaten his body. When the party halted to prepare for embarkation, the Maories encompassed them as if to attack them by a general rush, but this was prevented by Crozet seizing his musket and calling on them in a commanding voice to stand back. Crozet then drew a line between them and the seamen, and threatened to kill the first who overstepped it. In a similar extremity Captain Cook had resorted with success to this expedient when attacked in the same bay by Maories, and Crozet, adopting Cook's expedient, found that not one of the Maories ventured to cross his barrier. Crozet then ordered the Maories to sit down, which they did to the number of about 1000, on their chiefs repeating the word of command. The embarkation of the men and baggage lasted some

time, and when the last man stepped into the boat all the Maories, as if released from a spell, rose up at once with a loud shout, and with vociferous outcries and hideous gesticulations, hurled a shower of javelins and stones at the French fugitives as soon as they found they had been cheated of their prey. Numbers of the savages then wreaked their vengeance on the French huts, burning and otherwise demolishing them, while others pursued the boats into the water. The French now, at a short distance from the shore, poured shower after shower of musket balls among the savages who, stupefied with consternation as they saw their ranks mowed down, actually stood in heaps to be shot at. Crozet says all of them would have been slain had he not restrained his men from their murderous work. Despite these lamentable events, the French determined to get wood and water at all hazards, and next day a party found it necessary to destroy a village on the island of Moto Arohia, where 300 Maories were located. In this affray many Maories were killed. Several days after this a good many Maories, dressed in the murdered sailors' clothes, were pursued and shot. When the ships were ready to sail an armed party was sent ashore to inflict another chastisement on the Maories as a requital for the blood of their butchered countrymen. This party proceeded to the village belonging to Tacouri, and were just in time to see Tacouri running off with Marion's mantle hanging from his shoulders. On entering this chief's kitchen they found several pieces of human flesh, some raw and some roasted, with marks of teeth in them. In another house they found a shirt with Marion's name on it. As all the inhabitants of the village had fled, except a few old men, the French set fire to it, and also destroyed another village near it (belonging to a confederate of Tacouri's), where remnants of human flesh and other evidences of the horrible tragedy were found. Having thus revenged the death of their comrades, the French took possession of the country, or at least the northern isle which Marion had named *France Australe*, in the name of the King of France, and Crozet named the inlet (Cook's Bay of Islands), where the massacre and cannibalism took place, "The Bay of Treachery." Crozet, in his narrative of Marion's voyage, is silent as to any cause of offence given by the French to the Maories to lead to the sudden and terrible catastrophe narrated. Crozet says that nothing could have exceeded the cordiality and harmony in which the two parties lived together. "They treated us," is his expression, "with every show of friendship for 33 days, in the intention of eating us the 34th." Such alleged transcendent perfidy on the part of the Maories needed explanation, and it is singular that such explanation was not made known until the year 1851. In the winter of that year the French corvette L'Alemene, 32 guns, commanded by Count D'Harcourt, was totally wrecked 50 miles from the scene of Marion's massacre, on the opposite side of New Zealand. By this wreck 20 lives were lost, and many severely injured when the ship foundered. Dr. Thompson, who attended the wounded, says that one night there were upwards of 100 French sailors and nearly 200 Maories asleep on the plain when he overheard some old Maories converse about Marion's vessels visiting the Bay of Islands. They said that while a strong friendship existed between the two races, the French desecrated the Maories' sacred places, cooked food with tapued wood, and put two chiefs in irons; and, in revenge, their ancestors killed Marion and many of his people, and in the same spirit the French retaliated by burning villages and shooting the Maories. From enquiries made in 1853 the Maories allege that the French were the aggressors, for they cruelly requited the hospitality of the Maories on the 31st day by putting two chiefs in irons, and burning a Maori burial ground.

COOK'S SECOND VOYAGE AND SEARCH FOR THE SOUTHERN CONTINENT.—The publication of Cook's voyage revived the fondly cherished idea of the existence of a great southern continent, which the most eminent geographers entertained for upwards of two centuries. Cook half doubted its existence, for in the course of his first voyage he dispelled most of the reasons on which the notion of the continent was founded. However, as many plausible philosophical arguments were urged in its favour, the King, fully comprehending the importance of such a discovery, determined to munificently equip another expedition to finally and effectually set the much agitated question at rest. His Majesty's design was warmly taken up by the Earl of Sandwich, then at the head of the Admiralty, who held enlarged views of promoting such schemes. Parliamentary aid was invoked, and £4000 was granted as an "encouragement for the more effectually prosecuting of discoveries towards the South Pole." For many months the Earl spent much of his time organising the expedition, which was to circumnavigate the whole globe, especially in high southern latitudes, and discover the long-sought-for Terra Australis Incognita. The design of accomplishing this great object was entrusted to Cook, who selected two vessels built like the Endeavour at Whitby for the coal trade. These vessels were purchased from Captain William Hammond, of Hull, and were 16 months' old at the time. The largest was 462 tons burden, and named the Resolution. The other was 366 tons burden, and called the Adventure. On November 28th, 1771, Cook (with a crew of 112) was appointed to the command of the former vessel, and about the same date Captain Tobias Furneaux (with a crew of 81) was promoted to command the latter. The ships were fitted in a most complete manner with the best of stores, provisions and antiscorbutic articles for a long voyage. In the cause of science the Admiralty engaged Mr. William Hodges as landscape painter, and the board of longtitude agreed with Mr. William Wales and Mr. William Bayley to make astronomical observations. Banks and Solander were to have accompanied the expedition, but after making great preparations they were thwarted by the comptroller of the navy, and forced to give up their plans. However, Banks secured the appointment of Dr. John Reinhold Forster and his son as naturalists to the expedition. Such were the extensive preparations that the expedition did not leave Plymouth until July 13th, 1772. After a short stay for refreshments at Madera and Port Praya Bay in the Cape de Verd Islands, the ships, on September 30th, anchored in Table Bay, Cape of Good Hope. Here Mr. Forster induced Cook to receive on board an assistant naturalist, Dr. Sparmann, a Swede, and a disciple of Linnæus. While the ship was refitting Baron Plettenberg, Governor of the Cape, gave Cook information about two French ships eight months previously discovered land in 48 deg., S., and of Marion's expedition having in March left the Cape for the South Seas. On November 22nd Cook proceeded on his voyage, and according to Admiralty instructions, directed his course southward in quest of Cape de la Circumcision, reported as discovered by Bouvet in 1738 in lat. 54-20 S., and between 9 and 11 of E. long., to ascertain if it formed part of the great southern continent. From November 29th to December 6th the ships were driven by heavy gales to the eastward, and on the 10th the ships were encompassed with ice-islands (some 50 feet high and two miles in circuit), which perpetually succeeded each other. On the 17th the Antarctic Circle was crossed in long. 39-35, and next day they were imbayed with fields of ice. It was sufficiently ascertained by the 29th that no land existed behind the field of ice, along the edge of which the ships had sailed nearly 100 leagues. After a succession of heavy gales and hazy weather, they reached, on January 17th, 1773, lat. 67-15 S., where the ice closed to the S., and from E. to W. S. E. there was not the least appearance of any opening to the southward through the endless barrier of ice. On February 1st they were in the situation of the spot assigned by Bouvet to Cape Circumcision, and though to extend the search the ships kept four miles apart, no land was seen; therefore Cook concluded that what Bouvet took for land was a mountain of ice. On the 8th the ships unintentionally separated, and Cook's ship proceeded alone on her voyage. On the 17th and 20th the beautiful phenomenon of the Aurora Australis was twice seen in great splendour, the spiral rays that broke out in the east spreading rapidly over the whole heavens. Cook says he never heard that an Aurora Australis was seen before. On the 24th a terrific gale destroyed numerous ice-islands, and frequently the ships were in great danger. The scene was most awe-inspiring, and greatly heightened by the roaring and foaming of the sea into the ice-caverns. From the swell of the ocean and other circumstances experienced between the 28th and March 11th, Cook concluded that there was no land south but what must lie at a great distance, so for the present abandoned further search and sailed to Queen Charlotte's Sound in New Zealand, the rendezvous appointed with Furneaux in case the ships got separated.

COOK'S SECOND VISIT TO NEW ZEALAND.—After being 117 days at sea, and having sailed 3660 leagues without seeing land, Cook, on March 26th, anchored in Dusky Bay. The next day the Resolution anchored on the S.E. side of Pickersgill Harbour, discovered by Lieutenant Pickersgill. After planting some gardens, stocking the country with some geese, and some friendly intercourse with the Maories, Cook left Dusky Bay on May 11th and anchored on the 18th in Ship Cove, where he had laid three weeks on his first voyage.

FURNEAUX VISITS TASMANIA AND NEW ZEALAND.—When the Adventure accidentally separated from the Resolution in a thick fog, on February 7th, 1773, Captain Furneaux (who was second lieutenant to Wallis) steered a northerly course, and, on March 9th, sighted the west coast of Van Dieman's Land. He anchored in a bay which he called Adventure Bay, inside an island now called Bruni Island. Sailing along the east coast he failed to discover the straits discovered by Bass in 1798, believing that Van Dieman's Land formed portion of New Holland. Cook intended to have surveyed the coast to ascertain if there was such a strait, but as his colleague, Furneaux, reported the existence of a deep bay intervening where Cook thought there was a strait, the design was abandoned. Sailing westward, Furneaux, on April 7th, sailed through Cook's Straits and anchored in Queen Charlotte's Sound, where he had a friendly intercourse with the Maories until May 18th, when Cook's ship arrived in the harbour and joined her consort after a separation of 16 weeks.

COOK AND FURNEAUX'S CRUISE AMONG THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.—Cook and Furneaux's ships continued in the harbour, which Cook called Ship Cove, until June 7th, when they sailed for the Society Islands. The ships sailed eastward till July 17th without seeing land,

and then proceeded a N.E. course without finding any continent between New Zealand and America. The voyagers met some low islands, which Cook called Resolution, Doubtful, and Furneaux Islands; but these islands are supposed to be those seen by Bougainville. After a vain search for Pitcairn Island, discovered by Carteret in 1767, the ships sailed for Otaheite to recruit the health of the Adventure's crew, which was suffering terribly from scurvy. Otaheite was reached on August 15th, and after a short stay there the ships cruised among the Friendly Islands. The season for prosecuting further researches for the southern continent in high southern latitudes having arrived, it was determined to visit New Zealand for wood and water.

COOK'S THIRD VISIT TO NEW ZEALAND.—On October 7th, the Resolution and Adventure quitted Amsterdam, and next day passed Pelsart Island, discovered by Tasman. On the 21st, Cape Table, on the coast of New Zealand, was sighted, but the ships, exposed to a variety of tempestuous weather, beat about the coast off Capes Palliser and Campbell until the 28th. By a furious storm, which lasted two days, they were driven off the land, and in the course of the bad weather that succeeded this storm (on the night of October 29th) the Adventure separated from the Resolution and was not heard of by Cook during the rest of the voyage. It was not until November 3rd that Cook regained his old station in Ship's Cove, where he had the mortification to find his ship's rigging much damaged, and the ship's bread and 4292 lbs. of flour totally destroyed. In the former part of his voyage he and Furneaux benevolently endeavoured to stock the country with useful animals, and it was now found that the Maories had separated the boar from two sows which Furneaux had put ashore, and a rascally Maori, named Goubiah, had killed two goats Cook had set ashore. Nothing daunted by this, Cook gave the Maories a boar, a sow, two cocks, and two hens, and, unknown to the Maories, landed, some distance inland from the bottom of West Bay, three sows and 1 boar, together with two cocks and two hens. Excepting the potatoes, he found everything in the gardens he had planted in a flourishing condition. On the 26th, finding that the Adventure did not arrive at the appointed rendezvous in the Sound, he buried a memorandum for Furneaux in a bottle under a tree in the garden and quitted New Zealand.

FURNEAUX'S SECOND VISIT TO NEW ZEALAND AND MASSACRE OF PART OF HIS CREW.—It will be remembered that in October the Resolution and Adventure parted company in a gale of wind, and that Cook regained Ship Cove, where he remained three weeks and then bore away towards the south-east. Meanwhile, Furneaux was blown off the coast and attacked by violent gales until November 6th, when he anchored in Tologa Bay. After taking in wood and water he sailed for Ship Cove, which he reached on the 30th, and not finding the Resolution there he feared her safety. However, on going ashore, he found where Cook's party had erected their tents, and observed cut on the stump of an old tree in the garden, the words "Look underneath." This enabled him to find Cook's letter in the bottle, stating his arrival and departure, and his intention to spend a few days outside the straits searching for the Adventure. By the 17th the ship was ready to sail the next morning, when Furneaux sent off, in a cutter, a midshipman named Rowe, and a boat's crew of nine men to gather a few wild greens, with orders to return in the evening. As the cutter did not return that night or the next morning, Furneaux became uneasy, and, hoisting out the launch, despatched her with his second lieutenant (Lieutenant Burney, afterwards Rear-Admiral Burney, the author of "The Chronological History of Discoveries in the South Seas"), manned with a boat's crew and ten marines in search of her. Firing into the coves, the search party got no reply, and when about to abandon the search they saw, on a beach adjoining Grass Cove, a large double canoe, just hauled up, and two Maories and a dog near it. On seeing the Englishmen the Maories ran away, whereupon Burney and his companions landed, and found that another horrible massacre had taken place. They found in the canoe one of Mr. Rowe's shoes, and on the beach a human hand tattoed "T. H." which belonged to one of the forecastle men named Thomas Hill. Burney's narrative of this fearful massacre in Cook's voyages is exceedingly interesting. Around Grass Cove were collected numbers of Maories, who invited Burney to land, but he feared them and dispersed them by firing among their ranks. After landing with the marines he says "On the beach were two bundles of celery which had been gathered for loading the cutter; a broken oar was stuck upright in the ground, to which the natives had tied their canoes, a proof that the attack had been made here. I then searched all along at the back of the beach to see if the cutter was there. We found no boat, but, instead of her, such a shocking scene of carnage and barbarity as can never be mentioned nor thought of but with horror." The unfortunate men, the best hands of the Adventure, had been butchered and eaten, parts of their bodies being strewn on the beach. It was not until Cook made his fifth and last visit to New Zealand that the cause of the melancholy fate of the boat's crew was revealed. Through an interpreter, Cook then ascertained that the unfortunate men on landing sat down to dinner at about 100 yards distance from the boat, which was in charge of Furneaux's black servant. While the party were surrounded with Maories, one of the Maories tendered a stone hatchet to barter, but the man to whom it was offered seized it and would neither give anything for it nor return it. The Maori then snatched up some bread and fish as an equivalent, for which the sailors beat him. About the same time the black servant detected a Maori stealing something from the boat and struck him with a stick. His cries exasperated his countrymen, who attacked the English. Two Maories were then shot, and before the English could reload their muskets the Maories overpowered them and slew them with their stone hatchets. A chief named Kehoora confessed to Cook that he slew Mr. Rowe. There was no bloodshed premeditated by the Maories, and if the thefts had not been so hastily resented the fray would not have occurred. On the 23rd, Furneaux left New Zealand, doubled Cape Horn, and arrived at Spithead on July 14th, 1774.

COOK'S SECOND SEARCH FOR THE SOUTHERN CONTINENT.—On November 25th, Cook sailed from New Zealand in search of the Southern Continent, and steered south, inclining to the east. On December 6th, he crossed the Antipodes of London, and, on the 12th, saw the first ice island. Navigation now became difficult and dangerous, as ice islands continually occurred, and gales of wind, attended with thick fogs, showers of snow, sleet, and rain were the order of the day. Cook says "In the morning of the 26th the whole sea was covered with ice, 200 large islands and upwards being seen within the compass of four or five miles, which was the limit of our horizon, besides smaller pieces innumerable." At times the ship drifted with and at the same rate as the islands. On January 26th, 1774, Cook crossed the Antarctic Circle for the third time, and, on the 30th, reached 71-10 of South latitude, and 106-54 W. longitude. Cook says he passed pieces of seaweed covered with barnacles, and on which were some brown albatrosses; and he also saw 97 ice hills looking "like a ridge of mountains one above another till they were lost in the clouds." Cook, thinking he had gone as far as it was possible for man to go, and that it would be folly and madness to proceed further south, tacked and stook back to the northward. Cook says, "It was indeed my opinion, as well as the opinion of most on board, that this ice extended quite to the Pole, or, perhaps, joined to some land, to which it had been fixed from the earliest time." He was satisfied that no continent existed in the Southern Ocean between the 50th and 70th parallels, but thought land must lie so far to the south as to be wholly inaccessible on account of the ice. The author has shown, in the first chapter, what discoveries have been made in the Antarctic Ocean since Cook's time, and how Weddell, in 1823, and others penetrated 214 geographical miles further south than Cook, and how Sir James Clark Ross, in 1841, in latitude 78-4, discovered the Great South Polar Barrier, and traversed its perpendicular icy shores, which are nearly 200 feet above the level of the sea, for a distance of 450 miles.

COOK DISCOVERS NEW CALEDONIA, NORFOLK ISLAND, &C.—In pursuing his course to the north, Cook, for several days, was dangerously ill from a bilious colic, but recovered under the skilful treatment of Mr. Patten, the ship's surgeon. During Cook's sickness Mr. Cooper, the first officer, managed the ship. On March 11th, the navigators reached Easter Island, or Davis's Land, and, on April 7th, the four islands, known as the Marquesas, were sighted. On April 22nd, Otaheite was again visited, and after cruising three or four months among the Society and Friendly Islands, Cook, on July 16th, sighted several islands which De Quiros had designated (Australis Del Espirito Santo) a southern continent. In 1768, Bougainville re-discovered these lands and called them the Great Cyclades. After exploring and discovering most of the islands of this archipelago, Cook bestowed on them the appelation of the New Hebrides. On September 4th, Cook discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the South Pacific Ocean next to New Zealand and Tasmania. He caused an inscription to be cut on a large tree, setting forth the name of the ship, the date of the year, and that the island belonged to Great Britain. Despite this, the French Government, on September 20th, 1853, seized and colonised the island. It is 200 miles long and 30 miles wide, and lies 720 miles E.N.E. from Brisbane, and 1050 miles from Sydney. The principal interests in this island are British although it is a French penal settlement. The population is 60,000, made up of Kanakas or Papuans, and 16,000 Europeans, of which 3,000 are civilians, and 13,000 military and exiles. Various outrages have been committed on the whites by the natives. In December, 1864, the British Mission station, established in 1854, was attacked by the natives. On October 12th, 1867, the natives massacred 11 and wounded 14 colonists. In June, 1878, the natives, after murdering La Chene and family, rose *en masse* on the soldiers going to arrest the murderers, and massacred 128 colonists. The rebellious tribes held their ground against the troops for some time, but by the aid of friendly tribes immense numbers of the rebels were killed. Communists (notably Rochefort and others, in March, 1874,) escaped from the island to Australia. On October 1st the Resolution pursued her southward course, and on the 9th, sighted an uninhabited island of good height and five leagues in circuit. Cook named it Norfolk Isle in honour of the noble family of Howard, Duke of Norfolk. Various

trees and plants common to New Zealand were observed, especially the flax plant, which grew more luxuriantly than in any part of that country. Cook's representations that the pines, the natural produce of the isle, would be found suitable timber for masts, and the flax make good cordage, induced the British Government to take possession of Norfolk Island, and on March 6th, 1788, Lieutenant King and a party of 24 persons formed a settlement on it. On March 24th, 1790, the population of the island was 498 (of whom 190 men and 100 women were bond), and in 1793 there were 1008 inhabitants. In 1805 the settlement was abandoned and the settlers, mostly emancipists, conveyed to Tasmania and Sydney. On August 15th, 1826, the island was appointed a penal settlement for the worst kind of offenders, and until 1857, when the descendants of the mutineers of the Bounty left Pitcairn Island and took possession of the island, the chronicle of crime and suffering on Norfolk Island exceeds that of any known place in the world. The Pitcairners now number nearly 600 souls.

Cook's Fourth Visit to New Zealand.—From Norfolk Island Cook steered for New Zealand, and on October 18th the Resolution was moored at her old anchorage in Ship Cove. On landing he found the gardens at Motuara flourishing, although neglected by the Maories. Finding the bottle and letter placed under the tree in the garden had been taken away, and from such an indubitable circumstance as timber having been cut near the place, Cook rightly believed that the Adventure had been there. None of the Maories appeared until the 24th, when some of them hallooed to a boat in which Cook was, but as the boat drew near to the shore they all took flight to the woods. Cook was not aware that the timidity and shyness of the Maories arose from their remembrance of the murder of Furneaux's boat's crew and the fear of its being revenged. However, the Maories laid aside all manner of restraint and distrust on seeing the Resolution, for Cook says, "The moment we landed they knew us, joy then took place of fear; and the rest of the natives hurried out of the woods and embraced us over and over again, leaping and skipping about like madmen." Much concerned at the mysterious conversation of the Maories Cook, notwithstanding all his enquiries, did not ascertain anything about the misfortune that had befallen the Adventure. The Maories were very peaceable and friendly to Cook during his stay here.

Cook's Third Search for thl Southern Continent.—Cook took his departure from New Zealand on November 10th in further prosecution of his great object of determining the question concerning the existence of a southern continent. Steering S. by E., in different degrees of latitudes, extending from 43 to 53-48, S., directly across the ocean, he gave up all hopes of discovering any more lands, and on 17th December he reached, and subsequently explored, the desolate and mountainous coast of Terra del Fuega. On the 28th Cook sailed from Christmas Sound, round Cape Horn, through Strait le Maire to Staten Land. Sailing southward he reached Wallis Island and Bird Isle. On the 17th of January, 1775, an extensive range of country, whose wild rocks raised their summits until they were lost in the clouds, and the valleys lay covered with everlasting snow, was discovered and named Isle of Georgia, in honour of His Majesty. To the most distinguished tracts of country discovered between January 31st and February 6th Cook gave the names of Cape Bristol, Cape Montagu, Saunders Isle, Candlemas Isles, and Sandwich Isles or Archipelago. Having completed the purpose of his navigation round the globe, and traversed the Southern Ocean in a high latitude, as well as having twice visited the tropical sea, Cook left no room for the possibility of a southern continent, unless near the Pole, and almost out of the reach of navigation. Between February 25th and March 13th, an unsuccessful search was made for the Isles Denia and Marseveen, laid down in Dr. Halley's variation chart, and then the Resolution steered for the Cape of Good Hope. In pursuance of Admiralty instructions, Cook demanded and received all the log books and journals kept by the officers and the ship's company, who were strictly enjoined not to divulge where they had been or relate any of their extraordinary enterprises or adventures until permitted to do so by the Admiralty. On March 21st, the Resolution anchored in Table Bay at the Cape of Good Hope, where Cook received a letter from Furneaux detailing his adventures.

Cook's Arrival in England.—On the remainder of Cook's voyage from the Cape of Good Hope, which he left on April 27th, until the 30th July, when he anchored at Spithead and landed at Portsmouth, it is not necessary to enlarge. Suffice to say he had been absent from Great Britain three years and 18 days, in which time, through great hardships and privations, under all changes of climates, from 52 N. to 71 S. latitude, he had lost but four men, and only one of them by sickness. He had sailed upwards of 20,000 leagues, nearly equal to three times the equatorial circumference of the earth, without losing a mast or a yard, although his ships sails and rigging were fairly worn out.

Honours Paid Cook.—The additions Cook made to geography, navigation and astronomy by his illustrious labours and services on his second voyage, won for him the esteem, admiration, and friendship of the King, the most eminent followers of philosophic literature, and all ranks of society. On August 9th, the King caused him to be raised to the rank of a Post-Captain. As a more substantial reward for his services he was, on August 12th, appointed a Captain of Greenwich Hospital, and on February 29th, 1776, he was unanimously elected a member of the Royal Society. On March 7th, Cook read an able paper to the society, giving an account of the system which he adopted for preserving the health and lives of his crew, and, on the 18th, he read another paper relative to the tides in the South Seas. Both these papers are published in the "Philosophical Transactions," volume 66. They being the best experimental papers of the year, Sir John Pringle, President of the Royal Society, in a high eulogium, at the request of the society, bestowed upon Cook the estimable gold medal given by Sir Godfrey Copley annually for the promotion of science. Cook published his own journal of his second voyage, illustrated with maps and engravings, and his style is clear, natural, and manly, and in point of composition reflects great credit on his intelligence and ability.

Cook's Third Expedition Organised.—While Cook was exploring the Southern Ocean the attention of the British Government was turned towards discoveries in the Arctic regions. The practicability of a shorter and more profitable course of sailing by a north-east passage round North America to Japan, China, and the East Indies instead of the tedious and dangerous circuit round the Cape of Good Hope had been the favourite object of bold navigators from Frobisher's first voyage in 1576 to those of James and Fox in 1631. By these expeditions Hudson's Bay and Baffin's Bay were discovered, but the wished-for passage was unattained. Unsuccessful attempts were then made to sail round the north of Asia in an eastern direction by English and Dutch navigators. After Wood's failure in 1676 the object of pursuit slumbered until 1741, when, at the instance of Mr. Dobbs, the Government sent out Captain Middleton in 1741, and Captains Smith and Moore in 1746, to discover a north-west passage through Hudson's Bay. Lord Mulgrave, with two ships, also sailed to determine how far navigation was practicable to the north, but all these navigators experienced insuperable difficulties. In 1745 the British Parliament, to give every encouragement to the prosecution of this great design, offered a reward of £20,000 for the discovery of the passage through Hudson's Bay. This act was defective, for the King's ships were excluded from receiving the reward, and the passage was fixed to be through Hudson's Bay. However, these defects were effectually remedied by another act passed in 1776, which enacted that a reward would be given to any ship belonging to His Majesty's subjects, or His Majesty who should first sail through any passage by sea between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans in any direction or parallel of the northern hemisphere to the N. of 52 of N. lat. Lieutenant Pickersgill was sent out in 1776 to explore Baffin's Bay, and the following year Lieutenant Young was commissioned to endeavour to find the passage, but both failed to merit the reward. The grandeur and dignity to navigation and science by the discovery of a north-west passage was freely discussed by the most eminent men of the day, and the Earl of Sandwich, a warm advocate of its practicability, determined to equip an expedition to solve the problem. The noble Earl, in order to obtain the best advice, invited Captain Cook, Sir Hugh Palliser, and Mr. Stephens to dinner to talk the matter over, and appoint a commander to the expedition. It was deemed unreasonable to ask Cook to engage in fresh perils, as it was thought he would sit down in repose after his many years of severe toil and labour, in his quiet berth in Greenwich Hospital. At the dinner many things were said concerning the vastness and grandeur of the design, when, to the surprise of all, Cook, fired with the contemplation of the glorious prospects of such an expedition, started to his feet, and declared that he himself would undertake the command and direction of the enterprise. This unexpected proposal pleased all the Lords of the Admiralty, especially the Earl of Sandwich, who laid it before the King, and procured the appointment of Cook to the command of the expedition on February 10th, 1776. On 6th July, 1776, Cook received instructions from the Admiralty to proceed into the Pacific Ocean through the chain of new islands visited by him in the southern tropic, and after crossing the equator in the northern parts, he was to proceed northward as far as lat. 65, and then determine if a passage existed from the Pacific to the Atlantic, between Asia and America. Two ships, the Resolution, commanded by Cook; and the Discovery, commanded by Captain Clerke, a vessel of 300 tons, were fitted out with everything that could promote the health and comfort of the crews, and the scientific objects of the voyage. Cook's ship, the Resolution, left Plymouth on July 12th, 1776, and reached the Cape on October 18th. Her consort, the Discovery, was delayed, and did not sail from England until August 1st. Through bad weather she did not reach the Cape and effect her junction with the Resolution until November 10th.

Cook Visits Van Dieman's Land.—The Resolution and Discovery sailed from the Cape on December 2nd, and on the 16th touched at Kerguelen's Land, which Cook called the Island of Desolation from its sterility. Nothing very remarkable occurred

to the voyagers till the 24th of January, 1777, when the coast of Van Dieman's Land was sighted, and on the 26th the ships anchored in Adventure Bay. As soon as the ships anchored Cook, went ashore and found abundance of wood and water. On the 28th the English, when cutting wood, were agreeably surprised by a visit from eight naked Tasmanian men and a native boy, who approached them unarmed with perfect confidence and freedom. Their faces, woolly hair, and beards were smeared with red ointment, and their bodies, in straight and curved lines, were marked with large punctures or ridges. Every present Cook made them they received without the least appearance of satisfaction. Two pigs Cook brought ashore to run wild they seized by the ears, as if to carry them away with no other intention than to kill them. One of them had a stick two feet long, and at Cook's request to show its use, he threw it at a mark 20 yards off several times with anything but commendable dexterity. Omai, an Otaheitian, to show the superiority of the Englishmen's weapons, fired his musket at a mark, and the blacks rushed terrified into the bush. On the 29th Cook again landed, and was met by about 20 Tasmanian blacks, who did not manifest any sign of fear and distrust. Each of the blacks received a string of beads and a medal with some satisfaction, but on tools of iron they set no value. They did not seem endued with any accuteness of understanding. After Cook left the shore several women (with kangaroo skins tied over their shoulders to support their young) and children, many of whom had fine features, made their appearance, and were introduced to Lieutenant King by some of the men who attended them. Neither canoes nor huts were seen. During Cook's stay he obtained a plentiful crop of grass.

Cook's Fifth and Last Visit to New Zealand.—On the 30th of January, 1777, Cook left Adventure Bay, Tasmania, and steered eastward until February 10th, when he descried Rock Point on the west coast of the south island of New Zealand. On the morning of the 12th he came to an anchor at his old station in Ship Cove, where he had not lain long before several canoes came alongside. At first few natives would venture on board, and Cook attributed their shyness to their apprehension that he had come to revenge the massacre of Furneaux's men, as they saw he brought with him Omai, who was on board the Adventure when the melancholy affair happened. However, Cook assured them he had no hostile intentions, and the English having formed an encampment on shore, numbers of Maories resided close to them. While the ship was being refitted Cook and Mr. Anderson obtained much knowledge of the manners and customs of the Maories and productions of New Zealand. At different times Cook had left about a dozen hogs and some poultry on shore, and he was gratified to hear that a Maori named Tiratou had reared a number of cocks and hens, and some sows. The gardens contained cabbages, onions, leeks, parsley, radishes, mustard, and potatoes, growing in wild profusion. To one chief Cook gave a male and female goat and a kid, and to another two pigs, a boar, and a sow, the chiefs promising not to kill them. At the request of Omai Cook took on board his ship two Maori youths, one aged 18 years and the other 10. On the 25th Cook sailed out of the Sound, and by the 27th quitted New Zealand for the Society Islands. The young Maories, getting sea-sick, deeply repented of the step they had taken, and gave way to fits of lamentation in a kind of song expressive of their country and people. By degrees they forgot their sorrows, and became attached to the voyagers. They were left by Cook at Huaheine, where a hut, a garden, and some firearms were given them, but their transplanted lot was unhappy, and they died a few years afterwards.

Cook's Search for the Northern Passage.—Cook left New Zealand on February 27th, 1777, and cruised among the Friendly, Society and Sandwich Islands. He then pursued a northerly course until March 7th, 1778, when he reached New Albion in latitude 44-33 N., and longitude 235-20 E. As he ranged along the west side of America he gave names to several capes and headlands. Proceding further north, amid numberless obstructions and difficulties, he traversed the Icy Sea beyond Behrings Straits and reached latitude 70-41 N. without finding the north-east passage. The ice increasing every day, and the season for the frost to set in having advanced, Cook retraced his course in the hope of making another attempt to find the passage next summer.

Cook's Fatal Encounter with the Sandwich Islanders.—On January 17th, 1779, Cook's expedition anchored in the Bay of Karakakooa, in Owhyee, or Hawaii; one of the islands Cook discovered and named Sandwich Islands, after the Earl of Sandwich, his great friend and patron. This bay had been examined by Lieutenant William Bligh (who sailed four years under Cook, and afterwards became Governor of New South Wales and an Admiral), who reported it as an accessible situation for the refitting of the Resolution and to obtain refreshment. Here the vessels were crowded with natives (the native King, Kariopoo, and his chiefs being among them), and surrounded with multitudes of canoes. The natives expressed their joy by singing and shouting, and exhibiting various wild and extravagant gestures. The singularity of the scene greatly impressed the navigators, few of whom now lamented the want of success of getting home the previous summer by a northern passage. "To this disappointment," says Cook, "we owed our having it in our power to revisit the Sandwich Islands and to enrich our voyage with a discovery which, though the last, seemed, in many respects, to be the most important that had hitherto been made by Europeans throughout the extent of the Pacific Ocean." This is the last sentence Cook recorded in his journal, and little did he think that the Island of Owhyhee was destined to be the last scene of his exploits and of his death. Upon going ashore, Cook was received with very extraordinary and peculiar ceremonies, indicating the highest respect of the natives, who in hundreds fell prostrate before him. The ceremonies seemed to fall little short of adoration, and were only accounted for by Cook being considered one of their legendary heroes. The kind, liberal, quiet, and inoffensive behaviour of the natives took away every apprehension of danger. On February 4th, Cook's ships sailed from the bay, followed by a large number of canoes, but on the 6th they were overtaken by gales of wind, which sprung the head of the Resolution's foremast in such a dangerous manner that Cook had to return to the bay. The next day, February 12th, King Kariopoo, with a large train of chiefs, visited the ships, and some time was spent in a reciprocation of presents, civilities, and solemnities. On the 13th the ships were crowded with natives, who committed several thefts. One native detected stealing the armourer's tongs was flogged, and another native, who jumped overboard with the same tongs, escaped with them to the shore in a canoe, although several muskets were fired at him. Fearing hostilities, a chief named Pareah went ashore, and soon returned the missing articles to the master of the ship, who demanded as a reprisal the thief or his canoe. On the canoe being seized, Pareah claimed it, and caught hold of the officer who was carrying it off, when a sailor with an oar struck Pareah, who relaxed his hold of the officer, snatched the oar and broke it across his knee. The natives then, with stones, attacked the seamen, who were almost overpowered, when Pareah interfered and put an end to the conflict. During the night the sentinels at the observatories were terrified at the melancholy sounds of lamentation of the native women in the adjacent village, whose minds were filled with fears of impending danger to their husbands from the conflict. To widen the breach some natives stole the Discovery's large cutter in the night, and next morning (Sunday, the 14th), when Cook heard of the theft, he determined to land and get the king into his possession as an hostage for the boat. Cook landed at the upper end of the town of Kavaroah, and as he passed along the natives prostrated themselves before him, and treated him with great reverential respect. After some trouble he met the king, who was awakened from his sleep, and who, at Cook's request, readily consented to go on board. The natives did not seem alarmed or apprehensive of hostility, at which Cook expressed surprise, and felt convinced that they were innocent of stealing the cutter. While the king was sitting at his door surrounded by a great crowd, which Prince Kanynah and his brother, Koohowrooah, kept in order, it was soon observed that the natives began arming themselves with spears, clubs, daggers, and mats. These signs of hostility became more alarming when two natives in a canoe came across the bay and reported that their chief, Kareemo, had been killed by seamen belonging to the Discovery. A troublesome old priest persistently endeavoured to divert the strangers' attention from his countrymen, who were growing more tumultous. Cook, surrounded by armed natives, thought his position hazardous, and ordered his lieutenant to march the marines to the boats at the waterside. The natives readily made a lane for the marines to pass through, and Cook followed them, having hold of the king's hand, who was attended by his wife, two sons, and several chiefs. The king's youngest son, Keowa, first entered the pinnace, expecting his father to follow, but the queen threw her arms around the king's neck, and, with the aid of two chiefs forced him to sit down beside a double canoe. Cook expostulated with them, but they refused to let the king proceed, saying he would be put to death on the ship. The king then resigned himself to the will of his friends, hung his head, and appeared distressed. It was then observed that a chief named Coho had an iron dagger concealed under his cloak, seemingly to stab Cook. Coho, closing upon them, compelled the lieutenant to strike him with his musket, which made him retire. Another native then tried to wrench a musket from the sergeant, but was prevented from doing so by the lieutenant aiming a blow at him. Cook observing the tumult increase, and the natives growing more resolute and daring, abandoned his plan to carry off the king by force. As he was on the point of giving the order to his party to re-embark a stone was thrown at him, which he returned with small shot from one barrel of his double piece. The thrower having a thick mat in front of him as a shield, received no hurt, and brandished his spear. He threatened to dart the spear at Cook, who knocked him down with his musket. Cook strongly expostulated with the most turbulent natives, and determined to act on the defensive to secure a safe embarkation of his men, who were closely pressed by several thousand natives. One native behind a canoe was observed in the act of darting his spear at Cook, who fired at

him, and unintentionally killed another native who was forward in the tumult. The sergeant, by Cook's order, then shot the real delinquent, which act repressed the impetuosity of the natives, who staggered back. The natives were then pushed forward by those behind, and poured a volley of stones among the marines, who, without orders, retaliated by a general discharge of musketry, followed by firing from those in the boats. Cook expressed astonishment at the firing, and waved his hand to his men to cease firing, and for the boats to come nearer the shore to receive the marines. Notwithstanding the showers of stones Mr. Roberts brought the pinnace close in to the shore, but the lieutenant who commanded the launch, instead of pulling in to Cook's assistance, mistook the signal, and withdrew the launch further off, leaving Cook and the marines to the fury of the savages. However, the pinnace saved most of the marines, who were driven into the water by the natives, but the boat became so crowded that the occupants were prevented from using their firearms. During the confusion Cook and four of his party, Corporal Thomas, Theophilus Hinks, John Allen, and Thomas Flabehett, were killed, and the lieutenant, the sergeant, and two seamen, were wounded. Cook was observed making for the pinnace, when the launch pulled off, holding his left hand against the back of his head to guard it from the stones, when a native named Karimano Craha advanced upon him unawares, and dealt him a blow on his head with a club and then precipitately retreated. Stunned by the blow, Cook staggered a few paces, fell on his hand and right knee, and dropped his musket. He then made an effort to rise, but a native named Nooah stabbed him with an iron dagger in the back of his neck. Falling into shallow water he struggled strongly with the natives who tried to drown him. Once he raised his head up and looked earnestly at those in the pinnace, which was only five or six yards distant from him, as if to implore their assistance, but the crowded and confused state of the boat rendered them powerless to rescue him. The natives dragged Cook into deep water, where they again held his head under to drown him, and, just as his strength was almost spent, he struggled to a rock to which he clung for support. While hanging in an exhausted state on the rock, a savage gave him a blow with a club, and he was seen alive no more. The savages then hauled his lifeless body to the top of the rock, and appeared to take pleasure in literally piercing their victim with daggers, which they passed from one to another. This melancholy event happened at 8 a.m., one hour after Cook landed. It was altogether unforeseen and unexpected, as well on the part of the natives as the Englishmen. There was nothing of a preconcerted design on the part of the natives, who naturally became alarmed for the safety of their king, consequently the sudden confiict was entirely accidental. It seems that Pareah was the ringleader of the hostilities, and brought about the disaster by employing some natives to steal the boat. The king knew nothing of the boat being stolen till Cook told him, and he and his sons did not witness the conflict, as they withdrew when the tumult commenced. The natives told Mr. Ellis, the missionary, that after Cook's death they "all wailed," and it is a well-known fact that they so loved and venerated his memory, that, up to the time idolatry was abolished, in Owhyee Cook's presents were worshipped as sacred relics by the natives. The shame and indignation that was felt at the lieutenant's conduct, in mistaking Cook's signal, was increased by the fact that when Cook's remains had been deserted and left exposed on the beach the same officer neglected to bring them off, although there seemed no great obstacle to prevent their recovery. However, owing to the barbarous manner the natives treat the dead body of an enemy, the whole of Cook's remains could not be recovered. By threatenings and negotiations with the natives, the principal portion of them were procured and placed in a coffin, which was consigned to the deep on the 21st with the usual military honours.

NATIVE ACCOUNT OF COOK'S DEATH AT HAWAII.—Early in 1878 His Excellency F. A. Weld, Governor of Tasmania, gave an account to the Royal Society of that colony of his visit to the volcanoes of Hawaii, and, remarking on Cook's discovery of the island in 1778, he stated that a tradition had existed among the natives to the effect "that Lomo, the god of fire, white-skinned and fair-haired, had been driven forth with his followers, on account of some indiscretion into which the natural fervour of his disposition had led him. Nevertheless, it was understood that he would one day return across the sea to revisit his ancient abode. When the sails of Cook's ships were seen rising above the blue waters of the Pacific, and moving shoreward, a cry was raised that Lomo and the fire god was returning. Priests and people flocked to the beach, and when they saw the strange appearance of the Englishmen, their white faces, smoke (of the fragrant weed) issuing from their mouths, and still more, when they saw and heard the fire of the guns, doubt was converted into certainty; victims were prepared, and the great navigator was led to the sacrificial temple or enclosure of terraced stones, and sacrifice was offered to him. Unfortunately, disputes which arose led the natives to believe that Lomo, or his followers, had not forgotten their ancient propensities, and having failed, as they thought, to propitiate him with their sacrifices and offerings, they resolved to inflict a fresh term of banishment upon him, and to drive him again across the seas. As Cook was retreating to his boat, under pressure of the angry and menacing crowd, one native, more excited than the rest, pushed him violently, causing him pain, which Cook showed by an exclamation or gesture. They then saw that he was sensible to pain, and, consequently, but mortal, and a native at once dealt him a heavy blow with a weapon. He fell wounded, and was quickly killed. to their astonishment at first, and subsequent regret." This statement, as will be seen on comparison, explains some points that were left doubtful in the narrative of Cook's memorable voyage. The natives showed the highest mark of respect to the bones of Captain Cook that had not been recovered by his officers. They disposed of them in the usual way they treat the remains of their kings or chiefs. They collected them, then wrapped them in holy cloth and placed them in a casket, which they deposited in a crevice of a precipitous rock, which was afterwards rendered inaccessible by the destruction of the portions of the rock leading to the crevice. In July, 1878, Mr. W. Adams, of Cavendish Square, London, exhibited to several journalists an arrow supposed to contain a portion of the leg bone of Captain Cook, which was brought to England by Liholiho, who received it from his medical attendant. This bone was shown Mr. Ellis, the missionary, who thought the bone was not from Cook's body, from its being in an arrow and not wrapped in holy cloth, which fact showed a want of that respect and veneration which the natives had for Cook's memory. Some years ago Mr. Adams, to obtain confirmatory evidence of the bone having belonged to Cook, referred the matter to the Bishop of Honolulu (Bishop Staley) who learned from the King of Hawaii, then a very old man, that the relic was probably what it was represented to be. Upwards of 20 years ago the king and queen of the Sandwich Islands died of measles in England, and it is singular that, when leaving their native country, they had a presentiment that they would never return to their island home. The queen's last words to Mr. Ellis, as the ship was leaving the island, was, "Good bye, we will never return. Don't you think that they will remember we killed Captain Cook?" In 1825, some officers of the British ship of war, Blonde, erected on the rock where Cook met his sad fate, a cross of oak 10 feet high, with the following inscription thereon—"Sacred to the memory of Captain James Cook, R.N., who discovered these islands in the year of our Lord 1778. This humble monument is erected by his countrymen in the year of our Lord 1825."

CAPTAINS CLERK AND GORE TAKE COMMAND OF THE EXPEDITION.—A promotion of officers succeeded Captain Cook's decease. The command of the expedition devolved on Captain Clerk, who removed into the Resolution, while Lieutenant Gore was appointed Captain of the Discovery. The ships proceeded northward, through Behring's Straits, as far as 70-33, about five leagues short of the point Cook had reached the season before. Captain Clerk, finding a further advance northward, or a close approach to Asia and America blocked up with ice, determined to abanbon the pursuit of the north-west passage, which he believed was unattainable. To the joy of all on board the ships proceeded homewards. On August 21st they made the coast of Kamtschatka, and, on the following morning, at 9 a.m., Captain Clerk died, in the 38th year of his age, from consumption. During the war 1756 he was in several engagements, especially the action between the Bellona and Courageaux. He was a midshipman of the Dolphin when Captain Byron made his voyage round the world. After serving on the American station he, from 1768 to 1771, as master's mate, made his second voyage round the world with Cook in the Endeavour, and was raised to a lieutenancy on May 23rd, 1771, in consequence of the death of Lieutenant Hicks. His third circumnavigation of the globe was with Cook in the Resolution, as second lieutenant, from 1772 to 1775, when he was appointed to the rank of master and commander. He was captain of the Discovery until Cook's death, when he succeeded to the command of the expedition and the Resolution. On his death, the command of the expedition fell to Captain Gore on board the Resolution, while Captain King took command of the Discovery. On October 1st, 1780, the two ships arrived safe at the Nore, after an absence of four years, two months, and twenty-two days.

COMMEMORATIONS OF COOK'S SERVICES.—The death of Cook was a loss to mankind in general, and his melancholy fate was deplored by every nation. Some of the French literary academies gave prizes for the best eulogiums on his eminent abilities, while innumerable poetical testimonies, holding his memory in the highest estimation, were published at home and abroad. Under the auspices of the Royal Society, gold and silver medals were struck to commemorate his discoveries. The medals contained on one side the head of Captain Cook in profile, and round it JAC. COOK OCEANI INVESTIGATOR ACERRIMUS, and on the exergne REG. SOC. LOND. SOCIO SUO. On the reverse is a representation of Britannia holding a globe, and round her is inscribed, NIL INTENTATUM NOSTRI LIQUERE, and on the exergne AUSPICIIS GEORGII III. To those members of the society who subscribed twenty guineas each towards the cost of the medals a gold medal was appropriated; silver medals were assigned to those who gave a smaller sum, and a bronze medal was given to each of the other members. One of the gold medals was presented to George III., another to his Queen,

and a third to the Prince of Wales. Two were sent abroad, one to the King of France and the second to the Empress of Russia, for granting, what America and Spain refused, neutrality and protection to Cook's discovery ships. The general assignment of the medals took place in 1784, and there being a surplus of money, the society ordered an additional number of gold medals to be struck and presented to Mrs. Cook, the Earl of Sandwich, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, Dr. Cooke, Mr. Planta, the British Museum, and the College of the Royal Society. As a tribute of respect to Cook's memory, Sir Hugh Palliser erected on his estate at Buckinghamshire a small building surmounted with a pillar containing an eulogistic inscription written by Admiral Forbes. In 1812 the people of Cook's native town, Marton, in Yorkshire, erected in their church, where Cook was baptised, a marble tablet to Cook's merits and memory; and a similar testimony of regard for Cook, in the shape of an obelisk 51 feet high, was erected by the people of the neighbouring town of Easby. It is to be regretted that Cook's abilities and services have not been honoured by the erection of a magnificent memorial in Westminster Abbey; but although such a monument would redound to the honour of the British nation, its erection would add little to the reputation of Cook, whose mighty actions and famous discoveries will be the admiration of all nations of the earth to time immemorial.

COOK'S WIDOW AND FAMILY.—Within a month after the intelligence of Cook's decease had arrived in England, the Lords of the Admiralty (including the Earl of Sandwich, Mr. Buller, the Earl of Linburne, Mr. Penton, Lord Musgrave, and Mr. Mann) signed and presented a memorial to George III., praying that a pension of £200 a year be settled on Mrs. Cook, and £25 a year on each of her sons. The King granted the request, and subsequently directed that half of the large profits accruing from the sale of the publication of Cook's voyages should be applied to the use of Mrs. Cook during her natural life, and afterwards to be divided between her children. These substantial emoluments were graciously enhanced by the King on September 3rd, 1785, bestowing armorial bearings on Cook's descendants. Cook had six children—James, Nathaniel, Elizabeth, Joseph, George, and Hugh. Of these, Joseph died on September 13th, 1768, when only one month old; George died October 1st, 1774, at the age of four months, and Elizabeth died April 9th, 1771, in her fifth year. James, the eldest son, who was born at St. Paul's, Shadwell, on the 13th of October, 1763, rose to be a commander in the Royal Navy, and lost his life in the 31st year of his age, on the 25th January, 1794, in going from Poole to the Spitfire, sloop of war, which he commanded. Nathaniel, who was born on December 14th, 1764, at Mile End Old Town, was also brought up in the naval service, and at the early age of 16 years was unfortunately lost on board H.M.S. Thunderer, commanded by Commodore Boyle Walsingham, in the hurricane which happened at Jamaica on October 3rd, 1780. Hugh, the youngest, was born on May 22nd, 1776, and died at the early age of 17 years, on December 21st, 1793, while pursuing his studies at Christ College, Cambridge. Mrs. Cook survived her husband 56 years, and departed this life at her residence, Clapham, Surrey, on the 13th of May, 1835, in the 94th year of her age. Her remains are deposited with those of her sons, James and Hugh, in the middle aisle of the Church of St. Andrews the Great, at Cambridge. A tablet near the communion table of that church records the death of Cook, his sons, and widow. The inscription to Cook reads as follows:—In memory of CAPTAIN JAMES COOK, of the Royal Navy. One of the most celebrated navigators that this or former ages boast; who was killed by the natives of Owyhee, in the PACIFIC OCEAN, on the 14th day of February, 1779, in the 51st year of his age.

COOK'S JOURNALS, MANUSCRIPTS, AND RELICS.—As time rolls on, the published journals of Cook's voyages to Australasia furnish matter for thoughtful consideration, and the most trivial incidents connected with his discovery of places which are now populous and flourishing towns become matters of the deepest interest, and curiosity which increases with each succeeding year. It was the intention of the author, before closing this chapter on the discoveries of Captain Cook, to have procured extracts from the numerous unpublished journals and manuscripts of Captain Cook, contained in several volumes in the British Museum of Manuscripts in London, in order to give a more lucid account of Cook's Australasian discoveries than what appears in the condensed account published by Dr. Hawkesworth, but circumstances preclude his doing so in the present edition. A reference to these invaluable records would set at rest the contention as to the precise spot on which Cook landed in Botany Bay, one of the greatest events in the history of Australasia, and disclose other historical and topographical data of great interest. It is very desirable, not only for the sake of the present but of future generations inhabiting Australasia, that Cook's manuscripts should be published in *extenso*. Not half of his writings and pictorial representations relating to Australasia have been published, and as there are several volumes of his writings in the British Museum, it would be a grand national undertaking for the Government of New South Wales to procure photo-lithographic copies of the manuscripts, &c., as works of reference in the various Australian museums and libraries. Considering the great blessing Cook's discoveries have been to the world (especially Australasia) the publication of these wonderful records of Australian discovery would add additional honour to the memory of one whose service in the cause of human progress has been anything but adequately recognised in Australasia. The author has before him a lengthy list of the titles of Cook's manuscripts, which are now in a good state of preservation in the British Museum, and he selects the following as worthy of being printed and placed in the archives of historical works on Australasia:—1. The log-book of the Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, commander, from May, 1768, to July, 1771, to which is appended the register of the Endeavour's seamen, with notices of their birthplaces, ages, wages, &c. 2. A large folio of charts, plans, views and drawings, taken by Cook on board the Endeavour in 1768, 1769, and 1770, all executed in Indian ink by Cook himself; a most valuable and instructive volume of great interest. 3. A large folio of Indian ink drawings of headlands, bays, islands, &c., by A. Buchan, draughtsman to Sir Joseph Banks on Cook's first voyage, 1768-1770, which was bequeathed to the British Museum by Sir Joseph Banks. 4. An oblong quarto volume of sketches and views in Indian ink and pencil made by S. Parkinson during Cook's first voyage from Rio de Janiero to Otaheite, New Zealand, Australia, and other places in 1768-1770, which volume was also presented to the Museum by Sir Joseph Banks. 5. A large folio of Indian ink drawings, illustrative of the first voyage, chiefly relating to Otaheite and New Zealand, by A. Buchan, J. F. Miller, and others, which was the gift of Sir Joseph Banks. 6. Charts of the eastern coast of the North Island of New Zealand, showing Cook's track in the Endeavour in 1769, originally the property of Sir Joseph Banks. 7. Cook's autograph log-book of the Endeavour for portion of the first voyage, containing entries from 12th February to 23rd September, 1770. This has special reference to the discovery of New South Wales. 7. An undated quarter bill of the Resolution, when commanded by Cook, and a muster table of the same vessel from November, 1771, to June, 1772. 8. Two large folio volumes containing a collection of drawings by A. Buchan, S. Parkinson, and J. F. Miller, in Cook's first voyage, 1768–1771, and of prints published in the second and third voyages, 1772–1780. 9. Cook's autograph log-book and journal in the Resolution during his second voyage from 13th July, 1772, to 10th November, 1774, to which is prefixed an account of the fitting out of the expedition from 28th November, 1771. 10. A copy, not identical, but later and abridged, of Cook's log-book and journal in the Resolution, from 30th November, 1771, to 28th December, 1774. At the end of this MS. is the route of the Resolution and Adventure from 10th June, 1773, to 17th October, 1774, of which the last leaf is in the handwriting of Cook. 11. Cook's autograph account of his second voyage, from April 1772, to July 1774, as prepared by himself for publication. 12. Cook's autograph table of contents, introduction, and preface to his journal of voyages. 13. A large folio of charts, views of headlands, &c., taken during Cook's voyage in the Resolution through the Pacific and Southern Oceans in 1772 to 1774. 14. A map of Cook's voyage in 1772–1775. 15. The journal of Captain Furneaux in the Adventure in company with the Resolution in Cook's second voyage, from 13th July, 1772, to 3rd March, 1773. This MS. has special reference to Tasmania, and has corrections in the handwriting of Captain Cook. 16. Part of Cook's autograph log-book of the Resolution, extending from 16th October, 1773, to the close of the voyage, 28th July, 1775. 17. Three volumes of Cook's journal of his third voyage to the Pacific Ocean from 10th February, 1776, to 6th January, 1779. A fair copy in the autograph of Cook. This forms the substance of volumes one and two of "A Voyage to the Pacific Ocean," &c., prepared for the press by Dr. John Douglass, afterwards Bishop of Carlisle and Salisbury. 18. Two volumes of Cook's journal of his third voyage, from 10th February, 1776, to 17th January, 1779, rewritten by Dr. Douglass for publication, with an introduction and a chart. 19. Secret instructions, dated 6th July, 1776, for Cook commanding the Resolution, signed by the Lords of the Admiralty. 20. A large folio collection of sketches and coloured drawings made by J. Webber, who acted as draughtsman to the expedition during Cook's third voyage in 1776–1780. 21. Two large portfolios, containing nearly 100 Indian ink drawings, many coloured, by J. Webber, during Cook's third voyage to the South Seas 1777–1779. These were presented to the Museum by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. 22. Fragment of Cook's log-book on his third voyage to the Pacific, from 28th November, 1778, to 17th January, 1779, in the handwriting of Cook. 23. Letter to J. Pringle from Cook, respecting the successful means taken by him to prevent scurvy among the crew of the Resolution. 24. A letter from Cook to ——— enclosing part of his journal for 1772, dated Mile End, 16th February. 25. Original letters from Cook to Dr. Douglass, dated from Mile End, 4th January, to 23rd June, 1776. 26. Muster book of H.M.S. Northumberland, of which Cook was master, from 1758 to 1760. It is interesting to state that the compass of the Endeavour was in the possession of J. J. Bennett, F.R.S., keeper of the Botanical collections in the British Museum.

CHAPTER VI.

ORIGIN OF TRANSPORTATION.

EARLY PRISON DISCIPLINE.—In the earliest Biblical record of trade, bearing date B.C. 1862, we find slave-dealing in full operation, and it is a remarkable coincidence that the same inhuman commerce was abolished A.D. 1862 in America. Systematic committal to prison, as a specific punishment, was not practised by ancient nations. The Greeks' favourite punishment was a kind of banishment called *obstracism*, and they were the first to establish the stocks, the pillory, and slave-labour in rowing galleys. The Romans not only banished their criminals, but transported them to distant islands. Some of their penal establishments were connected with their mines, quarries, and great water works. Transportation to Sicily is referred to in Cicero's charge against Verres, wherein we have a graphic description of the prison quarries of Syracuse, whence stones were taken to build the town and harbour works resembling the convict establishment of Portland. From an early period to the present time the Russian Empire has had the reputation of possessing in its mines the most terrible places of punishment. Until comparatively recent times it was the custom of Italy, France, Spain, &c., to condemn criminals to labour at the galleys. This deplorable system of punishment was first introduced into France in the 14th century, when its head quarters were at Marseilles, and it was not abolished until 1748. The records of this kind of slavery at certain periods of history are peculiarly revolting, but at no time was its horrors more dreadfully experienced than at the time of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and during the persecution that followed. It is now inconsistent with the higher tone of humanity happily existing, consequently its practice is almost entirely extinct. Even simple banishment is now almost unknown, and since transportation has been virtually abolished as a punishment, imprisonment has received a corresponding enlargement.

BANISHMENT FIRST LEGALISED.—Exile and transportation has never been known to the common law of England, and, whenever the latter was inflicted, it was either by the choice of the criminal to escape capital punishment, or under the express direction of some statute. As an ordinary punishment banishment existed in the reign of Richard the Second, for that monarch, in 1398, banished Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, and Henry, surnamed Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, who subsequently deposed the King and ascended the throne as Henry IV. Banishment was first instituted by the celebrated vagrancy statute, 39 Elizabeth, chapter 4, for the punishment of rogues and vagabonds, which enacted that, after the discipline of the act had been applied, such characters may be committed to gaol to await the Quarter Sessions, where the justices may order that they "be banished out of this realm and all other of the dominions thereof," and "be conveyed into such parts beyond the seas as shall be at any time hereafter for that purpose assigned by the Privy Council unto Her Majesty." No place of exile was specified, and the exiles proceeded to any place they pleased.

TRANSPORTATION TO AMERICA ESTABLISHED.—The earliest known enforcement of the vagrancy statute, 39 Elizabeth, chapter 4, was in 1619, when the memorable epoch of transportation to America originated, when, according to "Chalmers' America," James the First addressed a letter to the London Virginian Council commanding them to send "100 dissolute persons" to labour for the pioneer settlers of Virginia. This scheme aroused public indignation, and, as a counterpoise, the Council forwarded, the same year, 90, and, in 1621, "60 maids of virtuous education, young and handsome," each damsel realising about 120 lbs. of tobacco.

ILLUSTRIOUS EXILES.—When James the Second, after 16 years, exile, was placed on the throne of his ancestors, General Lambert and Sir Henry Vane being among the chief instigators of the Commonwealth, were thought too guilty to be included in the Act of Indemnity, so Vane was executed, while Lambert was exiled to the Island of Guernsey. Chief among the many noblemen banished in the 15th century was Lord Chancellor Clarendon. His sending persons to remote and foreign prisons, and alleged negligence displayed in allowing the Dutch fleet to sail up the Thames and destroy many vessels in Chatham Harbour, brought about his impeachment before Parliament and his banishment. He retired to Montpelier, in France, where he wrote his famous "History of the Rebellion."

SHAMEFUL CRUELTIES AND SYSTEM OF WHITE SLAVERY.—Although it was one of the requisitions of the Magna Charter that the subject should be protected from imprisonment otherwise than in due course of law, history records that arbitrary and illegal punishments were frequently perpetrated with impunity for a period of three or four hundred years, and that the liberty of the subject was not materially secured until the passing of the Habeas Corpus Act in the reign of Charles the Second, by which it is illegal to detain in prison any person who claims to be tried. During the reign of James II. tumultous meetings disturbed the peace of England. Protestants plotted to declare the Duke of Monmouth heir to the throne, while the Papists plotted to secure the succession of the Duke of York, who had been banished. Monmouth, with 6000 followers, was defeated on July 5th, 1685, at Sedgemore. Ten days afterwards Monmouth was beheaded, and the atrocities perpetrated on his followers were such as England never before witnessed. Colonel "Kirke's Lambs," as the Feversham troops were called, pillaged and committed every species of debauchery in the western counties, while Chief Justice, "Jeffries' Campaign," as James II. loved to call it, exceeded the military atrocities. Jeffries executed 240 of the political offenders in one sessions at Somerset, and it was his boast that he hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest. General orders were given Jeffries and the judges to convict as many as they could, in order that the convicts may be bestowed as rewards on the courtiers. One of the orders directed that Sir Phillip Howard was to have 200, Sir Richard White 200, Sir W. Booth 100, Mr. Kendall 100, Mr. Nipps 100, Sir W. Stappleton 100, Sir C. Musgrave 100, and ——, a merchant, 100. Jeffries estimated the worth of each convict, after paying all charges, from £10 to £20, consequently there was an angry competition for grants among the courtiers, the aldermen, and the magistrates. The courtiers proved victorious, and 841 of Monmouth's followers (who were generally regarded as martyrs who sealed with their blood the truth of the Protestant religion) were handed over to "the rapacious bloodsuckers," who were required to give security that the convicts should be sold as slaves to work in the King's plantations at Jamaica, Barbadoes, or any of the Leeward islands in America, for the term of 10 years. About the same time the followers of the Duke of Argyle (who was beheaded in Scotland for heading a rebellion in that country) were, by order of the Privy Council, transported as slaves to Jamaica. Owing to the brutal disposition of the judges, and the arbitrary power they were armed with, few of those indicted escaped terrible punishment. Those transported were crowded together in the holds of small vessels, where all was starvation, lamentation, disease, and death. More than one-fifth were flung to the sharks before the voyage terminated, and the survivors, when landed, were mere skeletons, necessitating their being fattened by the merchants to whom they were consigned before they could be sold in the slave market.

TRANSPORTATION LEGALLY INSTITUTED.—Transportation was first regularly introduced into the criminal law of England, and adopted more systematically for the purposes of punishment, by an act passed in 1718, the 4th George I., chapter 11, the preamble of which recites the cause of the enactment to be the insufficiency of punishments then in use, and "the failure of those who undertook to transport themselves," a very probable occurrence. The act further stated, "that in many of His Majesty's colonies there was a great want of servants, who, by their labour and industry, might be the means of improving and making the said colonies and plantations more useful to this nation," and it authorised the Criminal Courts in "clergyable offences to those which were nominally, but not really, punishable with death," to give over the offenders to contractors for transportation to America. Under this Act a shameful system of contract was adopted for disposing of the convicts, who, for nearly a century, were recklessly sold into slavery at £20 per head, the Government deriving a revenue of £40,000 a year, more than 2000 being transported annually. The contractors were vested in a property in the labour of the convicts for 7 or 14 years, and this right they generally sold by auction. It was also enacted by the statutes, 4 George I, cap. 11., and 6 George I., cap. 23, that "when any person shall be convicted of any larceny or any felony, who shall by this law be entitled to the benefit of clergy and liable only to the penalty of burning in the hand or whipping, the court in their discretion, instead of such burning in the hand or whipping, may direct such offender to be tran sported to America for seven years." The warm southern states of America rendered the settlers unwilling to perform labourious work, and there was a great demand by them for these white slaves, who were each sold by the contractors (mostly magistrates, aldermen, and merchants) for about 1500 lbs of sugar or tobacco.

ORIGIN OF KIDNAPPING.—By the subsequent statutes of George II., cap. 15, and 8 George III., cap. 15, many wise provisions were made for the more speedy and effectual execution of the laws relating to transportation. The same class of offenders who were until a recent period liable to transportation was subject to be transported under the same statutes, and the King's perogative of pardon was restricted by requiring as a condition that before a convict could avail himself of a pardon he should compensate his owner for the

loss of his services. The spirit and motive of these statutes was farther marked by clauses empowering merchants to contract with minors of the age of 15 years and upwards to enter into the services of the planters for a term not exceeding eight years. This led to an organised system of kidnapping along the British coast, and young lads were kidnapped and sold to the planters, who passed them through a ceremonial of apprenticeship. Even when an opportunity for liberation was afforded, the victims were unable to prove that they were not legally transported, besides the planters were under no responsibility, and virtually these apprentices were slaves. These infamous practices were not suppressed until the middle of the 18th century.

Horrors of the Convict System.—In those days the State did not trouble itself as it does now with the niceties of prison discipline, and offenders transported to countries beyond the management of the State were permanently doomed to their fate. History exemplifies how lax was the administration of the law in those days, and how easy it was for an influential adversary to encompass the ruin of his opponent, or a wife to get rid of her husband, or a guardian his ward, or a debtor his creditor. There was no distribution of separate punishment for specific offences, nor any measure of punishment to the offence committed, as the same kind of punishment was meted alike to all criminals. Cruel and arbitrary sentences were given for political and social offences which are now overlooked by the most despotic nation. Personal influence or clientage has saved many a hardened criminal from transportation while the petty larcenist has been committed to slavery. In addition to the horrors of this irresponsible system of tyranny and cruelty it appears that the planters were as dissolute as those transported. Speaking of the founders of Virginia under Lord Delawarre's Government, Robertson, in his "History of America," says, "Several among them of better rank were such dissipated hopeless young men as their friends were glad to send out in quest of whatever fortune might betide them in a foreign land. Of the lower order many were so profligate or desperate that their country was happy to throw them out as nuisances in society. All their substances were derived from the stores which they had brought out from England; these were soon consumed; then the domestic animals sent out to breed in the country were devoured; and, by this inconsiderate waste, they were reduced to such extremity of famine as not only to eat the most nauseous roots and berries, but to feed on the bodies of the Indians whom they slew, and even on those of their companions who sunk under the oppression of such complicated distress."

Horrors of Defective Prison Discipline.—Some idea of the frightful sanitary condition of the gaols in England may be gathered from the historical records of the gaol fever. At the "Black Assize," at Oxford, in 1577, "all who were present died within 48 hours—the lord chief baron, the sheriff, and about 300 more, all being infected by the prisoners who were brought into court." At the Lent assize, in Taunton, in 1730, some prisoners from Ivelchester Gaol infected the court, and Lord Chief Baron Pengelly, Sir James Shepperd, sergeant; John Pigott, Esq., sheriff; and some hundreds besides died of the gaol distemper. At London, in 1750, two judges, the lord mayor, one alderman, and many people were victims to the same malady. From the absence of control inhuman cruelties were practised in nearly all the English prisons. In the reign af George the First Colonel Oglethorpe induced the House of Commons to appoint a select committee of enquiry to visit the prisons and report thereon. The committee's report stated that it had become a general practice of the keepers of the prisons "unlawfully to assume to themselves pretended authority as magistrates, and not only to judge and decree punishments arbitrarily, but also to execute the same unmercifully." The committee exposed revolting tortures of prisoners with thumb-screws, the collar, "like a pair of tongs," and the "sheers" for the legs. The disclosures connected with this bad neglected system aroused the blood of the English people, and many of these keepers were prosecuted for murder, &c., with relentless tenacity. After this enquiry the keepers avoided illegal cruelties, and acted more cautiously; but little was done to mitigate the ravages morally and physically committed until the days of John Howard, F.R.S., High Sheriff of Bedford, whose labours are an historical epoch in the history of prison discipline throughout the world. In 10 years Howard travelled 40,000 miles, visiting nearly all the prisons of the world. In his examination before the select committe of the House of Commons he exposed abuses in the English, Scotch, Welsh, and Irish prisons that were disgraceful to any civilised country. He said, "Many who went in healthy are in a few months changed to emaciated, dejected objects. Some are seen pining under diseases, sick, and in prison expiring on the floors in loathsome cells of pestilential fevers and confluent small-pox, victims I must not say to the cruelty, but I will say to the inattention of sheriffs and gentlemen in the commission of the peace. The cause of this distress is that many prisons are scantily supplied, and some almost totally destitute of the necessaries of life." He proved that the allowances were too short for the cravings of nature, and were lessened by farming to the gaolers. The first fruits of Howard's labours, and the first legislative step for prison reformation, was taken in 1773 by the passing of two acts (the joint production of Mr. Howard, Sir W. Blackstone, and Mr. Eden), one for abolishing prison fees, and the other for improving the sanitary condition of gaols.

Transportation Stopped by the American Revolution.—The transportation of convicts to America was vigorously pursued to clear the overcrowded gaols, but by this involuntary exportation and voluntary emigration, the American colonies, like the Australasian colonies, have become a great and powerful nation. Between 1773 and 1776 the Virginians founded 13 colonies, and introduced from Africa and other countries numbers of negro-slaves, whose docility and laborious habits pleased them better than the British transportees, consequently the attraction for negro slaves soon diminished the competition for convicts. In 1765 the British Parliament passed the obnoxious Stamp Act, levied duties, and authorised the quartering of troops in the colonies. These acts excited universal opposition, and caused a Congress of the colonies at New York to meet and adopt a declaration claiming taxation by themselves alone, and trial by jury as the inherent right of all British subjects in her colonies. On March 18th, 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed, and a declaratory act was passed maintaining the right of the Imperial Government to govern her colonies. In June, 1767, fresh taxation was imposed, but the colonists, becoming exasperated, all the duties, except those on tea, were repealed. The British Government, finding the motive of the act defeated by the colonists procuring tea from other countries than England, passed an act in 1773 enabling the East Indian Co. (by giving them a drawback on all teas imported to America) to sell the colonists' tea at a cheaper rate than could be imported from any other country, but the Americans would have none of it. Through the hostile and oppressive revenue system imposed the colonies ultimately revolted and formed themselves into an independent empire, based on democratic principles, under the style of the United States of America, and by this separation from the British Crown the American market for British convicts closed.

Origin of the Hulks and Penitentiary System.—When the American channel for getting rid of convicts stopped there was great alarm that the British Isles would be overrun with crime, and the Government promised to substitute some well-considered penitentiary system. In 1776 a temporary act was passed reciting that "until some effectual measure could be framed" convicts, liable to transportation, might be employed at certain kinds of hard labour. This act was continued for one year after the time of its natural termination, and in the following year an act, also temporary, was passed to try the effect of different modes of punishment. Transportation to other colonies besides America was permitted, and provision made for erecting two penitentiaries for males and females respectively. At the same time hard labour at the hulks was provided for the effectual punishment of atrocious and daring offenders. In 1779 Mr. Howard, Sir William Blackstone, and Mr. Eden induced Parliament to pass an act, the 19 George III., cap. 74, for the establishment of well-regulated penitentiary houses, but, owing to the difficulty in fixing upon proper sites, the act remained dormant. Transportation to the west side of Africa was then tried, but wisely abandoned, as the unhealthiness of the African climate sent many to a premature grave. As as experiment convicts were employed on the Thames and on public works, but it did not realise the benefits expected, and the sight of convict works was nearly as offensive as slavery, and too repugnant to an Englishman's feelings to be tolerated.

Transportation to Australia Inaugurated.—The vigorous agitation against the defective prison discipline, and the gaols being overcrowded, compelled the British Government to continue transportation. In looking for a country to succeed the American colonies and Africa, as the recepticle of convicts, the colony of New South Wales, in Australia, then recently made known to the world by Captain Cook, was selected, because it was remote, salubrious, and possessed undefined elements of wealth, among which a prosperous community would arise capable of absorbing the criminality of Britain. The idea originated with Thomas Lord Sydney, who was Secretary of State for the colonies from 1784 to 1789. The objects of the project were, firstly—to rid the mother country of the yearly increasing number of prisoners who were accumulating in the gaols under the circumstances previously described; secondly—to afford a proper place for the safe custody and punishment of the criminals, as well as for their progressive and ultimate reformation; and thirdly—to form a free colony out of the materials which the reformed prisoners would supply, in addition to families of free immigrants who might settle in the country from time to time. There was a distinct feature from the American transportees, who were handed over absolutely to individual owners, while those sent to Australia were governed by a responsible officer. The project was opposed by Howard and others, who feared a repetition of the evils attending the African scheme; but fortunately, considering the wealth of Australia, the opposition was unheeded, and the new system was officially organised by Imperial orders, dated 6th Dec., 1786.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPARATION OF THE FLEET DESTINED FOR BOTANY BAY.

TRANSPORTATION TO AUSTRALIA OPPOSED.—When the Imperial Government determined to follow Lord Sydney's project for the revival of transportation, by the formation of a penal settlement in Australia, great curiosity was excited and various speculations propounded. The utility of the scheme formed the subject-matter of many articles in the Press, and books and pamphlets were published and circulated respecting its feasibility. Statesmen and philanthropists freely discussed the question, which, at one time, embarrassed the Government so much that the design was almost abandoned. Some of the speculators pronounced the scheme big with folly, inhumanity, impolicy, extravagance, and ruin; while others urged that the State would be benefitted by the colonisation of Australia, and that the new country would relieve the overcrowded gaols of the criminals condemned to transportation. Howard, who, as previously stated, had dragged into public notice the horrible corruptions and pollutions of the English prison system, was foremost amongst those who opposed the expedition; and although he denounced the careless indifference and want of common humanity displayed by the Government in attempting to found an over-the-sea gaol in a barbarous country at the other side of the globe, his efforts were unavailing, Many of those who cast odium on the scheme incurred the displeasure of the Government in a most marked manner. The Press was gagged, and the public kept completely in the dark as to what kind of penal system would be adopted. Among those who were terribly punished for reflecting upon the administration of justice in the transportation of criminals to Botany Bay was Lord George Gordon. This remarkable nobleman had, while the Government were preparing the ships of "the first fleet," published a pamphlet entitled "A Petition to Lord George Gordon from the Prisoners in Newgate, praying for his interference, and that he would secure their liberty by preventing them from being sent to Botany Bay." The pamphlet was full of vague reasonings, interspersed with a great number of Scriptural passages. One paragraph proceeded to state that, "At a time when the nations of the earth endeavour wholly to follow the laws of God, it is no wonder that we, labouring under our severe sentences, should cry out from our dungeons and ask redress. Some of us are about to suffer execution without righteousness, and others are about to be sent off to a barbarous country. The records of justice have been falsified, and the laws profanely altered by men like ourselves. The bloody laws against us have been enforced under a nomiual administration by mere whitened walls, men who possess only the show of justice, and who have condemned us to death contrary to law," &c. On the 25th Januarv, 1787, an information was laid against Lord Gordon, by the Attorney-General, for publishing this libel on the administration of justice, and on the 6th of June, before Justice Buller, at the Court of King's Bench, his lordship was tried with the printer. It was contended for the Crown that Lord Gordon had written the address with a view either to raise a tumult among the prisoners in Newgate, to procure their deliverance, or by exciting the compassion of those without to cause a disturbance and produce the same effect. Lord Gordon, in his defence, said that a petty fraud committed in his family had first drawn his attention to the laws against felony, when he found that it constituted a capital crime, though the sum taken was no more than eighteen-pence. He then gave a history of the criminal laws from the time of Athelstan, for the purpose of proving that the then existing state of the law was inhuman. He further said he had communicated his ideas to Lord Mansfield and the Recorder, who admitted their propriety, and to Judge Gould, who had desired him to put his thoughts on paper. This was all he had done, and he declared that his object was reformation, and not tumult. The jury, by the Judge's direction, found his lordship guilty, and for this offence he was ordered to be imprisoned three years in Newgate. The printer was also convicted. Lord Gordon was then tried and found guilty of publishing a libel on the Queen of France and Mon. Barthelemy, and received a cumulative sentence of two years' imprisonment, and was ordered to find security for 14 years' good behaviour, himself in £10,000 and sureties in £2,500 each. He died during his servitude, on the 1st of November, 1793. History records that Lord Gordon, on June 2nd, 1780, headed a mob of 40,000 in St. George's Fields, under the name of the Protestant Association, to carry a petition to Parliament for the repeal of certain indulgences granted the Roman Catholics, and that the mob dispersed and proceeded for seven days to pillage, burn, and pull down the chapels, open the gaols, &c., and that these "No Popery Riots" were only quelled after killing 210 rioters and wounding 248. Many of the rioters were tried and executed. Lord Gordon was also tried for treason, but acquitted on 5th February, 1781.

TRANSPORTS CHARTERED.—In August, 1786, when the Commissioners of George the Third's navy received a statement of all the criminals condemned to transportation, they advertised in the *Government Gazette*, the *London Observer* newspaper, and placarded at the much-frequented coffee houses in London notices intimating that the Government would charter seven vessels to convey between seven and eight hundred felons to Botany Bay. Eventually the Treasury Board contracted with the owners of the following vessels:—Charlotte, Lady Penrhyn, Scarborough, Alexander, Friendship, and the Prince of Wales, to convey the persons designed to form the new colony. The last-named vessel was added, as it was represented the gaol-fever might break out in the fleet, and it would be necessary to have a spare vessel as an hospital. Three storeships, the Golden Grove, Fishburne, and Borrowdale, were also engaged under contract. After being discharged from service in the colony these vessels were to go to China for tea on their owners' account.

SIRIUS AND SUPPLY COMMISSIONED.—H.M.S. Sirius, mounted with 20 six-pounder guns, was placed in commission. She was built on the Thames for the East India Co., but while loading on the stocks took fire, and was burnt down to her wailes. The Admiralty, in 1781, purchased her bottom, re-built her, and called her the Berwick. As a storeship she made two journeys to America. Her burden was 540 tons, and from the strength of her construction, and being of very round, full build, with a spar deck over her gun deck, she was a commodious and convenient vessel, very well calculated as fit for the expedition. With her capacity, also changed her name to that of the Sirius. Her establishment was different to ships of her class, for she had a first and second captain (Captains Phillip and Hunter), three lieutenants, a master, a boatswain, a gunner, and a subaltern's detachment of marines. Her complement was 160 men. After performing many signal services for the colony, this staunch man-of-war was totally wrecked on Norfolk Island on March 19th, 1790, at a time when the colony was suffering from famine. An armed brig, the Supply, was also commissioned, and associated with the Sirius for service in the colony. She was one of those vessels employed conveying naval stores from one dockyard to another. She was a very strong and firm little vessel, flat-floored, consequently very roomy, and mounted eight guns. She had a very deep waist, a dangerous inconvenience to so low a vessel on long sea-voyages. This tight little vessel was a great acquisition to the colony. After the loss of the Sirius she sailed, on April 17th, 1790, from Port Jackson to Batavia, where she procured a cargo of provisions, and returned, on September 19th, to the colony, then suffering from a famine. On 26th November, 1791, she made a voyage to England, and returned, loaded with stores, with H.M.S. Reliance, on 7th September, 1795. During her stay in the colony she made many voyages to Norfolk Island, and it was in her that Lieutenant Ball discovered Lord Howe's Island and many important islands off the Australian coast. On September 20th, 1796, she sailed to the Cape of Good Hope, and returned to the colony on the 16th May, 1797, with a cargo of cattle. This was her last voyage, for she was condemned and used as a hulk in Sydney Cove, near the Blackwall wool stores.

PREPARATIONS FOR SAILING.—The Secretary of State appointed that the fleet should rendezvous at the Mother Bank preparatory to receiving orders for sailing, and as the voyage was expected to last nearly one year, the fitting and equipment of the vessels took several months to complete. Captain Phillip, commodore of the expedition and the appointed Governor of the intended settlement, having much business to transact in London, entrusted the equipment of the Sirius and Supply to Captain Hunter, who had reason to believe that he would be commissioned to take an active part in the expedition. These two vessels had received new masts and rigging, as well as a thorough overhauling in that great naval store and victualliug establishment of the Royal Navy, the Deptford Dockyard. This dockyard is about three miles from London Bridge, and it is a historical fact that Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia, worked in it as a shipwright. On October 24th, 1786, Commodore Phillip's pennant was hoisted on board the Sirius. On December 10th the Sirius and Supply, having completed their equipment, under the supervision of Captain Hunter, sailed from Deptford down the Thames to that great repository and manufactory of warlike stores, Woolwich, where guns, powder, and ordnance stores were embarked. On January 30th, 1787, they were joined by the Alexander, having on board 210 male exiles, and the Prince of Wales, with 100 female exiles on board. The exiles were in strong and separate compartments, all secured in irons except the females. The Alexander here embarked a detachment of the

marines, five officers, and 30 privates, and the Prince of Wales received a similar detachment of marines, consisting of Lieutenants Davy and Timmins, with seven officers and 25 privates. These two vessels, as the masters had business to transact with the owners about their companies, were allowed to proceed as low as Gravesend, where the Sirius joined them the next day. The three vessels then sailed to the Nore, which they reached the same day, and were there joined by the Supply. On the 4th of February the four vessels anchored in the Downs, where they were detained by heavy and contrary gales of wind until the 19th, when they put to sea again. They continued to experience bad weather until the 21st, when they arrived at the Mother Bank anchorage, and joined the storeships Golden Grove, Fishburne, and Borrowdale, which had arrived there a few days previously. On March 3rd Dr. John White, the principal surgeon of the expedition, left London for Plymouth, charged with despatches from the Board of Admiralty, and the Secretary of State to General Collins, who was the commander-in-chief at Plymouth. After two days' journey in a most incessant rain Dr. White reached Plymouth with the dispatches, which ordered the immediate embarkation of the marines and exiles, and he delivered them to General Collins, who lost no time in carrying the orders into execution. On the morning of March 9th, Captain Tench, Dr. White, with nine officers and 34 privates, embarked on board the Charlotte, while at the same time Captain Meredith, with seven officers and 36 privates, embarked on board the Friendship in Plymouth Harbour. The scene of embarkation was witnessed by a great crowd of people, and was enlivened by the strains of a regimental band. The following day was fixed for the embarkation of the exiles from the Dunkirk prison ship, but this was rendered impracticable, as the morning was ushered in with a heavy gale of wind, which grew so violent during the day that H.M.S. The Druid. of 32 guns, had to have her mainmast cut away to prevent her being driven ashore. On the 11th the weather moderated sufficiently to permit of the embarkation of the exiles, who were placed in irons in the holds of the vessels, which were subdivided into compartments. The Charlotte received 100 male and 24 female exiles, and the Friendship 84 male and 24 female exiles. When these arrangements were completed the two vessels, with a fresh breeze, proceeded to Spithead, and on the 17th anchored on the Mother Bank among the rest of the transports and victuallers. At Portsmouth the Lady Penrhyn embarked Captain Campbell, two lieutenants, three privates, and 102 female exiles: and the Scarborougn, at the same port, had received Captain Shea, six officers, and 27 privates, together with 210 male exiles.

Equipment of the Fleet.—The equipment of the little squadron of eleven sail was not completed under three months, and even then numerous necessary articles were inadvertently left behind. The clothing for the females, through not being prepared in time, was not received, and the ordnance stores would have been forgotten if Captain Hunter, who was led to believe that they were shipped at the first embarkation, had not personally attended to them, and secured a supply for the service in the course of the voyage down the Thames. Not only the three storeships, but the Sirius and Supply and the transports, were stored in every part with stores, camp equipage, clothing, baggage, and provisions necessary for use and consumption. The Victualling Office supplied sufficient provisions for two years' service. the Apothecaries' Hall supplied the medicines, and the Government Stores department sent tools of trade and implements of agriculture necessary to a new and distant country. One of the most noteworthy articles stored on board was a small printing press and types, which, for want of someone that understood their use, was not used in the colony until the year 1800, when they were practically brought into requisition for printing Government orders, and three years later for printing the first Australian newspaper. The allowance of provisions to the marine department was the same as given to seamen in the navy. The contractor was Mr. William Richards, of Walworth, Surrey, and Mr. Zachariah Clark was sent in one of the transports as the agent responsible for the due fulfilment of the contract. Lieutenant John Shortland was the agent for the transports, and responsible for their management. The allowance of all species of provisions to the exiles was two-thirds of what was allowed the seamen.

The Exiles Described.—The exiles for whose disposal the expedition was undertaken, were the picked men and women of the gaols. Captain Tench says, "the major part of the prisoners were mechanics and husbandmen, selected on purpose by order of the Government." They were not the "desperate ruffians" that some historians have designated them, for most of them had only been guilty of petty larcenies, and had almost served their sentences when they were ordered to form the first batch of Australian colonists. There was in those days an urgent necessity for a reformation in the civil and criminal laws of England. The inhuman law of perpetual imprisonment for debt was then in vogue ; and even in cases where blood did not demand blood, and in offences not affecting life or property, capital sentences, unjustifiable upon principles of either religion or morality, were of common occurrence. Transportation was inflicted on those who were guilty of offences that are nowadays punished with a small fine or a few weeks' imprisonment. To exemplify the severity of the sentences frequently passed, the author need only record that in 1789 a wealthy gentleman named John Eyre was transported to Australia for stealing a few quires of note paper; and that even as late as 1818 a reverend doctor, who was tutor to the Earl of Chesterfield, and became famous in Australian annals, was transported to New South Wales for forging a ten-penny postage stamp to a letter. The number of exiles sent out in the first fleet was 778, of whom 586 were males and 192 females. No less than 265 of these exiles were convicted in London, 55 in Exeter, 25 in Bristol, 18 in Gloucester, 18 in Launceston, 16 in Kingston, 14 in Maidstone, 13 in Reading, 12 in in Winchester, 12 in Shrewsbury, 12 in Manchester, 10 in Worcester, 9 in Warwick, 9 in Dorchester, and several in each of the towns of Liverpool, York, Croydon, Oxford, and other places, Out of the 778 exiles nearly 700 were sentenced to seven years' imprisonment. and the sentences of 5 of them commenced in 1782, 41 in 1783, 190 in 1784, 209 in 1785, 168 in 1786, and 51 in 1787. There were 4 of the exiles who had in 1786 been sentenced to 5 years' imprisonment, and only 24 sentenced to 14 years in 1785 and 1786. Only 39 were sentenced to penal servitude for life, and 17 of this number were convicted in 1785. It will thus be seen that before the colony was founded five years, 650 of the "first fleeters" would have served their sentences, and become free. We are told that only those who were in a robust state of health (the men being under 50 years of age, and the women under 45 years) were chosen as the first Australian exiles, and it is to this fact that so few died on the voyage out, and so many lived to become very old colonists.

Distribution of the Civil, Military, and Exiles in the Ships.—When the squadron was ready to sail the total number of persons on board the ships destined to form the new settlement was 1036, and comprised 11 officials of the civil establishment, 18 officers forming the military staff, 184 marines from which the garrison was formed, 28 women, wives of the marines, with 17 of their children, and 586 male and 192 female exiles. The distribution of these people in the fleet was as follows :—On board H.M.S. Sirius were Captains Phillip and Hunter, Major Robert Ross, Mr. John Lang, Mr. James Furzer, Captain David Collins, and Mr. Andrew Miller, together with 1 sergeant, 3 drummers and fifers, 7 marines, 4 wives of marines, a number of artificers, and a ship's crew of 160 men, but no exiles. The armed tender Supply had on board her commander, Lieutenant H. L. Ball, and a crew of 55 men, but no officials or exiles. The Alexander was a transport of 453 tons. and while at Woolwich there embarked on board Lieutenants J. Johnstone and J. M. Sharp, also 2 sergeants, 2 corporals, 1 fifer, 1 drummer, 30 privates, and 213 male exiles. Assistant-Surgeon William Balmain was the medical officer on board this ship. The Scarborough was a transport of 418 tons, and embarked at Portsmouth Captain John Shea, Lieutenants Kellow and Morrison, Assistant-surgeon Arndell, 2 sergeants, 2 corporals, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, 26 marines and 208 male exiles. The Charlotte was a transport of 346 tons, and embarked at Plymouth Captain Watkin Tench, Lieutenants John Cresswell and John Poulden, also Dr. John White, the principal surgeon of the colony, 3 sergeants, 3 corporals, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, 35 marines, together with 89 male and 20 female exiles. The Lady Penrhyn was a transport of 338 tons, and embarked at Portsmouth Captain James Campbell, Lieutenants George Johnstone and W. Collins, also Dr. D. Considor, 3 marines, and 102 female exiles. The Prince of Wales transport was 334 tons burden, and at Woolwich received on board Lieutenants Thomas Davey and Thomas Timmins, also the Surveyor-General of the colony, Mr. H. T. Augustus Alt, 2 sergeants, 2 corporals, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, 29 marines, and 2 male and 50 female exiles. The Friendship was a snow of 228 tons, and at Plymouth embarked Captain Lee Meredith, Lieutenants Ralph Clark and William Faddy, also 2 sergeants, 3 corporals, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, 35 marines, 28 wives of the marines, with their 8 male and 6 female children, and 76 male and 21 female exiles. The Golden Grove was a storeship of 331 tons, and had on board the Rev. R. Johnson, the chaplain of the colony, his wife and servant, and 1 male and 2 female exiles, but no marines, The Fishburne, storeship, was of 378 tons burden, and the Borrowdale, storeship, of 272 tons burden, both carrying only stores, and none of the officials, marines, or exiles.

Alarming accounts of Outbreak of Malignant Fever among the Exiles, Published to Secure Collapse of Expedition.—While the squadron was at Portsmouth, alarming accounts of an outbreak of a malignant disease among the exiles filled the newspapers. The reports made it appear that a frightful malady was ravaging the ships, and that numbers of the exiles were dead, and two or three hundred were in a dying state. Some accounts went so far as to give false statistics of the dead and dying, and announced that 8 to 10 exiles were buried each day, while some of the leading articles fiercely denounced the scheme to colonise Australia with a criminal population as idiotic, inhuman, and impolitic. The false reports were no doubt industriously circulated by those who desired the expedition to collapse, because some of their kindred or friends were being banished to an inhospitable country at the other side of the globe. Be that as it may, assurances, official and otherwise, were promulgated by the Government to remove the public anxiety, and

× Shaw, according to his great nephew Alfred Shaw 1.12.26. Shea in last Rep. of Aust. Hist. Soc. N.S.W.

to show that the people of the fleet were in as good a state of health at that cold season of the year as those on the most healthy situation on shore. The dreadful accounts of the contagion continued to be published, and great pain and uneasiness were experienced by the friends and relations of those engaged in the expedition. Letters poured in from all quarters upon the officials, marines, and exiles, commisserating their state. Medical men were paid to condemn the scheme, and many of them with prejudiced minds visited the fleet and added to the hue and cry by publishing exaggerated and falsified opinions. Dr. White records a scene he had on board the Alexander with one of these Portsmouth doctors, who demanded that the exiles should be re-landed, as they were suffering from a most malignant and dangerous disease. The Portsmouth doctor had inspected the exiles on board the Alexander, and had publicly declared before the poor creatures who were afflicted in mind and body that they must inevitably fall a sacrifice to the malignant disorder with which he said they were afflicted. Dr. Balmain, supposing from the consequence he assumed that he was appointed by the Secretary of State to officiate until Dr. White arrived to inspect the fleet, refrained from contradicting him. Eventually, on 17th March, Dr. White reached the ship, and was met by the Portsmouth doctor, who alarmed and surprised him with his terrible intelligence. After hearing from Dr. Balmain that there was no foundation for the startling accounts, Dr. White went below the decks and found several exiles in bed with slight inflammatory complaints, and others shivering from the piercing cold, their wretched clothing being but a poor defence against the rigour of the weather. Others were bedridden from the effects of long confinement, a weakened habit, and lowness of spirits. The doctor addressed the exiles, and told them that their complaints were harmless. He promised them better clothing, and was gratified to see many leave their bunks and look cheerful. Captain Phillip, having delegated to him power to do what was needful for the preservation of health, he procured fresh provisions and warm clothing for the exiles, and directed that one half of the convicts at a time should be allowed on deck every day to breathe a purer air. When Dr. White saw the Portsmouth doctor again, he gave him a piece of his mind concerning his absurd ideas, and for needlessly alarming the exiles. The intruder thereupon threatened to write to the Secretary of State about the matter and decamped. Dr. White fearing his unwelcome visitor would carry out his threat, wrote to the Secretary of State and to Captain Phillip, informing them of the real state of the sick. The clearest testimony that there was more malignity in the reports than the disease may be deduced from the very small number that died on the voyage to Australia (much less considering the crowded state of the ships, the want of proper provisions, and other disadvantages) than had ever been known on so long a voyage over an unknown sea with exiles as passengers.

Regulations and Proceedings.—The squadron rendezvoused at the Mother Bank within the Isle of Wight on March 16th, 1787, and remained there until the following 13th of May. The necessary interval was usefully employed in establishing regulations and making everyone sensible of their position. The military, or marines, who were volunteers on this service, were charged with those essential services, the guarding of the exiles, the inspection of their provisions, and the preservation of their health. The propriety of employing marines in preference to troops on this service was a most judicious policy, for if troops had been employed half of them, from sea-sickness, would have been incapacitated from performing those duties indispensably necessary, and requiring activity and exertion, whereas the marines accommodated themselves to every exigency, from their being accustomed to serve on board ship. The exiles were frequently mustered, and, in the presence of the military, they were, in the most pointed terms, informed that their good conduct would meet with many privileges; while any turbulence, mutinous conduct, or attempt to escape on their part, would meet with instant death from the sentinels. Happily for all parties there was no occasion to have recourse to so desperate a measure. We have it on the authority of those who commanded that the behaviour of the exiles was in general harmless, submissive, decent, and such as did not excite suspicion or merit severity. Despite the prospects of a sickly passage, and the impracticability of ever returning home again, there were few complaints or lamentations heard, and there prevailed among them an ardent desire for the hour of departure. Through the humanity of Dr. White many exiles were allowed on deck, and some of them were even permitted to work the ship during the day, but at night the whole of them were properly secured below. Fearing a scorbutic taint, Dr. White, on discovering that the contractor, contrary to his contract, was issuing, while they were in port, salt instead of fresh provisions, complained to Lord Sydney, who not only ordered the change of diet, but humanely sent wines and other stimulants for the use of the sick, by which good offices the ships were universally healthy and the people in high spirits.

Officials of the Settlement.—When the equipment of the fleet was completed, His Majesty George the Third, in Council, on the 17th of April, 1787, by commission, appointed Captain Arthur Phillip, R.N., at a salary of £1,000 per year, "Captain General and Governor-in-Chief over the territory of New South Wales and its dependencies, and Commander-in-Chief of all His Majesty's ships employed on that coast." Although the command of the Sirius was given to Captain Phillip, it was thought necessary to appoint Captain John Hunter as a second captain, to command her when Captain Phillip was engaged in his government. Without the King's Commission it was inconsistent to appoint two captains to a ship, so the King in Council signed an order directing the Lord's Commissioners of the Admiralty to appoint Captain Hunter the second captain with the rank of Post, which was the first instance of its kind in the Royal Navy. The Admiralty Board then gave the command of the brig Supply to Lieutenant Henry Lidgbird Ball. The other civil officers of the establishment were Major Robert Ross, Lieutenant-Governor and commander of the troops; Rev. Richard Johnson, chaplain; Andrew Miller, Commissary-General and Secretary to the Governor; Captain David Collins, Judge-Advocate; John Lang, Adjutant of Orders; Lieutenant James Furzer, Quartermaster; Dr. John White, principal surgeon; Dr. D. Considor, first assistant surgeon; Dr. Thomas Arndell, second assistant surgeon; Dr. William Balmain, third assistant surgeon; H. T. Augustus Alt, Surveyor-General; and John Alexander, Provost-Marshal, but this last gentleman was left behind. The marine or military officials comprised:—Captains James Campbell and John Shea; Captain-Lieutenants—Meredith and Watkin Tench; First Lieutenants—George Johnson, John Cresswell, Robert Kellow, John Poulden, John Johnson, James Maitland Shairp, Thomas Timmins, Thomas Davey and James Maxwell; Second Lieutenants—Clarke, William Faddy, and W. Collins.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE VOYAGE FROM ENGLAND TO AUSTRALIA.

Fleet Ordered to Sail.—Pindar, in the days of Hellenic civilisation, exclaimed, "Water is the chief of all," but since then science has taught us that the continents are elaborated at the bottom of the seas, therefore "earth is the daughter of the ocean." Dampier, Drake, Anson and Cook, and the host of their followers in the last two centuries, were the founders of maritime discovery, and, by their skilful navigation and writings, have done much to show that the boundless sea can be as safely traversed as the land. Commerce, science, and the arts have been transplanted to distant lands in the southern seas by the discoveries of these daring navigators, and one is lost in amazement at the vast progress navigation made after Cook's voyages, and at the enterprise shown by the British Government in founding a colony at the antipodes. In those days a voyage to the antipodes was considered absolutely dangerous, but in our day and generation the perils of the sea are reduced to a minimum, and the voyage is but little more than a month's pleasure trip. There are few voyages to Australia as interesting as that of the "first fleet," inasmuch as the course taken by Captains Hunter and Phillip has proved to be the safest, most expeditious, and prosperous. Their easting was made between 39 and 40 south latitude, and the logs of hundreds of vessels now clearly show that those vessels that go farther south not only have lengthened voyages, but run dangerous risks from stress of weather or ice-islands. It is foreign to the author's purpose to enter into lengthy details of the voyage of the first fleet, although he is possessed of voluminous manuscripts concerning it, but, in a work of this kind, he cannot very well refrain from giving a summary of its principal events. It was not until the 7th of May, 1787, that Captain Phillip took command of his little fleet, and, the wind blowing favourably for a rapid passage down the Channel, he lost no time in issuing the day and night signals and instructions to Lieutenant J. Shortland for distribution among the masters of the ships. On the 11th, H.M. frigate Hyæna, 24 guns, commanded by the Hon. De. Courcey, joined the fleet to see it safely down the Channel and one hundred leagues to sea. The fleet was then signalled to get under weigh.

MUTINY AMONG THE SEAMEN.—Just as the fleet was under weigh to drop down to St. Helen's, the seamen of the Sirius, Supply, and most of the transports, refused to proceed to sea unless paid their wages up to the day of sailing. The fleet was brought to an anchor, and the next day, the 12th, Lieutenant King was sent on board the transports that had caused the detention. The discontents alleged, as the cause of their refusal to work the ships, that they were in want of many articles of outfit necessary to so long a voyage, which their wages would enable them to purchase. Their demand, although it appeared reasonable enough, was against the custom of their employment, and Captain Phillip, to compel discipline, ordered the ringleaders to be sent on board the Hyæna until the fleet got to sea. To prevent any further disputes the crews received the usual two months' advance of wages. This seaman's difficulty, which Dr. White says proceeded rather from intoxication than any nautical cause, being removed, the Sirius and her convoy got under way and proceeded to sea, but the wind falling short the fleet brought up at Spithead for the night.

FLEET CLEARS THE CHANNEL.—At daybreak on Sunday, May 13th, the fleet weighed anchor, and by 10 a.m. got clear of the Isle of Wight, passing through the Needles with a leading breeze. Owing to light winds the English Channel was not cleared until the 16th, when the astronomical day began and the nautical day finished. The convoy then passed in succession under the stern of the Sirius, and it was discovered that five seamen of the Fishburne had been left behind, which drawback was made good by five seamen from the Hyæna, who volunteered their services from a spirit of enterprise.

THREATENED INSURRECTION BY THE EXILES.—The melancholy emotions that must have filled every breast at leaving their native country behind them for a barbarous country can better be imagined than described. One of the officials, Captain Tench, says, "The general marks of distress were more perceptible among the men than the women, for I recollect to have seen but one of these affected on the occasion, 'some natural tears she dropped, but wiped them soon.' After this the accent of sorrow was no longer heard, more genial skies and change of scene banished repining, and regret and discontent, and introduced in their stead cheerfulness and acquiescence in a lot now not to be altered." On the 16th boats from the transports reached the Sirius with letters to be forwarded by the Hyæna, which was to return to England on the 20th. By these boats Captain Phillip received favourable representations from the commanding officers concerning the regular conduct of the exiles, and at their suggestion he humanely directed the masters of the ships to release the male exiles on board their vessels from their irons, so that they could strip their clothes off at night, and during the day wash and keep themselves clean. This humane order was, without a single exception, extended to the whole of the exiles, as there did not appear the slightest apprehension of danger, especially as those ships that contained the greatest number of male exiles had the largest number of marines. The indulgence had only been enjoyed three days when an exile on board the Scarborough revealed to Captain Shea a scheme which many of the exiles had proposed to make themselves masters of the ship and sail away as pirates. When Captain Phillip heard of the intended insurrection he ordered the two ringleaders to be brought on board the Sirius and interrogated. The men steadfastly denied the existence of the design imputed to them, and being adjudged guilty, they each received two dozen lashes at the hands of the boatswain's mate, were heavily ironed, and sent on board the Prince of Wales. The two informers received pardons, and were landed, while the whole of the exiles, for the wrong doing of a few, were ordered to be confined with additional security.

HYÆNA RETURNS TO ENGLAND.—When the fleet was 100 leagues off Scilly, Captain Phillip committed his despatches, with an account of the state of the fleet, to Captain De Courcey, with instructions to return to England. Accordingly, on the evening of the 20th, the Hyæna saluted the fleet with 21 guns, and, amid ringing cheers on all sides, parted company.

VOYAGE TO TENERIFFE.—Much attention was required to prevent separation of the transports, some of whom, notably the Charlotte and Fishburne, being heavy sailers. As the wind was in the S.W. quarter, with hazy weather, slow progress was made to the southward until May 23rd, when, after heavy rain, the wind inclined to the N.W., and the fleet proceeded southward at the rate of 70 or 100 miles in 24 hours. On the 24th the latitude of Cape Ortugal was made, and the Supply ordered to keep six miles ahead in the daytime and two miles at night, to look out for land. Porto Sancto Island was passed during the night of the 28th, and at daylight on the 30th the Deserters off Maidera were sighted. On the afternoon of the 31st the fleet was abreast of the Salvage rocks, which were luckily sighted in the daytime, as they were not on the ships' charts. Baffled by light airs and calms, the patience of those in command was sorely tried until daylight on June 3rd, when the Island of Teneriffe was sighted. At 6.30 p.m. the fleet anchored in the road of Santa Cruz, and the port officer and some Spanish noblemen boarded the Sirius, and arranged that the customary ceremony of a salute should be dispensed with, as the fort had only two or three guns mounted.

CIVILITIES AT TENERIFFE.—The 4th, being George the Third's 49th birthday, was not honoured with a royal salute for the same reasons that caused Captain Phillip to acquiesce in his omitting to salute the Spanish fort. However, at noon, according to appointment, accompanied by Major Ross, Captains Hunter, Collins, and Tench, Dr. White, Lieutenant King, and 14 other officers, he paid his respects to the Marquis de Brancifort, Governor of Teneriffe and the other Canary Islands, who received them with the utmost politeness and cordiality. On the 6th the Marquis and several officers returned this visit, and spent one hour on board the Sirius. At his request the extent and situation of the new settlement was shown him on a chart of the world, when he expressed surprise at the enterprising spirit of the British Government. By special invitation the next day Captain Phillip and 12 of his officers were hospitably entertained by the Marquis at his residence. Accomplished and fascinating in his manner, the Marquis (who, by birth, was a Sicilian) soon won the goodwill of his English visitors, and we are told that from day to day he delighted to entertain them in a style of elegance and splendour. Among the many proofs of his attention and esteem was the powerful influence he exercised among his people to render the fleet every refreshment and assistance it required. On the 8th, Corpus Christi Day, the business of taking water and wine into the fleet was suspended, out of respect to the great Roman Catholic religious festival. The officers of the fleet went ashore and witnessed the ceremonies and processions. On that and other days the Marquis, with Messrs. Little and Armstrong, and other residents, escorted the officers over the country, and from the places of interest seen and described by the officers, one cannot help noticing that Captain Phillip copied some of his ideas of the plan of the settlement at Sydney Cove, notably the Tank Stream works, from what he saw at Teneriffe. On the eve of the departure of the fleet from the bay Captain Phillip sent a message to the Marquis, thanking him for his civilities, to which the Marquis replied that he felt an interest in the success of the settlement, which he hoped would answer "the anticipations of those who had entered as volunteers on so novel and very uncertain a service."

HEALTHY STATE OF THE FLEET.—Just before the fleet left the Mother Bank a sporatic disease, like the mumps, appeared among the marines and exiles, and while at sea the motion of the vessels acted on those who were afflicted like a placeba, but by frequent explosions of gunpowder, lighting fires between decks, a liberal use of oil of tar, and keeping the bedding and clothing dry, the fleet, although the thermometer daily increased from 60 to 74 degrees, was remarkably healthy. Dr. White's sick list on the 4th of June showed nine marines and 72 exiles under medical treatment, viz.:—Charlotte, four marines, 16 exiles; Alexander, two marines, 26 exiles; Scarborough, one marine, nine exiles; Friendship, 13 exiles; Lady Penrhyn, 11 exiles; Prince of Wales, two marines, seven exiles. Since the first embarkation only 21 exiles and three of their children had died. Of these only 15 and one child had died since the fleet left Spithead. While at Teneriffe all the people were supplied with abundance of fresh provisions, except fruit and vegetables, which were scarce.

AN EXILE ESCAPES.—On the night of the 7th an exile, named John Power, made a desperate attempt to escape from the Alexander. He slid down a rope at the ship's bows into a boat, and in it reached a Dutch East Indiaman. The captain, though in want of men, refused to receive him as a seaman, and Power then pulled ashore. Through the vigilant measures taken by the agents of the contractors (who were liable to a penalty of £40 for every exile that escaped), aided by Captain Phillip and the Marquis, Power was discovered on the 8th secreted in a cavity of a precipitous rock he had failed to scale. Rather than be shot he came down, surrendered himself, was punished and heavily ironed.

CROSSING THE TROPICAL LINE AND THE EQUATOR.—On June 10th the fleet left Santa Cruz with a light breeze, and for two days was becalmed between Teneriffe and the Grand Canary. Nothing of consequence occurred until the 17th, when the fleet crossed the Tropic of Cancer with a steady wind. The Alexander nearly collided with the Lady Penrhyn, whose people did not attend to her steerage, being engaged in ducking each other. On the 18th some of the transports (from the hazy weather, the horizon appearing only two miles off) nearly ran on the Bonavista rocks, which endangered Captain Cook's ship on his last voyage. After passing Cape Verd Islands, off Africa, efforts were made to reach Port Praya Bay, in the Island of St. Jago, but the current and baffling winds rendering the undertaking dangerous, the fleet steered southward. The Port Praya batteries were crowded with people looking at the fleet. After fresh gales they encountered the trade winds, when frequent calms, with dark cloudy weather and heavy showers of rain, squalls rising from every part of the horizon, retarded progress. Approaching the Equator, the weather was so immoderately hot that the females, and even men overcome with it, fainted away, and were afflicted with fits. Despite the enervating effects of the heat, we are told that a shame-

ful promiscuous intercourse took piace when the hatches were off at night-time, and that the shocking immorality was only suppressed by inflicting 300 lashes on several of the delinquent marines and seamen. The wind continuing adverse, Captain Phillip, from necessity that knows no law, limited each person to only three pints of water per day, exclusive of one quart allowed for boiling peas and oatmeal. Considering the heat and diet of salt provisions this was barely enough for the waste of animal spirits. About 5 p.m. on July 14th the Equator was crossed without any inclination being shown by the seamen of some of the transports to observe the ducking and sluicing ceremony usually observed in passing over it. The ridiculous ceremony was performed on board the Sirius, Supply, and one or two of the transports.

THE VOYAGE TO THE BRAZILS.—The voyage from Teneriffe to Rio de Janiero lasted eight weeks. Passing from the northern to the southern hemisphere on July 14th, the S.E. trade winds made amends for the failure of the N.E., and the heats, calms, and heavy rains which incommoded the fleet, were succeeded with delightful weather until August 2nd, when Cape Frio, on the coast of Brazil, South America, was sighted. On the 4th the fleet was off the narrow entrance to the famous land-locked harbour of Rio de Janiero, the only port that approaches rivalry for capaciousness to Port Jackson. Baffled by calms the bar of the harbour was not reached until 9 p.m. on the 6th, when the ships anchored within the islands of Raz and Rodondo. At 2 p.m., on the 7th, the fleet got under way and sailed into the harbour with a gentle sea breeze. In passing Fort Santa Cruz the Sirius saluted it with 13 guns, which the fort returned with a similar number. Drifting in with the tide some of the convoy went alongside each other, which gave the harbour-master on board the Sirius great concern, as only one ship at a time is allowed to enter the narrows. The fleet anchored about one mile from the town of St. Sebastian.

MYRIADS OF FISH SEEN.—In the passage to the Brazils, during July, myriads of whales, flying fish, &c., were seen. Remarkable flights of flying fish with wings on their heads and tails, resembling flights of small birds, closely pursued by their common enemies, bonitoes, albacores, and steip-jacks; also tremendous shoals of porpoises pursuing some wounded fish like a pack of hounds, rushing through watery ground, passed through the fleet. Some of the flying fish struck the ships with such force as to fall lifeless into the water. As the fleet was in sight of Rio de Janiero Sugar Loaf, hundreds of whales played about among the ships. Amongst the many fish caught was one weighing 10lbs., shaped like a salmon. It was of a lovely yellow colour with beautiful green stripes on each side which soon changed to blue. Being a nondescript the sailors called it "Yellow Tail," hence the name to similar-looking, but much smaller, fish abounding in Port Jackson and nearly all Australian waters.

HEALTH OF THE FLEET.—Considering that many of the exiles were unaccustomed to warm climates, and the unwholesome state of the ships, it is surprising that only six persons died during the passage between Teneriffe and the Brazils. Even two of the six met their death by accident, one, a seaman, having, on July 26th, fallen overboard off the spanker boom of the Alexander and, disappearing under the ship, was seen no more; and the other, a female exile, who, on July 30th, was crushed to death, on board the Prince of Wales, by a boat falling off the booms on top of her. At one time the sick-list was very heavy, and many lives were endangered through the careless neglect of the masters of some of the transports to daily pump the bilge water out of their vessels. Numbers suddenly became ill, for the water had grown to such a height that the panels of the cabins, and even the buttons on the officers' clothes, were blackened by its noxious effluvia. In fact, when Dr. White inspected some of the ships on the 18th July, the stench from the holds, when the hatches were removed, was almost unbearable. Acting under Captain Phillip's orders, Lieutenant King, with great propriety and expedition, compelled the masters to purify their vessels. On arrival at Rio de Janiero, Dr. White reported 95 persons of all description on the sick list, of which only four were down with fevers and between 20 and 30 had symptoms of scurvy. The exiles were each served daily with 1 lb. of rice and 1½ lbs. of fresh beef together with a proportion of vegetables during the month the fleet was detained at Rio de Janiero, and great quantities of oranges, and other tropical fruits, were distributed among the exiles. Indeed, oranges were so plentiful that showers of them were thrown among the people by those in the country boats almost daily as they passed the ships. Every possible care was taken to effectually eradicate the seeds as well as resist the attacks of the scurvy.

HOSPITALITY OF THE VICE-KING OF BRAZIL.—When the fleet was becalmed at the bar of the harbour of Rio de Janiero, Captain Phillip sent Lieutenant King to the Viceroy of Brazil, Don Lewis de Varconcellus, brother of the Marquis of Castello Mether, and the Count of Pombeiro, to state for what purpose the fleet visited the port. Lieutenant King was courteously received, and returned with his boat loaded with oranges, presented to Captain Phillip by some of his old Portuguese friends who knew him when he commanded a Portuguese man-of-war on their coast. In the forenoon of the 8th, Captain Phillip, attended by most of his officers, paid the Viceroy a visit of ceremony. At their landing a friar and an officer received them, and conducted them to the palace in the Royal Square, where the guard laid the Portuguese colours at the feet of Captain Phillip as a token of the highest respect. This unlooked-for distinction surprised Captain Phillip who, when in command of H.M.S. Europe, had had some difference with the Viceroy on a public account. It was soon ascertained that the Viceroy, instead of retaliating, did his utmost to obliterate every recollection of the dispute by ordering the garrison to always show Captain Phillip the same honours as they showed to himself. The officers of the fleet were ushered upstairs to an ante chamber crowded with the Viceroy's officers and domestics. The Surgeon-General of the Viceroy's army, who acquired his medical knowledge in London, received the officers in the presence chamber, which was revealed by drawing aside a curtain. Captain Phillip then introduced his officers to the Viceroy, and, when the ceremony terminated, all adjourned to a spacious room, where all sat down for conversation or card-playing. The 15th being a day of great parade and gaiety with the Portuguese, the officers witnessed a cavalcade of all ranks arrayed in their best and richest attire to Gloria Church, where a religious festival was celebrated. There were general rejoicings during the daytime, and a display of fireworks in the evening. On the 21st, being the Prince of Brazil's birthday, Captain Phillip displayed the flag of Portugal at the fore top mast head, and the British Standard at the main and mizzen. Shortly after 9 a.m., accompanied by his officers, he proceeded to the Viceroy's palace to compliment him on the auspicious occasion. On landing, the English officers were conducted by Portuguese officers to the presence chamber, where the Viceroy stood under a canopy of state. On their entry, at 11.30 a.m., a signal was given from the palace to the harbour forts to fire a royal salute. Captain Phillip, expecting such a mark of honour, had directed the commanding officer of the Sirius to fire a salute of 21 guns immediately the forts had fired two guns, which order was faithfully obeyed. After the clergy, military, and civilians had paid their compliments everyone withdrew except the officers of state. The scene was very brilliant, for all appeared richly dressed, the Viceroy wearing a scarlet coat, trimmed with broad gold lace. During the month the fleet stayed at Rio de Janiero Captain Phillip and his officers were treated with every mark of respect by the Viceroy. They were allowed to make excursions six or seven miles into the country, but not to the diamond mines, whose inexhaustible treasures were kept sacred to prying eyes by sentinels, who guarded every pass to them. It is recorded that many whose curiosity led them to approach these mines had been compelled to work for the rest of their lives in the subterraneous cavities. The popularity of Captain Phillip with the Portuguese officials gained many privileges for the officers of the fleet never before accorded strangers, the most noticeable mark of civility and confidence being that each officer could go where he pleased without the mortifying custom of having a Portuguese soldier with him. On September 1st, the fleet being ready for sailing, Captain Phillip and his officers waited on the Viceroy to take leave and acknowledge the indulgences and attentions received. In the palace they were conducted through a delightful recess hung round with birdcages full of beautiful singing birds, and adorned on each side with odoriferous flowers and aromatic shrubs. Entering a room elegantly furnished and painted with representations of all the tropical fruits and most beautiful birds of the country, the Viceroy, uncovered, received each officer in a most friendly manner. When all was seated, he said he was glad to hear they had got all they were in need of, but he regretted the attention of the inhabitants fell short of his wishes. He concluded with saying, "I hope, nay do not doubt from the character the English bear for generosity of disposition, but that those who had so cheerfully engaged in a service strange and uncertain in itself would meet with an adequate reward—a recompense that everyone must allow they justly merited."

INGENIOUS COINERS.—A good idea of the ingenuity and cunning caution of some of the exiles may be gathered from the fact that a number of spurious quarter dollars were coined by them during the passage from Teneriffe, and given to the marines and seamen, who passed them as genuine coins in trafficking with the Portuguese for oranges, plantains, and bread. When the imposition was exposed Captain Phillip instituted a strict and careful enquiry, which conclusively proved that an exile named Thomas Barrett, with two others, had coined the base coin out of some pewter spoons and old buckles and buttons off military clothing, the impression and milling character being so inimitably executed that had the metal been better the fraud would escape detection. Considering that none of the exiles were allowed to attend the fires, and that a sentinel every 10 or 20 minutes went down among them, the adroitness with which they fused the metal and managed so complicated a process as coinage naturally excited inexpressible surprise. We are told that the victimised Portuguese were told by the officials that the perpetrators of the fraud were felons doomed to transportation for committing similar offences in England. The discovery of the spurious coinage was made on August 6th, and on the 31st one of

the marines, pursuant to the sentence of a court-martial, received 200 lashes for endeavouring to get a seaman to pass on shore a spurious dollar given him by an exile.

Fleet Refitted,—During the last 10 days of August the fleet was victualled with everything that the port could spare, and necessary for the settlement. The following plants and seeds were taken on board the storeships :—Coffee, plant and seed; cocoa seed, in the nut; cotton-seeds, jalap, three sorts of ipecacuhana, tamarind, banana plants, oranges of various kinds, both seeds and plants; lime and lemon seeds and plants, guava seed, prickly pears, with the cochineal seed upon it; grape vines, tobacco plant, rice for seed, and pommerose or engonia, a plant bearing a fruit in shape like an apple, and having the flavour and odour of a rose. Besides fresh provisions there were purchased 100 sacks of cassada, or caffava jatropha, the root of a shrub which, after being deprived of its noxious qualities, forms palateable and nutricious food like bread. There was not much wine to be got at that season, but 100 pipes of a spirit called aquadente, drawn by the Portuguese from their sugar-canes, was purchased cheap for the garrison. This was the kind of liquor called "colonial rum," which played a conspicuous part in the early commerce of the colony. In addition to many articles suplied from the Viceroy's stores, a large deficiency in the military stores was made up from the Portuguese arsenal.

Interesting Incidents.—While the fleet was in port the morals of the military and exiles were attended to by the Rev. R. Johnson, who performed Divine service twice on Sundays on board two of the transports. Australia's first astronomer, Lieutenant William Dawes (whom Captain Hunter characterises as one who would "make a respectable figure in the science of astronomy"), erected an observatory on the Island of Enchadus, and astronomically, on August 17th, tested the rate of the time-keeper, and by an eclipse of Jupiter's third satellite, correctly fixed the latitude and longitude of the port, a matter that had caused many angry disputations between Portuguese, Spanish, and French mathematicians. On September 3rd, Captain Gilbert (master of the Sirius) and two midshipmen on the imvalid list, with despatches from Captain Phillip, and letters from many of those in the fleet, were sent on board an English ship which, being leaky while engaged in the southern whale fishery, was forced into Rio for repairs, and was returning to England.

Passage to the Cape of Good Hope.—The next and final place of refreshment for the fleet to stop at before reaching Australia was Cape Town, at the southern extremity of Africa, and the passage there was equally prosperous with that which had preceded it. At 6 a.m. on Tuesday, September 4th, the Harbour-master took charge of the Sirius which, with the rest of the fleet, weighed with a light breeze from the land. When the Sirius got within half a mile of Fort Santa Cruz, that castle saluted the fleet with 21 guns, an uncommon compliment seldom paid to a foreigner. The Sirius returned the salute with an equal number of guns. At 10 a.m. the fleet passed over the bar and, steering to the eastward, got clear of the land with a gentle breeze. The next day Rio Sugar Loaf was eight or nine leagues distant. On the 6th the Sirius signalled that everyone should have an allowance of three quarts of water per day, and between 3 and 4 p.m., on the 8th, Mary Broard gave birth to a fine girl, the first child born in the fleet. The wind blowing fiercely for several days prevented the fleet getting clear of the American coast until the 4th, when the Harbour-master quitted the Sirius for Rio, and fresh breezes, with cold, wet, unpleasant weather set in. On the 17th a shark six feet long was caught (the people making a good mess dish of it), and on the 19th, William Brown, an exile, while bringing clothing from the bowsprit of the Charlotte, fell overboard directly under the ship, which struck and probably killed him. On October 4th, 30 exiles were reported afflicted with scurvy, and on the 6th four seamen of the Alexander were sent to do duty on the Sirius for having combined to release some exiles when the fleet reached the Cape. Being in the vicinity of land on the 12th, at midnight the fleet was brought to until daylight the next day, when land was seen 10 leagues distant. At noon the entrance to Table Bay, at the Cape of Good Hope, was seen, and between five and seven p.m. the fleet was safely anchored in the bay, abreast of Cape Town, after a voyage of more than 1100 leagues from America to Africa in five weeks and four days without separation. At sunrise the next day the Sirius saluted the fort with 13 guns, which was answered by the same number from the fort.

Transactions at the Cape.—Table Bay being the last port the fleet would touch at for refreshment, the Admiralty had directed that all stores and provisions not purchased in England should be procured, as they would arrive in the colony in a better state of preservation (being such a little time at sea) than they would have been if shipped in the Thames. To expedite the business Captain Phillip and the Commissary, as soon as the Sirius came to an anchor on the night of October 13th, went ashore and took up their residence at Mr. De Witts' house. According to the custom of the place they made a requisition to Mynheer Van Graffe, the Governor of the settlement, to request permission to purchase the provisions, especially a quantity of flour and corn, which the fleet stood greatly in need of. The Governor, when apprised of their errand, expressed his apprehension that the request could not be complied with as the colony had recently been visited by that worst of scourges a serious drought, which led to a famine, and that a great scarcity prevailed. However, he said he would submit the requisition to the Cape Council, without whose concurrence in such a business he could not act. Captain Phillip, with judicious perseverance, urged the uncommon exigency of the service he was engaged in, and it was only by his zeal and sagacity that, after the lapse of eight or ten days, the Council manifested any desire to grant permission to contractors to furnish the articles needed. On receipt of the permit, Captain Phillip entered into a contract with Messrs. De Witt and Caston to supply the fleet with as much live stock, corn, and other necessaries as required, which contract was faithfully executed. While in this port the people of the fleet were served with a pound and a-half of soft bread, and an equal quantity of beef or mutton daily, and with wine in lieu of spirits.

Officers of the Fleet Entertained.—His Excellency Mynheer Van De Graffe, as Governor of the Cape of Good Hope, was not far behind the Viceroy of Brazil in civility and attention to the English officers. He was a colonel of engineers in the service of the Dutch Government, but held his commission of Governor from the Dutch East India Co., to which body the Cape colony belonged. On October 16th, Captain Phillip, and most of his officers, paid him a complimentary visit at his town residence, situated in the centre of an extensive and beautiful garden. He received them with extreme politeness, and showed them his managerie furnished with birds and animals, a tiger, a zebra, some fine ostriches, a cassowary, and a lovely crown fowl being the most remarkable. A few hours after he visited Captain Phillip at his lodgings, and the next day returned the visit of such officers that resided on shore to enjoy the comforts of a home preparatory for the longest stage of the voyage. Next day Lieutenant De Witt, of the Dutch navy, and other officers, escorted Dr. White, Lieutenant Dawes, and other officers, on an excursion to the top of Table Land. Early in November the Governor elegantly entertained a large number of the officers of the fleet at a very handsome dinner at his palatial residence. The studied civilities paid the English officers, during their month's sojourn at the Cape, by the Governor and the principal inhabitants, induced Captain Phillip, on November 11th, to give a farewell public dinner on shore to the gentlemen of the town and his own officers. The Governor was to have been present at this banquet, but, by some unforeseen event, he was detained in the country. The day was spent with great conviviality and cheerfulness, and Captain Phillip's band of music considerably enlivened the pleasures of the day.

Live Stock for the Colony Embarked.—One of the most interesting records of the equipment of the fleet at the Cape is the embarkation of the live stock, which formed the first instalment towards that pastoral industry which has justly been designated the backbone of Australian commerce. The Admiralty had given Captain Phillip orders to select as much stock as could possibly be stowed away in the ships, but the country having suffered from a disastrous drought, which raised the value of stock to double what it would have been in times of plenty, and the ships already being crowded in every part, compelled Captain Phillip to circumscribe his intentions on this head. However, he managed to secure 500 animals of different sorts, mostly poultry, all of which were embarked on November 8th and placed in stalls erected for their reception on board the Sirius and storeships, each vessel, from its appearance, exciting the idea of Noah's Ark. The stock embarked on the public account for stocking the projected colony was three mares, each having a colt of six months old, one young stallion, six cows with a calf, two bulls, one of which was six or seven months old, 44 sheep, four goats, 32 hogs, besides goats and a very large quantity of poultry of every kind. The six cows with calf, two bulls, and a number of the sheep, hogs, goats, and poultry were kept on board the Sirius, while the three mares, three colts, stallion and other live stock, were kept on board the storeships. A considerable addition to this stock was made by the officers on board the transports, who purchased such live stock as they could find room for, not merely for food, but with a view of stocking their farms in Australia. Having to pay 10s. per cwt. for hay they did not make many purchases, and what they bought they determined to save for the colony by living on salt provisions.

Cape Fruits, Seeds, and Plants Received.—Captain Phillip, desirous of introducing the best fruits, plants, and fodder seeds of the Cape into Australia, induced Colonel Gordon, who commanded the Dutch troops, and Mr. Mason, the King's botanist, to procure a great variety of the rarest and best species. These gentlemen sent on board the fleet quince, apple, pear, mulberry, bamboo, fig, oak and myrtle trees, besides vines of various sorts, Spanish reeds, sugar-cane, and strawberry plants. They also pointed out the culture, the kind of soil, and the season for introducing them into the colony.

The Fleet Quits the Cape.—All business at the Cape was completed by November 13th, the wished for day, when the fleet was to make another effort to reach its final destination. Just

before the signal for the fleet to weigh was given an American ship, 140 days out, bound to the East Indies, entered the bay with the crew of the Harcourt East Indiaman, which had been wrecked while landing some mutinous recruits on Bonavista, one of the Cape de Verd Islands. The master of this vessel, when told the destination of the fleet, prophesied that if a reception could be secured, emigrations to Australia would take place not only from England, but America, where the thirst for novelty as well as a spirit for adventure was excessive. A few days before this the Ranger, East India packet, arrived in the bay, and Captain Buchanan, her master, delivered a packet of letters from England to some officers of the expedition. Precisely at noon a fresh land wind getting up the fleet weighed anchor and left the Cape for a direct passage to Botany Bay. At 3 p.m. a large Dutch ship, with troops on board for the Cape, was passed, and at dusk the Kent whaler, four months out from London, was spoken, and by her Captain Phillip forwarded despatches to England. The people of the fleet had now left behind them every scene of civilisation to civilise a remote and barbarous country, and plant therein those arts which are the glory of all civilised countries. The fleet had scarcely cleared the Cape when fresh gales from the S.S.E. and S.E. set in, and continued to blow until the 19th, the heavy sea running having greatly distressed the live stock, and killed seven sheep.

Captain Phillip Quits the Sirius and Proceeds to Australia in the Supply.—On November 16th Captain Phillip formed a resolution to shift his pennant from the Sirius to the Supply, and proceed in her, without waiting for the convoy, to Botany Bay, which place he expected to reach at least two or three weeks in advance of the convoy, and thus be enabled to select and clear an eligible position for the foundation of the colony. On the same day Lieutenant John Shortland went on board the Sirius, and Captain Phillip having finally signified his intention of reaching Botany Bay in advance of the Sirius, directed Lieutenant Shortland to embark on board the Alexander, and to hold himself in readiness to take charge of that ship, the Scarborough and Friendship, three of the fastest sailers, appointed to follow the Supply. On the 25th Captain Phillip, accompanied by Lieutenant King and Lieutenant Dawes, left the Sirius and went on board the Supply. Several carpenters, sawyers, blacksmits, and other mechanics from the different ships also embarked on board the Supply to erect some temporary storehouses at the settlement. Major Ross and the Adjutant left the Sirius and embarked on board the Scarborough to take charge of the detachment that landed first. Towards evening the separation of the "Flying Squadron" from the convoy took place, and next day the Sirius could be seen from the mast-head of the Supply, while the other ships were only seven or eight miles from the "Flying Squadron." On the 27th the Sirius and convoy stood more to the southward, and were seen no more by the "Flying Squadron." At the time of separation the fleet had sailed 352 miles, and had 5582 miles of ocean to traverse before reaching Australia. On the 28th easterly gales and cloudy weather set in, during which the Supply outsailed, and lost sight of the Alexander, Scarborough, and Friendship, and proceeded on her lonely course to Australia. A night or so after this separation those on board the Supply were greatly alarmed by the little vessel striking something, and by the look-out announcing "rocks under the lee bow." The helm was put to lee, and the cause of the alarm was discovered to have arisen from the vessel striking and passing over two enormous whales. The next four days the ship went through a spot of yellow coloured water, and experienced fresh gales with rain and a cross, irregular sea. Large flocks of blue petrels and gulls were daily about the ship. Variable fresh gales, cloudy weather, and a boisterous sea were experienced until 10.30 a.m. on January 3rd, 1788, when the S.W. cape of Van Dieman's Land was sighted. At 8 a.m. on the 4th the South Cape bore W. half S., and at 6 p.m. the Mewstone Rocks bore N. by W. half W., five miles distant. Variable breezes, with a heavy cross sea, and clear weather, were the order of the day as the Supply sailed indifferently along the east coast of Australia. At noon on the 13th Hat Hill was sighted, and on the 16th Cape Long Nose and Cape St. George were passed. At 2 p.m. the Supply anchored in Botany Bay in 8½ fathoms of water, the easternmost point, S.E. half E., the southernmost point S.S.E., and the middle of the first sandy bay E. by N., close to the anchorage of Cook's ship, Endeavour, in 1770.

First Division of the Fleet Arrive in Botany Bay.—Governor Phillip had scarcely been 24 hours in Botany Bay when the Alexander, Scarborough, and Friendship, under the command of Lieutenant Shortland, anchored alongside the Supply. After separating from the Supply on November 28th, a succession of pleasant gales and fair weather, accompanied by a prodigious heavy swell from the S.W. was encountered by these three vessels, until January 5th, 1788, when the S.W. cape of Van Dieman's Land was sighted. Tasman's Head was rounded on the 7th, Mount Dromedary was passed on the 15th, and Cape Long Nose seen on the 18th. At 5 a.m. on the 19th the vessels were close to the whfte cliffs southward of Botany Bay, and, at 10.30 a.m., anchored in the bay in seven fathoms of water near the Supply. Great numbers of whales, birds, and singular species of porpoises were seen nearly every day during the last five weeks of the voyage.

Captain Hunter With the Second Division of the Fleet Arrive in Botany Bay.—While Governor Phillip was examining Botany Bay, the second division of the fleet comprising the Sirius, Charlotte, Prince of Wales, Lady Penrhyn, Golden Grove, Fishburn, and Borrowdale, under Captain Hunter's command, anchored at 8 a.m., on January 20th, 1788, in Botany Bay. After losing sight of the "Flying Squadron" on November 27th, 1787, Captain Hunter, finding the fleet had kept in too northerly a parallel to ensure strong and lasting winds, steered to the south and kept between 40 and 43 south latitude. Up to December 16th fresh gales were encountered, the fleet never sailing less than 50 leagues in 24 hours. On January 1st, 1788, the fleet were placed in a very critical position by a heavy gale of wind, the irregular high sea breaking with great violence over the ships. The rolling of the vessels exceedingly distressed the cattle, which were thrown off their legs and much bruised. The ease and comfort of the poor brutes in bad weather was at last secured by slings being put under their bodies. On the evening of the 6th a magnificent Aurora Australis was seen, and during the next day the South Cape of Van Dieman's Land was sighted. On the night of the 8th, off the Mewstone and Swilly rocks, it blew a terrific gale from the N.N.E., accompanied with thunder, lightning, and rain. On the 10th the fleet experienced two very violent white squalls from the N.W. which did all the ships considerable damage. At noon on the 11th the fleet was abreast of Red Point, which is 10 leagues from Botany Bay. When the Sirius arrived off the entrance to the bay it was too late to enter that night, and the ships were signalled to work off under an easy sail until daylight. During the night a heavy gale drove the fleet down as far as Post Down Clump, but at daylight the lost distance was regained, and the Sirius and her convoy sailed into the bay and cast anchor at 8 a.m. in eight fathoms of water. The Supply had only gained 40 hours and the "Flying Squadron" 20 hours in advance of the Sirius and her convoy.

CHAPTER IX.

THE FIRST AUSTRALIAN COLONISTS.

Names of the First Colonists who Landed in Sydney in January, 1788.—Unexampled blessings attended the voyage of the first fleet, of which Captain Collins justly says, that before it was undertaken "the mind hardly dared venture to contemplate, and on which it was impossible to reflect without some apprehension as to its termination." The fleet (nine of which were merchantmen that had never sailed to any distant clime, and were not copper-bottomed like vessels used in trading to distant countries) had left England on May 13th, 1787, and after spending one week at Teneriffe, one month at Rio de Janiero, and another month at the Cape, was, on the 20th of January, 1788, safely anchored in Botany Bay, within a few days sail of New Zealand, the antipodes of London. It will thus be seen that the fleet sailed 5021 leagues in exactly 36 weeks. The arduous undertaking was fortunately unattended with any malignant disease or heavy mortality, and the surmises of the Admiralty that one of the transports would have te be turned into an hospital ship even before the fleet was one month at sea was not in any way verified. It is remarkable that such should be the case, considering that many were afflicted with disease contracted in England before their embarkation, and that numbers naturally became emaciated from long confinement, bad diet, want of sufficient clothing, and every convenience to render such a tedious and boisterous passage tolerable. Captain Tench says "To what cause are we to attribute this unhoped for success? I wish I could answer to the liberal manner in which the Government supplied the expedition. But when the reader is told that some of the necessary articles allowed to ships on a common

passage to the West Indies were withheld from us that portable soup, wheat and pickled vegetables were not allowed, and that an inadequate quantity of essence of salt was the only antiscorbutic supplied, his surprise will redouble at the result of the voyage." No man possessed more humanity than Captain Phillip, and his particular attention was directed to the health of those under him, who were to form the pioneers of Australia, or to use the words of George Canning, "to call a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old." Considering the wealth and population of Australia there can scarcely be a more interesting record than the names of those who were the first seed-grains from which a cluster of prosperous colonies (having undeniable elements of a mighty empire) has sprung, and the rapid growth of which has no parallel in the history of the world. They were the first of the Anglo-Saxon race who performed the first painful task of colonisation by reclaiming the inhospitable waste, and, by laborious persevering, industry, converted the wilderness into rich fields crowned with smiling harvests, the abode of social man and the busy mart of commerce. Of those who developed the first Australian settlement and formed the first colonists not one is now alive, the last one having died in May, 1863. Excluding the seamen of the fleet, the following is a correct list of all descriptions of persons who were present in January, 1788, at the foundation of the first colony in Australia:—

Abel, Robert; Abell, Mary; Abrams, Henry; Abrahams, Esther; Acres, Thomas; Adams, John; Adams, Mary; Agley, Richard; Agnew, John; Allen, Charles; Allen, John; Allen, Susannah; Allen, Mary; Allen, Jamaisn; Allen, William; Alt, Surveyor-General, H.T. Augustus; Altree, Assistant-surgeon, John; Angel, Private, James; Anderson, John; Anderson, John; Anderson, Elizabeth; Anderson, Fanny; Archer, John; Arndell, Assistant-surgeon, Thomas; Arscott, John; Atkinson, George; Ault, Sarah; Ayners, John; Ayres, John.

Bails, Robert; Baker, Sergeant William; Baker, Corporal, James; Baker, Thomas; Baker, Martha; Ball, Lieutenant Henry Lidgbird; Ball, John; Baldwin, Ruth; Balding, James; Balmain, Assistant-surgeon, William; Bannister, George; Barnes, Private, Robert; Barrifford, Private, John; Barland, George; Barber, Elizabeth; Batley, Caten; Barferd, John; Barnes, Stephen; Barnett, Henry; Bartlett, James; Barsby, George; Barsby, Samuel; Barrett, Thomas; Barrett, Daniel; Barry, John; Bason, Elizabeth; Bason, Private William; Bates, Private John; Batcheldor, Private John; Bayley, James; Bazley, John; Beardsley, Ann; Beckford, Elizabeth; Bell, William; Bellett, Jacob; Bellamy, Thomas; Benear, Samuel; Best, John; Bingham, John; Elizabeth; Bird, James; Bird, Samuel; Bird, Elizrbeth; Bishop, Bingham, Private Thomas; Bishop, Joseph; Blackhall, William; Blackburn, Captain; Blake, Thomas; Blanchett, Susannah; Blatherhorn, William; Bloedworth, James; Blunt, William; Boggis, William; Bolton, Mary; Bond, William; Bond, Peter; Bond, Mary; Bond, Private John; Bonner, Jane; Boulton, Rebecca; Boyle, John; Bradbury, William; Bradford, John; Bradley, Lieutenant; Bradley, James; Bradley, James; Bramwell, Private Thomas; Brand, Curtis; Brand, Lucy; Branham, Mary; Brannegan, James; Brannon, Private John; Brewer, William; Brewer, Provost-Marshall William; Brice, William; Brixey, Private Charles; Brindley, John; Brown, Thomas; Brown, Thomas; Brown, Private John; Brown, Private John; Brown, James; Brown, Richard; Brown, William; Brown, William; Brough, Private Ralph; Brough, William; Bryant, Michael; Bryant, Thomas; Bryant, William; Bryant. John; Bruce, Private William; Bruce, Robert; Bruce, Elizabeth; Buckley, Joseph; Buddle, Private Daniel; Bullmore, Private; Burdo, Sarah; Burkitt, Mary; Burleigh, James; Bunn, Margaret; Burn, Peter; Burn, Simon; Burn, Patrick; Burne, Private Terence; Burne, James; Burridge, Samuel; Busley, John; Butler, William; Butcher, Samuel.

Cable, Henry; Campbell, Captain James; Campbell, James; Campbell, James; Carey, Ann; Caldwell, Private Joseph; Carney, John; Carroll, James; Carroll, Mary; Carter, Richard; Cartwright, Michael; Carty, Francis; Castle, James; Cavenough, Private Owen; Carver, Joseph; Cesæar, John; Cheaf, William; Chaddick, Thomas; Chanin, Edward; Chields, William; Chinery, Samuel; Church, William; Chipp, Private Thomas; Clark, Elizabeth; Clark, John; Clark, William; Clark, Lieutenant Zachariah; Clarke, Lieutenant Ralph; Clarke, John; Clear, George; Cleaver, Mary; Clayton, George; Clay, Private Charles; Clements, Thomas; Clough, Richards; Cockran, Private Robert; Coffin, John; Colling, Joseph; Collier, Richard; Collins, Lieutenant William; Collins, Captain J. A. David; Collins, Mrs. Maria, (Judge Advocate's wife); Cole, William; Cole, Elizabeth; Cole, Elizabeth; Colman, Ishmael; Colley, Elizabeth; Colpitts, Ann; Considor, Assistant-Surgeon, D.; Connelly, William; Connolly, William; Conelly, Cornelius; Connell, Private Patrick; Connell, Private Cornelious; Conner, Mary; Cooke, Charlotte; Cooper, Mary; Coombes, Samuel; Coombes, Ann; Copp, James; Corden, James; Cormick, Edward; Cox, John Mathew; Cox, James; Craven, Private James; Creamer, John; Creek, Jane; Cresswell, Lieutenant John; Cropper, John; Cross, John; Cross, William; Cuckow, William; Cudlip, Jacob; Cullen, James Bryen; Crellyhorn, John; Cunningham, Captain James; Cunningham, Edward; Cusley, Private Benjamin; Cuss, John; Crowder, Thomas.

Daley, James; Daley, Gore; Daley, Ann; Dalton, Elizabeth; Daniells, Daniel; Darnell, Margaret; Davidson, Robert; Davidson, Rebecca; Davidson, John; Davies, Sarah; Davies, Mary; Davies, Edward; Davey, Lieutenant Thomas; Davis, Francis; Davis, Samuel; Davis, William; Davis, James; Davis, William; Davis, Richard; Davis, Ann; Davis, Aaron; Day, Richard; Day, Samuel; Dawes, Lieutenant William; Dawson, Margaret; Delany, Patrick; Denison, Barnaby; Dennison, Michael; Dempsey, Private William; Divine, Phillip; Deyer, Leonard; Dickson, Thomas; Dickenson, Mary; Driscoll, Timothy; Dixon, Mary; Dixson, Private William; Dinger, Private Edward; Dodding, James; Donovan, Private D.; Douglass, William; Dowland, Ferdinand; Dowlan, Private William; Driug, William; Drummond, Private John; Dudgens, Elizabeth; Dundass, Jane; Dunnage, Joseph; Dutton, Ann; Dukes, Thomas; Dykes, Mary.

Eagleton, William; Eaton, Mary; Eaton, Martha; Earle, William; Early, Rachel; Eccles, Thomas; Edmunds, William; Edwards, William; Eggleton, George; Ellum, Peter; Elliott, William; Elliott, Joseph; Elsam. Deborah; English, Nicholas; English, Nicholas; Everett, John; Everingham, Matthew; Evans, William; Evans, Elizabeth.

Faddy, Lieutenant William; Farley, William; Farmer, Ann; Farrell, Phillip; Fentum, Benjamin; Ferguson, John; Field, William; Field, Jane; Fillesey, Thomas; Finlow, John; Fitzgerald, Jane; Fitzgerald, Elizabeth; Fitzgerald, Private Henry; Fishbnrne, Private Andrew; Flarty Phoebe; Fleming, Private George; Flynn, Edward; Folly, Private John; Foley, Private John; Forbes, Ann; Forrester, Robert; Fowell, — (Midshipman); Fowkes, Francis; Fowles, Ann; Fownes, Margaret; Foyle, William; Fraser, Private Thomas; Fraser, William; Fraser, Ellen; Francis, William; Francisco, George; Freeman, James; Freeman, Robert; Fry, George; Fryer, Catherine; Fuller, John; Furzer, Q. M. and Lieutenant James.

Gabel, Mary; Gardner, Francis; Garland Francis; Garth, Edward; Garth, Susannah; Gaswyne, Olive; Gearing, Thomas; George, Anne; George, Private Robert; Gess, George; Glenton, Thomas; Gloster, William; Goodwin, Edward; Goodwin, Andrew; Gordon, Daniel; Gould, John; Gowen, Private John; Grace, James; Granger, Charles; Gray, Charles; Green, John; Green, Hannah; Green, Mary; Green, Ann; Greenwell, Nicholas; Greenwood, Mary; Griffiths, Private John; Griffiths, Samuel; Griffiths, Thomas; Grooes, Mary; Gunther, William.

Hacking, Quarter Master Henry; Hadon, John; Haines, Joseph; Halfpenny, Private Thomas; Hall, John; Hall, Joseph; Hall, Samuel; Hall, Margaret; Hall, Sarah; Hall, Elizabeth; Hamlin, William; Hamilton, Maria; Hamby, Private William; Handford, John; Hand, Private Abraham; Handy, Cooper; Handland, Dorothy; Hanaboy. John; Harbine, Joseph; Harper, Joshua; Harris, John; Harris, William; Hares, William; Harrison, Mary; Harrison, Mary; Harrison, Joseph; Harrison, Joseph; Hart, John; Hart, John; Hart, Francis; Hart, Catherine; Hartley, John; Harwood, Esther; Hatchet, John; Hatfield, Williams; Hatch, John; Hathaway, Henry; Hattom, Joseph; Hawwell, Thomas; Hawkes, Richard; Haynes, William; Hayes, Denis; Hayton, George; Hayes, John; Hayward, Elizabeth; Heading, James; Headington, Thomas; Hedley, Private Antonio; Heg, Private Corndius Du; Henderson, Private Robert; Henry, Catherine; Hern, Private William; Hervey, Elizabeth; Herbert, Jane; Herbert, John; Herbert, John; Heritage, Private Charles; Hibbs, Private Peter; Hindle, Ottiwell; Hindley, William; Hill, John; Hill, John; Hill, Thomas; Hill, Thomas; Hill, Mary; Hill, Captain Francis; Hilt, William; Hipsley, Elizabeth; Hogg, William; Hollister, Job; Holloway, James; Holland, William; Hollogin, Elizabeth; Holmes, William; Holmes, Susannah; Hoslop, James; Howard, John; Howard, Thomas; Hubbard, William; Hudson, John; Huffnell, Susannah; Hughes, Hugh; Hughes, Thomas; Hughes, Francis Ann; Hughes, John; Humphreys, Henry; Humphrey, Edward; Humphries. Mary; Hurst, Private Mark; Hunter, Captain John; Hunt, Private; Hurley, Jeremiah; Husband, William; Hussey, James; Hylids, Thomas.

Ingham, Benjamin; Inett, Ann; Irvine, John.

Jackson, William; Jackson, Hannah; Jackson, Jane; Jackson, Mary; Jackson, Private Thomas; Jacobs, David; Jacobs, John; Jameson, James; Jamieson, Assistant-surgeon Thomas; Jefferies, John; Jeffries, Robert; Jenkins, Robert; Jenkins, William; Jepp, John; Johns, Stephen; Johnson, Charles; Johnson, William; Johnson, Rev. Richard; Johnson, Mrs. R.; Johnson, Edward; Johrson, Catherine; Johnson, Mary; Johnstone, Lieutenant George; Johnstone, Lieutenant John; Jones, Edward; Jones, Margaret; Jones, John; Jones, William; Jones, Richard; Jones, Private Thomas; Jones, Thomas; Jones, Private John; Jones, Thomas; Jones, Francis; Josephs, Thomas.

Kelly, Thomas: Kellan, John; Kellow, Lieutenant; Keltie, Captain; Kennedy, Martha; Kidney, Thomas; Kilby, William; King, John; King, Private Samuel; King, Lieutenant Phillip Gidley; Kilpack, David; Kimberley, Edward; Knight, Private Richard; Knowler, John; Knowland, Andrew.

Lambeth, John; Lane, William; Lane Richard; Lankey, David; Langley, Jane; Lara, Flora; Larne, James; Lavell, Henry; Lawrence, Private Robert; Lawrence, Mary; Lawrell, John; Laycock, Caroline;

Leary, Jeremiah; Leary, John; Legrove, Stephen; Legg, George; Lee, Elizabeth; Lemon, Isaac; Leonard, Elizabeth; Levy, Joseph; Levy, Amelia; Lewis, Sophia; Lewis, Private John; Lewis, Private Joseph; Lightfoot, Samuel; Limeburner, John; Limpus, Thomas; List, George; Lock, Elizabeth; Lockley, John; Long, Joseph; Long, Mary; Long, Captain W. A.; Long, Adjutant-Lieutenant John; Longstreet, Joseph; Love, Mary; Lucas, Nathaniel; Lynch, Ann; Lynch, Humphrey; Lyde, John; Law, John.

Mackrie, James; Macintire, John; Mansfield, John; Manning, Private James; Mara, Private John; Martin, Stephen; Martin, John; Martin, Abraham; Martin, Thomas; Martin, Ann; Martyn, James; Marney, William; Mariner, William; Marrott, John; Marriott, Jane; Marshall, Mary; Marshall, Joseph; Marshall, Mary; Marshall, Captain; Mason, Susannah; Mason, Betty; Mather, Mather; Mather, Ann; Maton, Thomas; Maxwell, Lieutenrnt James; Maxwell, Lieutenant G. William; May, Richard; McCormick, Sarah; McCormick, Mary; McCabe, Eleanor; McCarthy, Private John; McDeed, Richard; McDonald, Alexander; McDonnaugh, James; McGrath, Redman; McLean, Francis; McLean, Thomas; McLean, Edward; McLaughlin, Charles; McManus, Private James; McNamar, William; Meech, Jane; Meech, William; Meredith, Captain Lieutenant James; Messiah, Jacob; Meynell, John; Mew, Private Francis; Midgley, Samuel; Middleton, Richard; Milton, Charles; Mills, Matthew; Miller, Commissary-General Andrew; Mitchcraft, Mary; Mitchell, Nathaniel; Mitchell, Mary; Mitchell, Private William; Mobbs, Samuel; Mollands, John; Mood, Charles; Mooden, John; Moore, William; Moore, Private Edward; Morgan, William; Morgan, Robert; Morgan, Richard; Morley, John; Morley, Joseph; Morley, Private Roger; Morrisby, John; Morris, John; Morris, Private John; Morrison, Lieutenant; Moreton, Captain; Morton, Mary; Mortimore, John; Mowbray, John; Moyle, Edward; Mullock, Jesse; Mullis, Stephen; Mullens, Hannah; Munday, Private John; Munroe, John; Munro, Lydia; Murphy, James; Murphy, William.

Neal, John; Neal, James; Needham, Elizabeth; Nettleton, Robert; Newland, John; Nicholls, John; Norton, Phœbe; Nunn, Robert.

O'Bryen, Private Thomas; O'Craft, John; Ogden, James; Okey, William; Oldfield, Thomas; Oldfield, Isabella; Opley, Peter; Oxford, Thomas; Osborne, Elizabeth; Owen, Joseph; Owen John; Owles, John.

Page, Paul; Paget, Joseph; Painter, Private James; Palmer, Assistant-Commissary John; Palmer, John Henry; Pane, William; Parker, Elizabeth; Parker, Mary; Parker, John; Parr, William; Parry, Edward; Parry, Sarah; Parish, William; Parris, Peter; Parkinson, Jane; Parsley, Ann; Partridge, Richard; Partridge, Sarah; Pearce, John; Peaulet, James; Peck, Joshua; Pect, Charles; Penny, John; Perkins, Edward; Percival, Richard; Perrot, Edward Bearcroft; Petrie, John; Pettit, John; Petherick, John; Phillimore, William; Phillip, Captain Arthur; Phillips, Private Thomas; Phillips, Mary; Phillips, Richard; Philpot, Corporal John; Phyfield, Roger; Phyn, Mary; Pigott, Samuel; Piles, Mary; Pinder, Mary; Pipkin, Elizabeth; Platt, William; Pontie, John; Poole, Jane; Pope, David; Poulden, Lieutenant John; Power, John; Power, William; Powell, Ann; Powley, Elizabeth; Price, John; Price, James; Price, Thomas; Pritchard, Thomas; Proctor, Private James.

Ramsey, John; Radford, William; Randall, John; Ranson, Private; Read, William; Read, Ann; Reardon, Bartholomew; Redmond, Private James; Redman, Private John; Reid, Private William; Reilley, Private James; Repeat, Charles; Reynolds, Private Charles; Reymond, George; Rice, John; Richard, James; Richard, James; Richard, David; Richardson, Hardwicke; Richardson, John; Richardson, James; Richardson, Samuel; Richardson, William; Richards, John; Richards, Private Lawrence; Rickson, William; Risby, Edward; Risdale, Thomas; Roach, Henry; Robert, John; Roberts, William; Roberts, William; Roberts, Private John; Robinson, William; Robinson, George; Robinson, George; Robinson, Thomas; Robins, John; Rogers, Daniel; Rogers, Isaac; Rogers, Private James; Rolt, Mary; Romain, John; Rope, Anthony; Ross, Major Robert; Ross, Private John; Rosson, Isabella; Rossor, Private Henry; Rous, Walton; Rowe, John; Rowe, William; Ruffler, John; Ruglass, John; Ruse or Ruce, James; Russel, John; Ruth, Robert; Rose or Russell, Jenny; Ryan, John.

Saltmarsh, William; Sampson, Peter; Sandell, Private Richard; Sands, William; Sanderson, Thomas; Sandlin, Ann; Sawyer, Private; Scattergood, Robert; Scott, Elizabeth; Scott, Private John; Scott, Private Thomas; Scully, Private Thomas; Sever, Captain; Selfhire, Samuel; Seymour, John; Sharpe, George; Shairp, Lieutenant James Maitland; Shaw, Joseph; Shea, Captain John; Shearman, William; Shepherd, Robert; Shiers, James; Shine, Private John; Shore, William; Shore, John; Shortland, Senior, Lieutenant John; Shortland, junior, John; Shortland, T. G.; Sideway, Robert; Silverthorn, John; Simons, Private William; Sinclair, Captain Duncan; Slater, Sarah; Small, John; Smart, Richard; Smart, Daniel; Smith, Ann; Smith, Ann; Smith, Ann; Smith, Catherine; Smith, Catherine; Smith, Edward; Smith, Edward; Smith, Hannah; Smith, James; Smith, John; Smith, John; Smith, Mary; Smith, Private R.; Smith, Thomas; Smith, Thomas; Smith, William; Smith, William; Smith, Willlam; Smith, William; Snaleham, William; Sparks, Henry; Spencer, Daniel; Spencer, John; Spencer, Private Thomas; Spence, Mary; Sprigmore, Charlotte; Springham, Mary; Squires, James; Stanfield, Private Daniel; Standley, Private William; Stanley, William; Stanton, Thomas; Stephens, John Morris; Stephens, Robert; Stewart, Margaret; Stockwell, Private James; Stokee, John; Stogdell, John; Stone, Martin; Stone, Charles, Stone, Henry; Stow, James; Strech, Thomas; Strong, James; Strong, Private William; Summers, John.

Tarr, Private Isaac; Taylor, Joshua; Taylor, Henry; Taylor Sarah; Teague, Corneliur; Tenant, Thomas Hilton; Tench, Captain Watkin; Tenchall, James; Thackery, Elizabeth; Thomas, John; Thomas, John; Thomas, James; Thomas, Elizabeth; Thompson, William; Thomson, William; Thompson, James; Thornton, Ann; Thoudy, James; Till, Thomas; Tilley, Thomas; Timmins, Lieutenant Thomas; Todd, Nicholas; Tonks, Private Williams; Trace; John; Trippett, Susannah; Trotter, Joseph; Tucker, Moses; Tummins, Thomas; Turner, John; Turner, John; Turner, Ralph; Turner, Mary; Turner, Thomas; Tuso, Moses; Twyfield, Ann; Twyneham, William; Tyrrell, William.

Underwood, James; Usher, John.

Vandell, Edward; Vickery, William; Vincent, Henry.

Waddicomb, Richard; Wade, Mary; Wager, Benjamin; Wainwright, Ellen; Walbourne, James; Walker, John; Wall, William; Walsh, William; Walton, Captain Francis; Walton, Captain J.; Ward, John; Ward, Ann; Ware, Charlotte; Waterhouse, Lieutenant Henry; Waterhouse, William; Watkins, Mary; Watson, John; Watson, Thomas; Watson, Private Robert; Watts, Lieutenant; Waters, Private Edward; Webb, Private Robert; Welch, John; Welch, John; Welch, John; Welch, James; West, Benjamin; Westbrook, Private William; Westwood, John; Westlale, Edward; Wheeler, Samuel; Whitaker, George; Whiting, William; Whitton, Edward; White, Private John; White, Dr. John; Wickham, Mary; Wifehammer, John; Wilcocks, Samuel; Wilding, John; Williams, Charles; Williams, John; Williams, John; Williams, James; Williams, Peter; Williams Robert; Williams, Private James; Williams, Daniel; Williams, Francis; Williams, Mary; Wilson, Charles; Wilson, Peter; Wilton, William; Winter, Private John; Wood, George; Wood, Mark; Woodcock, Peter; Woodcock, Francis; Woodham, Samuel; Woolcott, John; Worgan, Dr.; Worsdell, William; Wright, Ann; Wright, Benjamin; Wright, James; Wright, Private Henry; Wright, Joseph; Wright, Thomas; Wright, William; Wood, Lucy.

Yardsley, Thomas; Yates, Nancy; Young, John; Young, Simon; Youngson, Elizabeth; Youngson, George.

LA PEROUSE'S EXPEDITION.—It is a remarkable fact that the French, after the publication of Cook's voyages to Australia, fully intended to take possession of and colonise Australia. They equipped "the La Perouse expedition" some years before the British Government contemplated founding a settlementat Botany Bay. Early in 1785, La Perouse, with the discovery ships Boussile and Astrolabe, left Brest with special instructions to circumnavigate Australia. After cruising a couple of years among the Polynesian Islands, he was informed, at Kamtschatka, of the intended settlement, and then he made all haste to Botany Bay. Fortunately the English fleet arrived in the bay five or six days before the French expedition, and prevented Australia falling into the hands of the French nation. In March, 1788, the La Perouse expedition quitted Botany Bay and nothing was heard of it for 40 years, when Captain Dillon produced relics to show that, in 1788, the ships and all hands were lost among the Manicola Islands. The following is a list of the French strangers who were in Botany Bay on the day the colony was founded:—Captains John Francis Galoup de la Perouse, De Clonard, De Monneron, and De Monli; Ensigns Boutin, Colinet, and Daigremont; Midshipmen De Roux Darbaud, Blondela, and De Lauriston; Geographer Beonizel; Doctors Rollin, Lavaux, John Guillon, James Le Car, and De La Martinieri; Professors Dagelet, Lepaute, Prevost, senr., Prevost, junr., Duche de Vancy, Collignon, Guery, Monge, and Dufresne; Rev. Fathers Receveur, and Monges. The warrant and petty officers were Captains J. Daris and Stephen Lormier, Vincient Le Fer, boatswain; Jeremy Laprise Moutin, lieutenant; De Bellegarde, lieutenant; Le Gobien, F. Tayer, F. Ropars, J. M. Le Bec, J. B. le Maitre, Eutropious Faure, W. M. Gaudebert, M. Leon, Adrian de Mavel, Peter Brossard and J. L'Aine. The gunners and marines were Sergeant J. Gaulin, P. Talon, E. F. M. Livierre, A. Flhire, F. Diege, S. Dectertre, L. Toulas, J. Morel, P. Chauvin, P. Philiby, F. Saulet, G. Gilbert, and J. P. Huget. The artizans were P. Charron, J. P. F. Londe, A. Chauve, P. Maschin, C. Nevin, J. Faudil, A. Moreau, J. Francheteaux, A. Verrier, and L. Pointol, R. M. Le Gal, J. Berney, F. Bizien, J. Le Cam, J. F. Paul, L. Nevel, Y. Queleney, F. Laboucher, J. Gorsael, Olive Creachadu, Y. Bourhis, and Bastian Tanion. The supernumeraries were J. Querreneaur, S. Rolland, J. Vanneau, J. P. Durand, J. M. Bleas, R. M. Cosquet, J. Quinion, F. Querre, P. Canevet, R. Richard, N. Boucher, J. le Rand, F. M. Omnes, and F. Modellabry. The servants were P. Cazauront, R. De St. Maurice, J. F. Bissalion, L. D. F. Bretel, M. Siron, G. De La Villeneuvre, J. C. Marsepin, Dominiè Champion, P. Lebis, J. Jugson, P. Motte, S. G. Diveau, J. Geraud, F. Portorelli, J. Hereau, P. Desluches, M. S. Phillipe and F. Marin. On board the Boussile was a gunner's crew of 12 persons and 38 able and ordinary seamen, besides six Chinese seamen. On board the Astrolabe was a gunner's crew of 10 persons and 40 able and ordinary seamen, and six Chinese seamen.