Notes on New Zealand

THE LIBRARY
OF
THE UNIVERSITY
OF CALIFORNIA
LOS ANGELES

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

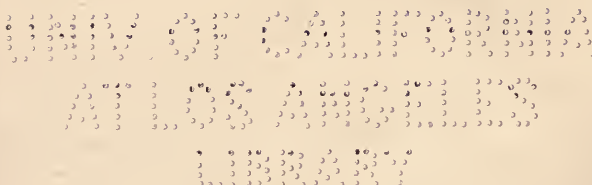
http://www.archive.org/details/notesonnewzealan00swaniala

NOTES ON NEW ZEALAND.

NOTES ON NEW ZEALAND

BY

W E SWANTON



UNIV. OF CALIFORNIA
AT LOS ANGELES
LIBRARY

LONDON
EDEN, REMINGTON & CO PUBLISHERS
15 KING STREET, COVENT GARDEN
1892

[*All Rights Reserved*]

UNIV. OF CALIFORNIA
AT LOS ANGELES
LIBRARY

DU
411
S97n

PREFACE.

THESE notes are intended to embody, in the smallest possible compass, a description of some of the more important features of the country, trade, and productions of New Zealand. I have also ventured to express some of the conclusions at which I have arrived after several years of varied experience in the Colonies, conclusions which, it will be observed, are generally favourable to New Zealand as a field of enterprise and

489430
LIB SETS

emigration in preference to the other divisions of Australasia.

I am fully sensible that this work, brief as it is, is not without its shortcomings and defects, but the main object of its pages will be accomplished if it succeeds in correcting some of the mistaken impressions brought home and disseminated by tourists, and in conveying to the intending emigrant some useful hints concerning one of Great Britain's most valuable possessions.

W. E. S.

Cheltenham, December, 1891.

NOTES ON NEW ZEALAND.

CHAPTER I.

THE COUNTRY, THE CLIMATE, AND THE NATURAL PRODUCTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND.

CHAPTER I.

THE COUNTRY, THE CLIMATE, AND THE NATURAL PRODUCTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND.

ADVANTAGES OF SITUATION.

IN these days, when the prosperity of a country is so largely reckoned by the extent of its trade, the facilities afforded for commerce by its geographical situation and natural formation are of the utmost importance. To the

unique advantages which she possesses in these respects the future greatness of New Zealand will be largely due. We rightly attribute a great deal of England's vast naval and mercantile superiority over all other nations to the fact that she is an island; and in proportion as the means of navigating the ocean become more and more extended, so will the power of island nations become more and more predominant.

New Zealand consists of two large, long islands, and a smaller one in the south, which lie almost entirely between latitudes 35° and 46°.

Here at the outset she has the same advantages, from a mercantile point of view, over the colonies on the continent of Australia as the islands of Great Britain have over the other countries of Europe. She has an isolated and independent position, and the ocean, the high road of commerce, surrounds her on every side.

The two main islands of New Zealand are separated from one another by a narrow channel called Cook's Straits, which rivals the British Channel for the roughness and uncertainty of weather experienced by those who cross it.

If we take an imaginary voyage in one of

the Union Company's steamers round the islands we can best form an idea of their coast line and harbour accommodation. We commence with the North Island and start from Wellington, the capital of New Zealand and the seat of government.

THE NORTH ISLAND.

Wellington Harbour is one of great size, beauty, and usefulness. The largest South Pacific mail steamer may be brought up alongside the wharves. This harbour contains several smaller bays and inlets, upon which are built settlements, which should in time develop into pros-

perous towns, and which at present add greatly to the beauty of the harbour. A better site might have been selected by the early settlers for the City of Wellington, which is now somewhat cramped by the encircling hills, and little space is left for its extension. On visiting Wellington recently, after four years' absence, I found that, in order to build another street, the sea in front had been filled up and a site had thus been provided at an immense expense. The harbour is naturally so constructed as to afford perfectly safe anchorage to craft of every description, and its entrance is strongly fortified.

Leaving Wellington and steaming out of the harbour through The Heads, we take at first a S.E. direction until the Bay and Cape of Palliser are rounded, when we change to the N.N.E. and pass Cape Turnagain, Black Head, and Kidnapper Point, but come to no place of present importance till, after entering Hawke's Bay, we anchor outside Napier. Here we are obliged to go ashore in surf boats, as no wharves have as yet been completed, but a breakwater is in course of construction. The province of Hawke's Bay owes its name to Admiral Hawke, who founded the settlement. The town of Napier is of some importance,

though not of great extent at present, and is situated in a very rich and fertile district. Until Messrs Nelson and Brothers opened their celebrated freezing factory in this town the demand for sheep was so small and the supply of these animals so plentiful that, it is said, the early settlers, in laying down their orchards, planted the carcass of a sheep under each tree for purposes of manure.

This district in common with the greater part of the North Island is largely inhabited by the Maori natives.

Leaving Napier we pass Terakako Peninsula, and are out of Hawke's Bay.

We soon arrive at Poverty Bay, on which lies the town of Gisborne. Contrary to what we might be led to expect from the name, the country around Poverty Bay consists of exceedingly rich pasture land. The Bay itself is of great size and beautifully situated for affording accommodation to vessels. Gisborne is a small but pretty and well-to-do town. Near here, a very short time ago, the Maori Chief, Te-Kooti, and his tribe attempted a rising on account of supposed encroachments on their land, but the mounted police promptly sallied forth, and the Chief having been arrested, the insurrection was suppressed without bloodshed.

We now proceed northward, and passing on our way several bays and capes of minor importance, we round East Cape and Cape Runaway and find ourselves in the Bay of Plenty. This bay contains Taranga Harbour, on which stands Taranga town, principally a Maori settlement. It was to this town that the inhabitants of the Terawera district had to flee on the occasion of the remarkable and fatal convulsion of nature that took place there on the 10th of June, 1886, and destroyed the famous pink and white terraces, thereby depriving the world of one of the most wonderful pieces of scenery ever dis-

covered, and completely devastating the principal hot lake district of New Zealand. Taranga Harbour, in keeping with those already described, is admirably adapted for the commerce of the future.

From Taranga we go northwards past Mercury Bay, the settlement of Coromandel, and Cape Colville, through the Gulf of Hauraki, and past Wai-heki Island till we find ourselves in Auckland Harbour. This harbour is very large and contains the Government Docks; its scenery is famous, and it is a great resort for yachts. Aquatic sports are kept up the whole year round. The ferry from

Auckland across the bay, some three miles distance, is extensively patronized on Sunday afternoons. I might mention in this connection that the Sunday three mile limit is the law in New Zealand; in some parts of Australia a fifty mile limit is the rule.

The city is beautifully situated at the foot of Mount Eden, from the summit of which a magnificent view can be obtained. The warmth of this northern district is not conducive to great business activity. Pleasure seems to be predominant in the minds of the inhabitants, and a great amount of money is invested in sports of

every description. Auckland is only some nineteen or twenty days' run by steamer from San Francisco; this is the shortest postal route between the mother country and her colonies. A letter can now be conveyed from Auckland to Liverpool in thirty-three days, and efforts are being made by the Honourable George M'Clean, the indefatigable chairman of the Union Steamship Company, to reduce this time still further.

Going north from Auckland we pass several fine bays and harbours, but these are of no commercial importance at present, for this is the "native" country,

exclusively possessed by the Maoris, and to parts of which, it is said, no white man has ever penetrated; but the present Governor of New Zealand, Lord Onslow, has been invited by the native chiefs * to pay a visit to their country, in a private and family capacity of course. We will not discuss the motives of the native chiefs in issuing this invitation, but the last white man who returned after a visit to the "King country," as it is called, was so loaded with honours and insignia by these potentates, that he possessed no

* Lord Onslow has since returned safely after a very successful visit.

available space on his body for the reception of any more, in fact they insisted upon tattooing him all over. By virtue of this circumstance he was enabled to escape through their borders, being mistaken for a Maori.

There have been fabulous reports circulated of the gold to be found in this district, which, indeed, are to some extent borne out by the wealth of the very few adventurers who have returned thence safely.

We now round the extreme north of the island, and, changing our course to a southerly direction, we commence our

journey down the west coast. We pass Hokianga and Kaipara Harbours, both very extensive and possessed apparently of excellent accommodation for ships, but as they are also situated in the Maori country, they have not as yet been made use of for commercial purposes. If this peninsula is as rich as reports lead us to believe, it will probably become, when opened up to Europeans, on account of its favourable situation, one of the most important mining districts in the world.

We proceed further down the coast till we reach Manukau Harbour, another of the remarkable enclosed seas for which

the coast of New Zealand is famous. We enter and arrive at the town of Onehunga. Here we are only seven miles by land from Auckland, on the opposite coast, although we have come some 240 miles by sea since leaving there. Indeed Onehunga is but a suburb of Auckland. The narrow belt of land separating the two towns will certainly in the near future be traversed by a canal, and the native country will thereby be artificially transformed into a separate island. Manukau Harbour, though large, does not afford good anchorage for craft on account of sandbanks. We sail further south, past

the mouth of the Waikato River, which has its origin in Lake Taupo, referred to later on. This river, one of the largest in New Zealand, flows through a fairly fertile country, and is remarkable for its scenery. We pass Wangaroa and Kawai Harbours, both of considerable size, and continue our southerly course till we come to New Plymouth, the chief town in the Taranaki province. This town is situated at the foot of the cone-shaped, snow-capped, Egmont Mountain, 8,270 feet high, forming a most impressive spectacle from the sea. New Plymouth is a town of fair importance, but of no great population as yet.

We round Cape Egmont and make for Wanganui, on the Wanganui River, up which we can steam as far as the town. This is a very prosperous district, famous for the breeding of useful horses. A tourist wishing for excitement, sport, and beautiful scenery cannot do better than obtain a boat or a large Maori canoe and proceed up this magnificent river as far as he can go, or as far as the natives will let him. Here he can visit the Maoris at home, and find infinite amusement by mingling in their sports. By the offer of some tobacco to the chief of a tribe and a blanket to his favourite wife, this

monarch can be induced to proclaim a *fête* or gala day throughout his dominions in honour of his visitor, and the festivities which then ensue are of a most interesting and diversified nature.

We come to no further place of importance, but, rounding Cape Terawiti and crossing Cook's Straits, we leave the Northern Island behind us and commence our voyage round the Southern.

THE SOUTH ISLAND.

We proceed down the east coast, in sight of Cape Campbell, and, further on, the Kaikoura Peninsula, on which is

situated Kaikoura town, a small port for the district of the same name.

Next we arrive off the town of Kaipoi, on the Waimakariri River, which flows into Pegasus Bay. Here are the well-known Kaipoi woollen factories. The town lies rather low, and is subject to the occasional disadvantage of being flooded in the spring by the overflowing of the river above mentioned, due to the melting of the snow on the Southern Alps.

We next reach Lyttleton Harbour, which somewhat resembles Wellington. We pass in through The Heads, and,

rounding a promontory on the right, are in full view of Lyttleton town, situated at the foot and on the side of a steep hill. In front are the breakwaters, and inside them the wharves, alongside which large ships can come. The harbour, however, is somewhat dangerous for small sailing craft, on account of the sudden squalls which come down from the encircling hills. The town is small, but is of considerable importance through being the port for Christchurch, from which it is a journey of twenty minutes by train, five minutes of which are spent in passing through the Lyttleton tunnel, cut through

some of the hills which form the Bank's Peninsula.

Leaving Lyttleton, we steam round Bank's Peninsula, passing several minor bays, the great resorts of excursionists from Christchurch, and put into Akaroa Harbour, on the other side of the Peninsula. This harbour is very beautiful, and here the French commenced the first white settlement on the South Island. This is a great fruit growing district, and many ancient Maori relics and caves are to be found along the coast, which is a favourite resort in summer. The Peninsula is composed almost entirely of hills, ranging

about 2,000 feet high. On these hills the cocksfoot grass is grown and harvested, as the seed commands a good price in local markets.

We now sail for Port Chalmers, calling at Oamaru on the way. Oamaru is famous for its beds of freestone, of which the town is entirely built, and from which it earns its name of the "White City." The stone is most excellent for architectural purposes, and is easily carved. Here are situated the flour mills belonging to Messrs. Meek, perhaps the largest in the Colony. The harbour, the outlet for one of the richest tracts of country, was not

naturally good, but has been vastly improved by artificial means.

Further south we enter Otago Harbour, and, passing Port Chalmers on the right, we arrive at Dunedin. Port Chalmers was originally the port for the larger vessels, which now, however, are enabled to proceed up as far as Dunedin itself. Dunedin is a Scotch settlement, and still retains, in a marked manner, the national characteristics of its founders. The City, the capital of the Otago province, is of great importance, and is nicely situated at the inner extremity of the Harbour, which is formed by a long arm of the sea, and is

not so remarkable for beauty of scenery as many others in New Zealand.

Rounding Cape Saunders and going south, we pass the mouth of the Molyneux River and the town of Newhaven, and enter the Foveaux Straits, between the main island and Stewart. We safely weather The Bluff, so-called from its summary manner of dealing with vessels which approach too near its rugged shores, and put into Invercargill Harbour. This is a fine harbour and well sheltered, and the town of Invercargill has the reputation of being the best laid out town in the Colony, but this is of small importance since there

are no inhabitants. It should, however, in time, and with the arrival of population, become one of the principal ports.

We now sail westward, passing Riverton, a gold mining settlement, and Tewywy Bay, then veering round to the north, pass Preservation Inlet, Chalky Inlet, Dusky Bay, Breaksea Sound, Doubtful Inlet, George Sound, and Milford Sound, up all of which there is delightful and rugged scenery. On the last-named is Mitre Peak, famed for its peculiar beauty; at the head Sunderland Falls, 550 feet high. Of this coast Captain Cook says:—"A prospect more rude and craggy is rarely

to be met with. Far inland appeared nothing but the summits of mountains of a stupendous height, and consisting of rocks that are totally barren and naked, except when they are covered with snow."

The part of the coast just passed is greatly indented, a remarkable fact to be observed in connection with the south-west coast of nearly every country.

We continue to steer N.N.E. till we reach Hokitika. The harbour is not so fine as those already described, but the town is the most important at present on the west coast. We are now lying off the famous Gold Coast of New Zealand, con-

cerning which so many remarkable stories are related. The district is largely populated with Chinamen. On the beach, and even for some distance out to sea, gold is sought and found.

We next reach Greymouth, on the Grey River, famous for its coal, and, at one time, also for gold. Brunnerton, further up the river, is also important on account of its coal mines.

Continuing northward, we round Cape Foulwind and arrive off Westport, on the Buller River. This place is also famous for its coal, of which the engineers on the Ocean liners testify that for getting up

steam it has no superior, though the heat which it creates is liable to burn through the fire boxes. All these towns do a large trade in minerals of various descriptions.

We sail northward until we round Cape Farewell, then changing our course to the south, we skirt the bay, known either as Golden or Massacre, and anchor off the City of Nelson. We are now in the large open bay of Tasman or Blind Bay. Nelson is regarded as one of the prettiest towns in New Zealand in more senses than one, as a curious circumstance in connection with its population is the reported proportion of thirteen women to each man.

The beauty of the situation evidently induced numerous emigrants to settle there; the scarcity of work and business has since compelled the male population to leave it. The town is built on the summit of the magnificent cliffs surrounding the bay. It is a health resort and possesses a fine college for youths.

We steer north once more in order to leave the bay, round D'Urville Island and Admiralty Bay, and enter Queen Charlotte's Sound, up which we steam to Picton. This is a small town, owing its principal importance, at present, to its connection by rail with Blenheim, for

which it is the port. Blenheim is the chief town in the Marlborough province, and lies in a rich agricultural district. Queen Charlotte's Sound is long, narrow, and irregular in shape, and contains some small islands. Leaving the Sound, we cross Cook's Straits again, and arrive once more at Wellington. Here our voyage ceases and we disembark, bearing in mind that we have not been following the regular routes of the Union Steamers, which would often have taken us out of sight of land, but that we have been following a course of our own, and the one best suited to the objects we had in view.

We now turn our attention to some of the principal inland features of the country.

INLAND FEATURES.—CHARACTER OF THE COUNTRY.

The greater part of the North Island is at a considerable elevation above the sea, and the country may be described as of an undulating character. These highlands are chiefly covered with heavy bush, or what would in England be called forest. The trees are, as a rule, of immense size, and their description varies with the character and elevation of the soil. Much of the timber would be of great value for a variety

of purposes, but it is unfortunately scarcely utilized for anything except firewood and fencing by the bush settlers, who clear their lands by felling and burning the forests. A man well acquainted with the New Zealand bush can tell to a very great extent the nature and quality of the soil by the kind of trees which grow upon it; for instance, the Kauri pine (Demarara Australis), the timber of which is considered very valuable for ship and house building, and the average height of which is 120 feet, with a diameter of 10 feet, grows upon land of very little use for pasture or grain; and again, where the

Manukau scrub grows the land is not of much value. The various classes of trees of which the bush is composed are generally confined to separate latitudes and altitudes. The Kauri above mentioned is not found south of latitude 38deg. The bush is in some parts as impassable on account of its heavy undergrowth as the forests described by Stanley in "Darkest Africa."

The following is a list of the principal trees indigenous to the country, with their average heights, etc. :—

The Rata, or iron wood ; an extremely hard wood.

The Rimu, or red pine (130 feet by six feet); the timber is both useful and ornamental.

The Monoa, or yellow pine (80 feet); timber light and durable.

The Matai, or black pine (80 feet by four feet); a heavy timber used for piles, etc.

The Miro, or bastard black pine (60 feet by two feet); not so useful as black pine.

The New Zealand Cypress; the timber is reddish and fine grained; excellent for planks and spars.

The Totara (120 feet by 10 feet); very

durable; one of the most useful timbers known.

The Kakikatea, or white pine (150 feet by four feet); a white soft timber like deal.

The Puriri; a very hard wood; indestructible under water.

The Ake Ake; a hard, close grained wood.

The Rewa Rewa, or New Zealand Honeysuckle (100 feet); used for cabinet making.

The red and black birches.

The Cabbage Tree (20 feet); peculiar to New Zealand, something like a palm with the stalk of a cabbage.

In addition to the foregoing list there are, of course, several trees of minor importance and value.

The hills upon which this bush grows average from 1,000 to 1,500 feet in height, and are intersected by deep and picturesque gorges, through some of which, near Wellington, the railway runs.

When the land has been cleared of bush, seed is sown and stock grazed, but the stumps of the trees cannot be got rid of for several years. Near the coast of Hawke's Bay, however, and in various other districts throughout the North Island, there is some splendid land free

from bush. Bush land is generally good pasture land when cleared.

Many of the mountains in New Zealand are volcanoes; in fact, the North Island is a volcanic country, and subject to frequent though slight earthquakes. The highest mountain in the North Island, Raupehu (9,193 feet), is not a volcano. Tongariro (6,500 feet) is the principal volcano.

Tauranga, on the Bay of Plenty, is the neighbourhood most addicted to volcanic displays. Here were the lakes Rotorua and Terawera, destroyed by eruptions in 1886. Throughout this district hot springs abound, very beneficial to persons suffer-

ing from a variety of afflictions, though not greatly resorted to, as they lie in a district chiefly inhabited by natives and earthquakes.

The North Island is well watered, the snow-capped mountains keeping well supplied the numerous rivers which flow through the fertile districts to the coast. The centre of the island being chiefly at a higher elevation than the land lying near the sea, it forms one large watershed for all the surrounding country. A traveller might complain of want of inhabitants, but he could not complain of want of water. This is another all important advantage which

the Islands of New Zealand owe to their situation and natural formation; they have not to fear the terrible devastating effects of the prolonged droughts so common on the neighbouring continent of Australia.

The largest lake in New Zealand is Lake Taupo, in the centre of the North Island.

Turning to the South Island we find that some of the principal points in which it differs from the North Island are that it is more mountainous, though not given to earthquakes; minerals, as far as is known at present, are more abundant; the mountains are not generally covered with bush,

though in some parts the sides are bushed to a certain height, above which the rocks show out; the mountains are less fertile, especially further south, on account of the colder climate; they are also higher; there are no volcanoes, though there are glaciers on some of the higher mountains, namely, Mount Cook and Mount Tasman.

The Southern Alps form a kind of gigantic backbone to the South Island. They run from Nelson Province in the north to Otago in the south, dividing Westland from Canterbury, and provide another huge watershed for this island.

The Province of Canterbury is chiefly

composed of plains originally covered with native tussock grass, but now nearly all under cultivation. This is the only part of the island which is not well watered by nature; but the wants of nature have been supplied here, as elsewhere, by man, and water races have been taken all over the plains. A curious circumstance in connection with the rivers which are to be found in Canterbury deserves to be mentioned—they are all above the level of the plains.

The bush of the South Island, generally speaking, does not comprise such a variety of trees as that of the North Island,

nor is the timber of such a valuable description. Black birch is the principal tree.

On the Hanmer plains of North Canterbury are to be found the hot springs, greatly resorted to by invalids, as they are more accessible than those of the North Island. Here a great earthquake took place in 1888, the most severe that has ever been felt in the South Island. Scientists could not account for this unusual phenomenon.

The principal lakes are to be found in Otago, where there is some of the most beautiful scenery in the world.

NATIVE ANIMALS, BIRDS, REPTILES, FISHES, etc.

New Zealand may be said to have no native animals or reptiles with the sole and insignificant exceptions of the Maori rat, and a small, red-backed, venomous spider, which exists in the bush near the sea. The famous wild pig of New Zealand was originally introduced by Captain Cook, and affords exciting hunting. The goats which run wild near Hawke's Bay were also imported, and so were hares and the rabbits of which so much is heard. These, which I have mentioned, may be said to be the only wild animals in New Zealand, unless,

perhaps, I include under this category the merino sheep. One man attempted to introduce the English fox, and let two of these sportive creatures loose in Auckland, but the inhabitants, becoming aware of this circumstance, sent out an expedition to destroy them, an object which the expedition successfully accomplished after considerable toil and trouble. Another man wanted to introduce snakes from Australia, but as the inhabitants on this occasion formed an expedition to destroy *him,* he left the country without executing his purpose. An Acclimatization Society, however, has been formed and legalized, and the right to

import other than domestic animals is now confined to it alone. I may here remark in passing that there is no such thing as hydrophobia or rabies in dogs in New Zealand, and a person wishing to import a dog has to let it remain in quarantine for six months.

Native birds are, however, more numerous than animals, and there are several different species. Some of these are very beautiful and have melodious notes, the Bell bird, for example, and the Toï, the destruction of which is a punishable offence. The Weka, a bird of the ostrich species, only about the size of a fowl, is also pre-

served, as it kills young rabbits and devours slugs. English duck and teal are plentiful, also wild swans and geese. Pheasants are numerous in some parts, also jack snipe. Game of this kind is abundant. Sparrows were imported from England to destroy the caterpillars, slugs and other insects, which do so much damage to field and garden produce; but these birds have multiplied so extensively since their introduction that it is a question if the cure is not worse than the disease. The starling would have been a much more useful importation for the purposes required, and would have proved harmless to the grain

crops. I have seen many crops simply threshed out while standing by sparrows.

English trout have been placed in the rivers, and grow to a size never seen in the country whence they came, but they have a less delicate flavour on this account. Salmon are not as yet found in the rivers, but the Acclimatization Society are cultivating the spawn in their ponds.

All animals, birds, and fishes seem to thrive in New Zealand, and generally grow to a larger size than in England.

Domestic animals, such as horses, sheep, dogs, etc., were all, of course, originally imported. Sheep were in some cases

brought from England, and the different breeds have been kept up ; but the merino sheep, which at present constitute the largest flocks, were originally the Spanish merino imported to Australia and thence to New Zealand. The same careful attention is not given to domestic animals and cattle of every description in New Zealand as in England ; they are allowed to look after themselves to a greater extent, and are stronger and hardier.

The native inhabitants of New Zealand, the Maoris, are a fine race of men, intelligent and physically well developed ; but unfortunately they are now deteriorating,

having imbibed an undue proportion of the vices of civilization. The half-caste has a very poor constitution, though muscularly powerful.

THE CLIMATE.

A few words upon the climate of New Zealand—one of the principal causes of the health, strength, and fine development of all its animal and vegetable productions—remain to be said.

The climate throughout the whole length of New Zealand, from north to south, varies considerably, according to the latitude. Speaking generally, it is warm and

genial; in summer the heat is not excessive, as in Australia, nor yet is the cold at all severe in winter. The seasons are evenly divided, as in England, into spring, summer, autumn, and winter, the New Zealand summer, of course, corresponding to the European winter, and *vice versâ*. In Auckland, the northernmost province, the summer is rather hot, but the atmosphere is always tempered by the sea breezes. Owing to the long and narrow shape of the islands, neither heat nor cold can ever be excessive in any part. Thus in Otago, the southernmost province, the cold is not so great as might be expected from its

latitude. The moderating effect of the surrounding ocean upon the climate is thus fully enjoyed by the inhabitants of New Zealand, an advantage which they possess over the Australian colonists, who have to endure the unmitigated harshness of their continental siroccos. There are not those "dry and rainy seasons" of which many people talk in connection with the colonies generally. Frosts, of course, come and go in winter time, but they only occur, as a rule, in the south of the South Island, and are almost unknown further north. Snow is seldom seen in the North Island, except on the higher mountains, and if it does

happen to fall it never remains on the ground. In the South Island, however, snow does fall at times, but will never last throughout the day, except in the more southern provinces.

December and January are the hottest months, June and July the coldest. October corresponds with May in England.

The northerly winds are, of course, the warm winds of the Southern Hemisphere. The warm winds of New Zealand are from the north-west; they have their origin in Australia, and cross the ocean to New Zealand. These winds in the South Island

blow with considerable violence at times, and their fury is an occasional cause of complaint against certain parts of the country, more especially the Canterbury Plains, where they come whirling out of the gorges of the Southern Alps, causing havoc among the grain crops, while buildings and trees are levelled before their blasts. At one place where I was staying in Canterbury the iron roof of an outbuilding was blown away, and on the same day a small wooden railway station was carried bodily down the line; but damage like this is seldom done, and these winds never continue more than a very few days.

They occur mostly in November and February, and their duration is unfavourable to work of most descriptions, as they create thirst and languor. There are what are called "nor'-west days," when hardly any wind is perceptible, so named on account of the close, dry heat; this weather is of great service in ripening the crops.

The quarter from which most of the rain comes is the south-west, and the winds which blow thence are generally cold, and at times come in what is called a "sou'-west buster," that is to say, they come suddenly and with force, and pass

over quickly—perhaps in half-an-hour. The east winds are not frequent, but are the really cold and keen winds, as in England, and are not accompanied by rain.

The atmosphere of New Zealand, generally speaking, is far purer and more invigorating than that of England, and such a thing as a foggy day is unknown. There is an occasional morning mist, but the sun and wind soon disperse it.

It is not all sunshine, of course, for in the south there are many cloudy days, but the exhilarating effect of the climate is evidently responsible for the increased activity and liveliness displayed by those

who find their way from other countries to New Zealand.

New Zealand, moreover, is free from all those plagues which the possession of a vast, uninhabitable and desert interior entails upon the Australians, as it did upon the Egyptians of old and still does upon their successors of to-day. The dry, arid wastes of immense extent lying behind the colonies of Australia, form what I may call the Sahara of the Southern Hemisphere, and from these deserts all manner of evil things come forth. Clouds of locusts, covering the sky from one horizon to the other at certain seasons of the year,

spread themselves over the doomed land, and dropping like rain in myriads upon the fields and pastures and cultivated tracts, utterly consume everything with which they come in contact. Tribes of grass-hoppers, moreover, closely resembling locusts in many respects, commit similar devastation. The locust and grasshopper plagues in Australia, in fact, assume very serious proportions, and it is questionable whether they or the rabbits inflict the greater injury upon the farmers. It is true that in one or two districts of New Zealand also the rabbits have to be reckoned with, but in the latter country

they are more manageable, and for various reasons their invasion has been much more successfully resisted.

In view of such remarkable commercial and climatic advantages as New Zealand has thus been shown to possess, the comparative smallness of her population at the present date may excite surprise. This circumstance, however, may be said to be due, partly to the fact that the islands were discovered at a later date than Australia, and partly to the fact that they were not, like the latter country, made the depôt for numbers of convicts from the Old World.

CHAPTER II.

AGRICULTURE.

CHAPTER II.

AGRICULTURE.

MINING and agriculture, in the broad sense of the word, have been and are still the two great sources of wealth of the Australasian colonies, and New Zealand forms no exception to this rule. In point of importance, gold-mining, perhaps, at one time, occupied the first place, but agriculture now holds that position. Under the heading of the latter, therefore, I will

now briefly treat of crops, cattle, wool-growing, horses, etc., and will endeavour to give some idea of how these various branches of the subject are pursued in New Zealand.

MISTAKES OF BEGINNERS.

Before doing so, however, I am of opinion that a few remarks upon the obstacles and dangers which generally beset the intending agriculturist are necessary. It is in the nature of a farmer to grumble, and this circumstance probably explains why we hear more of the misfortunes and reverses incident to this occupa-

tion than of any other. The man who engages in farming in New Zealand meets from time to time with various difficulties, but few of these would ever prove insurmountable were it not for his own ill-advised action at the start. The course which is so often pursued with disastrous results by the "new chum," and too frequently also by the man who ought to know better, is to commence by investing the whole or by far the greater portion of his capital in the purchase of land, and then to fondly imagine that his fortune is made. He soon finds that, on the contrary, his difficulties are only just

beginning. His land must be stocked, and he has no money left to stock it with, so the farm is mortgaged to obtain it, and is thus ever afterwards subject to a heavy charge in the shape of the interest exacted by the lenders.

Then the "new chum" hardly knows what to do next. He has probably had little to do with farming before, but, like many others, is under the impression that anyone can farm, especially in the Colonies; and his mistake begins to dawn upon him. Then comes a bad year, and further expenses are incurred, while the mortgage company presses for the interest,

probably overdue. He is unable to pay; the mortgage is foreclosed, and the unhappy immigrant finds that verily he has come to a strange land and is among strangers.

The intending settler must not imagine that, because he has a knowledge of English farming, he is therefore competent to commence farming "right away" in New Zealand. Doubtless his knowledge will be of great importance and usefulness, but not until after he has learnt the way in which farms are conducted in the Colony. If he has capital, he had better put it in the bank and draw only what is necessary

for his expenses. Then let him go about the country and see how things are done, visit various stations, and be willing to receive information. He will find farmers and station holders most hospitable, and ready to assist him. If he has not the means, however, to adopt this course, let him find work on a good farm of the kind that he thinks will suit him best, but he must not expect high wages at first. Let me warn all against the pernicious custom of paying premiums as "cadets," and against being swindled by so-called "labour offices."

I might here mention that at Lincoln,

in Canterbury, about 14 miles from Christchurch, there is situated a School of Agriculture, affiliated to the Canterbury University and governed by the same Board. Mr. W. E. Ivey, M.R.A.C., F.C.S., F.I.C., is the managing director. The farm attached covers about 660 acres. The school is a very fine building, and has accommodation for some 50 students. The course covers two years, at the end of which time the student receives a final certificate provided he has passed his examinations, practical and theoretical, satisfactorily.

METHOD OF FARMING.

The best plan, in my opinion, for a small capitalist to adopt is to rent his farm. The rent is, as a rule, a far less vexatious charge than the interest on a heavy mortgage. Rents, of course, differ widely, not only according to the quality of the land, but also according to the facility of market, railway freight being high.

The capitalist having rented a small or average-sized farm, of some 500 acres or upwards, according to his means, will find it pay him best to employ as little daily or weekly labour as possible, but to have his

ploughing, harrowing, drilling, etc., done by contract. Thus he will avoid the necessity of keeping a number of horses, which, at certain times in the year, he has no work for. On 500 acres a three-horse team and a spare horse are usually sufficient, together with a useful hack. Draught horses cost about £22 each, which may seem, as indeed it is, a low price.

On a farm of this description, it is the general rule to make wheat the main crop, but, of course, in respect to this, the farmer is, or ought to be, guided by the market and the character of his land

Oats are largely grown, but in 1890 the price was only 1s. 6d. per bushel, so that it did not pay the farmers to sell, and many cut their oats into chaff without threshing, and fed their sheep and cattle on them. Barley generally commands a fair price, although it is not greatly grown, and turnips form another of the principal crops.

In growing grain the New Zealand farmer does not manure, as I understand the English farmer does. It is a mistake not to do so, for the land will not hold out for ever; but in manuring the high rate of wages, etc., has to be taken into consider-

ation. It would be quite unnecessary, however, to manure to the same extent as in England.

The principle of the rotation of crops is adopted by a great number of the better class farmers, and this saves the land very much. At one time in Canterbury there were people who took up land for about four or five years at a time and simply grew nothing but wheat. Of course this ruined the land for some time to come. When they had finished one patch they took up another, and repeated the operation. From this they obtained the title of "skinners."

As regards labour I may say that although it is very expensive, and wages are very high, yet, from what I can see of English methods, one man in New Zealand gets through the work of two men and a boy in the old country. The implements in common use are also of a more labour-saving kind. On level land double furrow ploughs are generally employed, sometimes treble furrow. In the double furrows there are either three or four horses; in the latter case they are yoked by means of block and tackle. In the treble furrows five horses are used. The chief implement makers are Messrs.

P. and D. Duncan, of Christchurch, and Messrs. Reid and Gray, of Dunedin. The horses in the plough are put in abreast, and one man drives them and also looks after the plough. There are no boys required to lead the horses.

CROPS.

I will now, having given this brief outline of the subject, take the various crops as they come.

Wheat, as I have already stated, is the main grain crop. It is mostly grown in the South Island; in fact, comparatively little grain is grown in the North Island.

The richer land is, of course, best suited to this crop. The principal wheat growing districts are as follows:—Around Blenheim, the capital of the Marlborough Province; around Kaipoi and Christchurch in Canterbury; and throughout the Ashburton district, where we find Mr. John Grig's large estate, at one time a swamp, but reclaimed through the energy of its owner; in South Canterbury and the Methven district, where is situated Messrs. Gould and Cameron's estate; further south in the Waimate district, where Mr. Studholme possesses a large tract of splendid country; in the Timaru

and Oamaru districts, where there is some magnificent land for grain, extremely rich and fertile, the yield sometimes reaching 60 bushels an acre; further south, around Dunedin, where the land is more mountainous, thence on towards Invercargill and Southland, a country where the yields are very good.

Throughout all these districts a farmer must be guided by the surroundings and climate, as to when to sow, when to reap, and when to prepare his land, the times for performing these operations to the best advantage being, of course, ascertained by experience. Both

spring and winter wheat are grown, but the latter is considered the better crop if the weather be comparatively dry.

Prices vary from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. a bushel, and greatly depend upon the season in other parts of the world.

Oats are grown everywhere and anywhere, the varieties best suited to the soil and climate of New Zealand being Sparrowbills, Tartarians, Duns, and Canadians. Sparrowbills are chiefly grown on account of their large yield and short but sweet straw. The straw is used for chaff; in fact, in some instances the farmer never threshes his oats at all, but simply

takes them out of the stacks and cuts them into chaff as he may require. The double-bagger chaff cutter made by Andrews and Bevan, of Christchurch, is a perfect machine for this purpose, and is even imported to Australia by farmers there.

Oats, as I have already stated, were not in 1890 a paying crop, beyond what were grown by the farmers for their own consumption. The want of a market was principally due to the lack of foresight of the farmers generally, who, because a particular crop has fetched remarkably good prices for one year, must needs all

take to growing that crop next year, with the natural result of a supply far in excess of the demand.

Oats may be sown, according to the kind, any time from May to the end of September. They are often taken before turnips as a "catch crop," and in this case they are mixed with vetches.

Barley is grown in both islands; cape or six-rowed barley anywhere, malting or two-rowed barley principally in the South Island, on the lighter and drier lands. Cape barley is sown in April and May, and stock are fed on it during the winter, after which the paddock is closed, and the crop

allowed to come to ear. The grain is chiefly used for feeding pigs.

Good malting barley generally commands a profitable price. The yield on fair lands is some thirty bushels an acre. The crop is generally taken after peas, and sown in August and September.

Mangolds and turnips are the principal root crops. The former are grown for feeding cattle ; they are cultivated in much the same manner as turnips, but are not of such importance in New Zealand as the latter.

Turnips afford the chief food for sheep during the winter in the South Island.

This crop is generally taken after wheat. In some parts turnips are sown broadcast, and this work is usually performed by a machine and not by hand, but "drilling" is considered a far superior method, especially when the water-drill is used and manure put in to the extent of about two hundredweights per acre. Turnips are sown in November and December, and the yield on good land is generally from 25 to 35 tons per acre. Sheep are fed on turnips during June, July, and August, and are given hay and chaff to pull at in racks.

Peas are generally grown as a prepara-

tory crop for both wheat and barley, and are often taken after oats. The yield is usually good, and the kinds chiefly grown are Prussian Blues, Early Emperors, Black-Eyed Susans, and Duns. They are cut with a hay-mower and raked into wind-rows, and either stacked or threshed at once; the latter, when convenient, is the best method, as the peas shell out greatly when in stacks.

Peas may be sown in June or July, and are harvested in the beginning of January.

Beans are not greatly grown, as they are not considered a paying crop.

There is a fodder crop which I have not

yet mentioned, and one which in England is regarded as of the greatest importance, namely, the hay crop. In the making of his hay, there is more risk incurred by the English than by the New Zealand farmer, on account of the extremely unsettled weather which the former has generally to put up with, and which compels him to expend far more labour in the saving of his crop.

In New Zealand the grass is cut when in flower, and allowed to lie for a few days until dry; it is then raked into wind-rows, after which it is stacked, usually in a field intended for turnips during the coming

winter, so that it may be handy to feed the sheep when on the turnips, the stack itself being fenced round. Hay is generally cut in the early part of December, and it is advisable to close up the paddocks intended for it in June or July. Hay varies in value according to the crop and the weather in which it was saved.

Although some farmers make ensilage, yet, in a climate like that of New Zealand, there is not much advantage in doing so; the risk of spoiling the crop is as great as in making hay of it, and machines or a silo are, of course, very expensive.

Potatoes, of course, are largely grown

by many farmers, both for their own consumption and for the Australian market; this market, however, is very precarious, and depends greatly on the season. Potatoes are comparatively free from blight in New Zealand. But the manner of cultivation is the same as everywhere else.

SHEEP AND WOOL GROWING.

Having thus dealt with the various crops, I will now turn to the live stock; and, commencing with the most important, will endeavour to give some idea of the way in which sheep are farmed and looked after in New Zealand.

Here, again, we find different methods in vogue.

There is, first of all, the farm upon which, as in England, both sheep and cattle are carried and also crops are grown. This is what is generally called a "mixed farm," and, in my opinion, it is a very mixed farm indeed—mixed, in every sense of the word. Cattle and sheep should never be stocked on the same farm, although sheep are of considerable use upon a farm where crops are grown. Beyond condemning it, there is very little to say about this method of farming, except to remark that the men who go in for it in

New Zealand are called "cockatoos," so I will now proceed to what is called a "sheep farm."

Upon this farm the main thing is the rearing of sheep for wool and mutton, and now that the frozen meat trade has increased so much, this kind of farming has become very profitable indeed. The class of sheep usually carried is what is called the "half-bred," a cross between a Merino ewe and a Leicester ram. These sheep are reared on account of the fine quality and plentiful quantity of their wool, and the superiority of their mutton for freezing purposes.

This line of farming is not gone in for as much as it might be. It is a species of farming that might be carried on very profitably anywhere, provided a market were within any accessible distance.

Of course crops are grown to some extent on such a farm, especially the turnip and hay crops.

A man farming on this principle, if situated in a suitable district, can always supplement his income by becoming a dealer also. Dealing is a business that pays well, provided the dealer understands it and carefully watches both the New Zealand and foreign markets.

There is an ever increasing demand for wool and mutton. The frozen mutton trade, however, I would here remark, requires to be better looked after, and English buyers need to be shown that none but good samples will be sent over. Last year (1890) 1,531,901 carcasses were sent to England, amounting to about 39,366 tons of mutton. The process of freezing also leaves room for improvement, and I am of opinion that if the retailers of frozen mutton would give their customers careful instructions how to treat the meat before cooking, they would help to make this excellent article of food more popular.

It is advisable to hang the mutton for a day or two in a cool place before cooking.

We now leave the smaller class of sheep farms and come to the large "runs" or "stations," as they are called. On some of these, as many as 60,000 sheep are carried, but 20,000 to 30,000 is the more usual number.

Here we find the far-famed merino in all its glory and wildness. It is unnecessary for me to describe a sheep station further than to say that it is an immense tract of open country either in the bush, among the mountains, or upon the plains. Of

course, the boundaries are known, and generally fenced at the expense of the owners of the adjoining stations. There are also fenced paddocks, mostly near the homestead, woolsheds, or sheep yards. The term woolshed may not be understood by everyone; it is an immense shed in which the shearing takes place, the wool is baled up and stowed, and the sheep are left over-night for the shearers to start on early in the morning.

The merino sheep is kept entirely for its wool upon these stations. The wool is of first quality and commands the best price in the market. This sheep is also far

better suited to these large "runs" and mountain fastnesses than the more domesticated half-bred or any of the English breeds. The general impression is that the merino is essentially a small sheep, but this is not correct, as anyone who has received a butt from a wether can testify. The ewes are rather on the small side. They have not, technically speaking, the "body" on them which the English butcher's sheep have. The same difference exists between them and the butcher's sheep as exists between a dairy cow and a bullock bred for beef.

A man requires, in order to take up a

station of this sort, a thorough knowledge of wool and sheep breeding.

Of course, the work attached to a station is inconsiderable compared to the large tract of country which it covers, as there is very little to be done during the greater portion of the year. The busy time is the shearing season. There are on a big station generally from twenty to thirty shearers; besides these, there are the boys to pick up the fleeces, one fleece picker to every four or five shearers; then there is the wool classer with his assistant rollers, who number five or six, and the wool presser and his mate to bale up the

wool. Then there is the "shed boss," who looks after everything, sees the sheep are shorn properly, takes the tally, looks after pressing, etc. Outside there are shepherds who bring up the sheep and take away the shorn ones.

Thus, at shearing time, there is plenty to see to interest the stranger who pays the station a visit. Previous to the shearing, there is the general muster, which means the rounding up and bringing in of all the sheep, good and bad, on the "run." To accomplish this, all the shepherds go out with their dogs, and, on large "runs," additional hands called "musterers" have

to be engaged. This general muster sometimes occupies three weeks, and the work is hard and the hours long while it lasts, but the pay is good, the musterer receiving ten shillings a day, and all found, all the time he is engaged on the "run," even should he be compelled to remain idle on account of rain or mist. This work requires good and trustworthy men; men who will not sit down when out of sight, and come in at night with no sheep. The wages of the shearers vary from 16s. 6d. to 20s. per hundred sheep shorn, according to the remoteness of the station, and as many men do from

120 to 140 sheep per day, they are able to make out a good cheque in a short time.

The shearing is the only important expense I might say attached to a "run" besides the rent of the land. Very little money has to be laid out in other ways once it is stocked, with the exception of buying new sheep occasionally to improve the breed.

After the shearing is over all old "weeds," badly woolled, and otherwise defective sheep are culled out and sent to the nearest market to be sold for whatever they will fetch, and the ewes are generally purchased

by the "cockatoos" before mentioned for lambing purposes.

On the whole a sheep station is a very paying concern if properly managed, and, as I have pointed out already, after the first cost, there is very little further expense.

Of course, on all the various farms in the Colony on which sheep are kept the lambing season is really the most trying in the year. But the lambing in New Zealand is not attended to as on English farms. In England I believe 120 lambs to 100 ewes is what is expected on most farms. In New Zealand we consider on smaller farms above 90 lambs to the 100 ewes good, and over

100 per cent. very good indeed. On the larger "runs" over 80 per cent. is considered good. From this fact it will be seen that the New Zealand farmer does not pay the same attention to his sheep that the English farmer does. For, in the first place, the former has to consider the cost of labour, which is considerable, being at the rate of 20s. to 25s. a week per man, and everything found. Then there is to be taken into account the comparatively low value of sheep per head in the Colonies.

A lamb is never fostered; if it has lost its mother it is generally killed. The sheep

are never housed at night, so that in severe weather some of the weaker lambs are generally carried off. Of course, on a "run" it would be simply impossible to look after the ewes in the same way as on small farms, nor do the merino sheep, which are chiefly kept on the large stations, require any looking after or assistance.

The "tailing" of the lambs is done in the Colonies in the same way as elsewhere, but the same care is seldom taken over the operation, though there are very rarely any casualties as the result.

In short, it will be gathered from what I

have said that everything being on so much larger a scale, labour so much dearer, and the value of stock per head so much lower, it would not pay to be so particular and careful in these matters of detail in New Zealand as in England.

Having now endeavoured to describe the ways in which sheep are managed on the various kinds of farms in New Zealand, I cannot take upon myself to give advice to any intending sheep farmer as to which of the different lines he should take up without knowing the means at his disposal. I can only say if properly managed and understood by a man with a large or small

capital, sheep raising, for whatever purpose, wool, mutton, or stud, is a very paying business in New Zealand.

CATTLE.

Next to sheep in order of importance we must place cattle. Beef is frozen in New Zealand, but not to the same extent as mutton. The exportation of beef in 1890 showed an increase of 12,937 pieces over that of the previous year. Notwithstanding this increase, however, the price in the live market in September, 1890, was very low, beef selling at 18s. per cwt., whereas, in order to be really profitable to the

farmer, it should sell at 21s. and upwards. This fact I can only account for by the increase of stock in a proportion even greater than that of the demand. Cattle in New Zealand cannot be said at present to pay as well as sheep, for, in the first place, they produce no wool, and, in the second place, they will not fetch as good prices proportionately. Thus a lamb some five or six months old, according to prices in the spring of 1890, brings 8s. to 10s., and a fat bullock at three or four years £8 to £10. A calculation based upon these prices will show that the percentage of profit to the farmer upon the sale of the lamb

is about three times as great as that upon the sale of the bullock.

Cattle, however, are bred to a considerable extent in New Zealand, more especially shorthorns; Herefords are reared in Auckland. John Dean, of Christchurch, is a noted shorthorn breeder, also Menlove, of Oamaru. There is as good stock in New Zealand as is to be found in England. Stock was, of course, originally imported, and new blood is being continually brought into the country by the breeders, and it follows naturally that when a man takes stock across 16,000 miles of water he brings nothing but the best that money can buy.

The two breeds I have mentioned are essentially beef producers and not milkers, and they have been crossed with other breeds for various purposes. For dairy cattle we have in New Zealand Ayrshires and Jerseys; in fact, there is no lack of variety, quality, or quantity.

Cattle are kept on many of the large stations such as I have already described, and are let out loose on the "runs." On the small farms also cows are always kept for milk, etc. Sheep are able to thrive well upon the native grass, but cattle will not fatten upon it. The heavier lands about Oamaru and Timaru, and those in

Taranaki and about Gisborne are more suited to cattle than those surrounding Christchurch.

Cattle are reared to a great extent in Otago, the climate and the soil being especially suited to them.

New Zealand beef, fed entirely upon grass, hay, and mangolds, is, generally speaking, very good, and far less greasy than that fed by English farmers in stables and upon oil cake.

Cattle are scarcely ever housed at night, except in the case of prize or stud stock. Mangolds and hay are given them during winter, in the fields, when the grass is

short. They need very little attention, and are not liable to so many diseases as prevail amongst them in England, the climate being very well suited to their healthy growth.

Cattle may pay well where a man has made his name in regard to his breed, and can always ask a certain price and get it ; for instance, a gentleman in Christchurch asks ten guineas for his Ayrshire heifers, and always gets it ; but for the ordinary farmer, cattle grazing or dealing is rather a risky line to take up. Of course with increased population and export we shall soon be able to work off this dulness in

the cattle trade. Australia at present produces sufficient beef of her own, but England will be in a few years our great market. Perhaps when the Chinese become Christians and give up their rice and chop-sticks we may also find a very large market amongst them, although at present the feelings of the colonial labourer towards the "heathen Chinee" are the reverse of friendly; but time works wonders, and so does Christianity.

DAIRIES AND BUTTER FACTORIES.

In connection with the subject of cattle, we have dairying and butter making. Up

to the present I am of opinion that sufficient importance has not been attached to this branch of farming in New Zealand. A great deal more might be done in the direction of the manufacture of butter and cheese with a view to exportation. Such manufacture might be carried on in any part of the Colony within easy reach of a port. We can now send butter to England from New Zealand fresh and in good condition by means of the chilling process lately brought out, which, in the opinion of men in the trade, is superior to the freezing process. There is a great quantity of Danish butter brought to England and

sold at a comparatively low price; but since we find that butter can be bought retail in New Zealand at fivepence to eightpence a pound, according to the time of year, there can be no reason why it should not be exported to England and sold at a lower price even than the Danish, to which it is equal, if not superior.

Of course, to make it marketable the samples and the supply should be regular, which at present cannot be the case to any very large extent, as the butter exported is chiefly what has been made by various farmers who have nearly all a different process of making it, are probably on

altogether different land, and keep all classes of cows.

It should be so arranged that all butter for exportation be factory made, then the samples would always be the same and the supply regular.

A dairy factory, now that the cream separators have been so perfected, is no very formidable undertaking for a man in a good district and with a small capital; he can keep cows of his own and arrange with his neighbours to have their milk sent in every day at so much per gallon, as is the custom in the cheese factories in England. If a factory were started solely with the

idea of exporting the butter, and competent, skilful men and women were employed, it should in a very short time make a good market for itself in London or other large cities.

New Zealand butter is not, I regret to say, greatly sought after at present, chiefly on account of its very varying quality; but when a brand becomes known it is always bought regardless of the other samples on the market.

A factory, moreover, opens up a large and profitable business in pigs, a class of stock which is comparatively highly valued in New Zealand. When kept in

connection with a dairy, pigs pay far better than on an ordinary farm, as all the skimmed milk, etc., is consumed by them.

The manufacture of cheese might also become a profitable undertaking. It would be necessary to obtain first-class men, however, from England or the Continent to superintend the work, but with a little enterprise and foresight at the start in the setting up of the engines and machinery, cheese might at any time be added to the productions of a dairy factory already in existence.

PIGS.

We will now turn our attention for a moment to the "gintleman that pays the rint." He is to be found in New Zealand in all stages of life and society. We have first the wild pigs originally introduced by Captain Cook. These are to be found in the bush upon the hills, and the old boars among them are called "Captain Cooks," after the esteemed founder of their order.

The wild pig is of no use for domestic purposes, even when caught young and stye-fed, as he takes twice as much to keep him as the well-bred pig, and then

does not give the same weight when killed.

The wild boar is a great nuisance to the station holders and farmers in the hills and back country, as he disregards all boundaries and takes a delight in making gaps so that the sheep of adjoining owners may make neighbourly calls upon each other. He also roots a great deal; I have seen land simply turned over by these boars as if it had been done by a plough.

For these reasons as well as for the sport it affords he is often hunted with knife, spear, and rifle. These hunts usually take place on days when it is too

wet to do ordinary work on the stations or farms.

The wild pigs are generally long nosed, lob eared, yellowy red coloured animals, the boars wielding tusks of no small dimensions and strength.

But the domestic pig is an animal of considerable value and importance. We have, as in sheep and cattle, all or nearly all the different kinds of English breeds. The Berkshire, however, is the one most generally reared, as it is considered the best paying and most adapted to New Zealand. Mr. James Rowe, of Canterbury, and Mr. Clarkson, of the same place,

are well-known Berkshire breeders, and their stock is often imported to various parts of Australia for the purpose of improving the breed there.

Pigs always command a good price in New Zealand, and as bacon is dearer than mutton they are valuable stock for the farmer to keep. On grain farms they are the consumers of all the "thirds" of wheat, oats, etc., which, otherwise, would be useless. If the Berkshire be kept and good stock obtained at first by a breeder situated in the back districts, he can generally ask his own price for his young pigs, say 10s. for a "weaner barrow" for

bacon, and 20s. to 25s. for a boar eight or nine weeks old, and as they are hardly any expense to him to rear he makes a very excellent profit indeed.

Bacon factories have now been started, and this will eventually raise the price of pigs still further, and the market will be far more reliable. These factories are carried on in connection with freezing works, so that bacon can be cured at any time of the year without risk. They will also have the effect of improving the quality of the bacon, as the farmers of New Zealand vary greatly in their methods of curing it and fail to keep the quality up

to a proper standard. In this respect they differ from the English farmers, who have fixed and well proved rules to go by, and whose home cured bacon is consequently reliable and universally preferred to any manufactured elsewhere.

The general weight at which pigs are killed for bacon in New Zealand is from 120 to 140lbs. In England, I believe, considerably heavier bacon than this is preferred.

HORSES.

Horses, as I have before mentioned, are in most cases far cheaper in New Zealand

than in England. Where a farmer in the latter country would pay £40 to £60 for a draught horse, we, in New Zealand, would pay £20 to £30. This fact is chiefly owing to the ease with which they are reared and bred, and the cheapness of oats and other fodder in New Zealand. But, notwithstanding these seemingly low prices, horse breeding pays very well, and nearly all farmers, who are in a position to do so, go in for it to a certain extent and get remunerative prices when the foals come to maturity.

Our chief breed in draught horses is the Clydesdale; it is considered the most

serviceable, and when a lighter horse is required it is crossed with a strong hack. New sires are imported every year by the stud breeders, and the breed is thus well kept up. Although there are light draught horses in New Zealand, yet I have never seen a pure Suffolk Punch in the colony, and I am of opinion myself that, if this breed were imported, it would be of great service and come into large demand.

Hack and saddle horses are to be found in great numbers, and there are some splendid sires of this class in the colony. They are bred, to a great extent, on the

large stations where the brood-mares, together with one or two stallions, are allowed to run wild. They are mustered once a year, when the three and four-year-old foals are kept in, and the rest turned loose again. These foals are either roughly broken in at the station or else driven down in a mob to the town, and there sold at current prices. The breaking in on most stations is conducted in a very rough-and-ready fashion. The horses are put in a stockyard, and there roped or driven into a crush, the headstalls and breaking rollers are put on, and the bits placed in their mouths. After a couple of

days of such treatment, they are saddled and mounted by rough-riders, who let them have their fling till they are tired, and then take them for a good gallop of an hour or two, by the end of which time they are considered fit for anyone to ride. The smaller farmer, however, takes a good deal more pains with his horses, and handles them more before mounting, which makes them far more reliable afterwards.

The horse muster and breaking on a station is considered one of the most attractive sports of the year, as it is always attended with the greatest excite-

ment. Galloping over rough country at top speed after wild horses, and using a stock whip, requires good riders and sure-footed animals, as a false move means a bad accident. Then there is immense fun, to say nothing of danger, to be found in a stockyard amongst a mob of young horses.

Of course, the horses, after being sold in town, are very often carefully broken to saddle and harness again when required for town work, by the same means as are generally employed in England.

The Wanganui hacks are famed throughout the colony, and large numbers of good horses are bred in that district.

The New Zealand saddle horses are not, I think, so large as the English, nor do the Colonials want a horse to mount which it is necessary to have a ladder, but one which they can jump on in a moment.

Carriage and coach horses are also plentiful, and of a very fine description, as a rule.

The thoroughbreds of New Zealand are of the first-class order, and are admitted to be superior to those of any other Colony. For this New Zealand is indebted partly to her climate and other natural advantages, and partly to her having obtained that splendid sire Musket, who had

a full strain of the good old Touchstone blood in him. I learned recently that the Auckland Sylvia Park Stud Company had sold out and wound up, and I should imagine that, from a racing point of view, this will be a considerable loss to New Zealand. At the sale 5,600 guineas were given for Nordenfeldt, a son of Musket, and brother to Carbine, who won the Melbourne Cup of 1890 in the shortest time and carrying the biggest weight on record. However, the loss of this stud may prove more beneficial than otherwise to the Colony, as horse-racing cannot be regarded as amongst the desirable amuse-

ments for a new country; it is a sport, nevertheless, of which Colonials are very fond, every little township having its yearly race meeting, even if it has to take place in a ploughed paddock.

Trotting horses are in request throughout the Colonies, and people are really beginning to admit that, after all is said and done, trotting is the most serviceable pace. A good fast trotter that will go either in saddle or harness will always fetch a large price, and I believe that to breed this class of horses would prove very remunerative. Hunters are likewise to be found, and hunters that will jump

bare wire, the terror of many English riders. Of course, in many respects, they are not up to the Irish hunters, which are famed all over the world. These latter are sometimes imported, but as there are only hares to follow and no foxes, although foxhounds, not harriers, are generally used, first-class goers are not so much needed as in England.

New Zealand horses of all descriptions have splendid staying powers, and thoroughly sound hearts and lungs.

Finally, I may repeat that a little horse-breeding, combined with other agricultural pursuits, tends to swell the

income of the intelligent farmer in New Zealand.

RABBITS.

I must not conclude the subject of agriculture before alluding to an important item in connection with it—namely, rabbits. These pestiferous little animals are cordially detested and feared all over the Colonies. They infest various parts of New Zealand as they do Australia, but in the former country they are not so unmanageable, partly because the islands are so much smaller, and it is consequently more easy to confine them to certain

corners, surrounded, perhaps, by the sea on one side and a wire fence on the other; and, partly, because the efforts to exterminate them were begun before they had obtained such a hold on the country as they were allowed to obtain in Australia. Then, again, the laws concerning them are very strict in New Zealand, and the penalties severe, on account of which their depredations have not increased to any great extent of late years, though some land has been greatly reduced in value by their presence.

In those parts of the islands where rabbits exist or are even suspected of

existing, inspectors are appointed, whose duty it is to journey through the districts under their supervision and compel the settlers to take stringent measures to clear their land at once. When an estate is discovered on which there are rabbits, no matter how few, the inspector informs the owner that he must, during the coming winter, put on so many men, according to the size of his place and the number of the rabbits, to exterminate them by poisoning, shooting, snaring, dogs, or any other conceivable method. The men so employed are called "rabbiters;" they provide their own weapons of destruction, and the estate

owner has to pay them each 20s. to 30s. a week, besides which they receive from the Government a premium of three-halfpence to threepence a skin, so that there is a fine opening in this direction to men of sporting tendencies, and the dogs used for this purpose are free from any tax. If, upon the return of the inspector, his orders have not been carried out, the owner is fined and the men are put on by the inspector, the owner, of course, having to pay all the original and extra expense. By these means the rabbits are kept under, but I am afraid that they will not be rendered harmless until New Zealand is

more thickly inhabited, for they do not molest the populous districts.

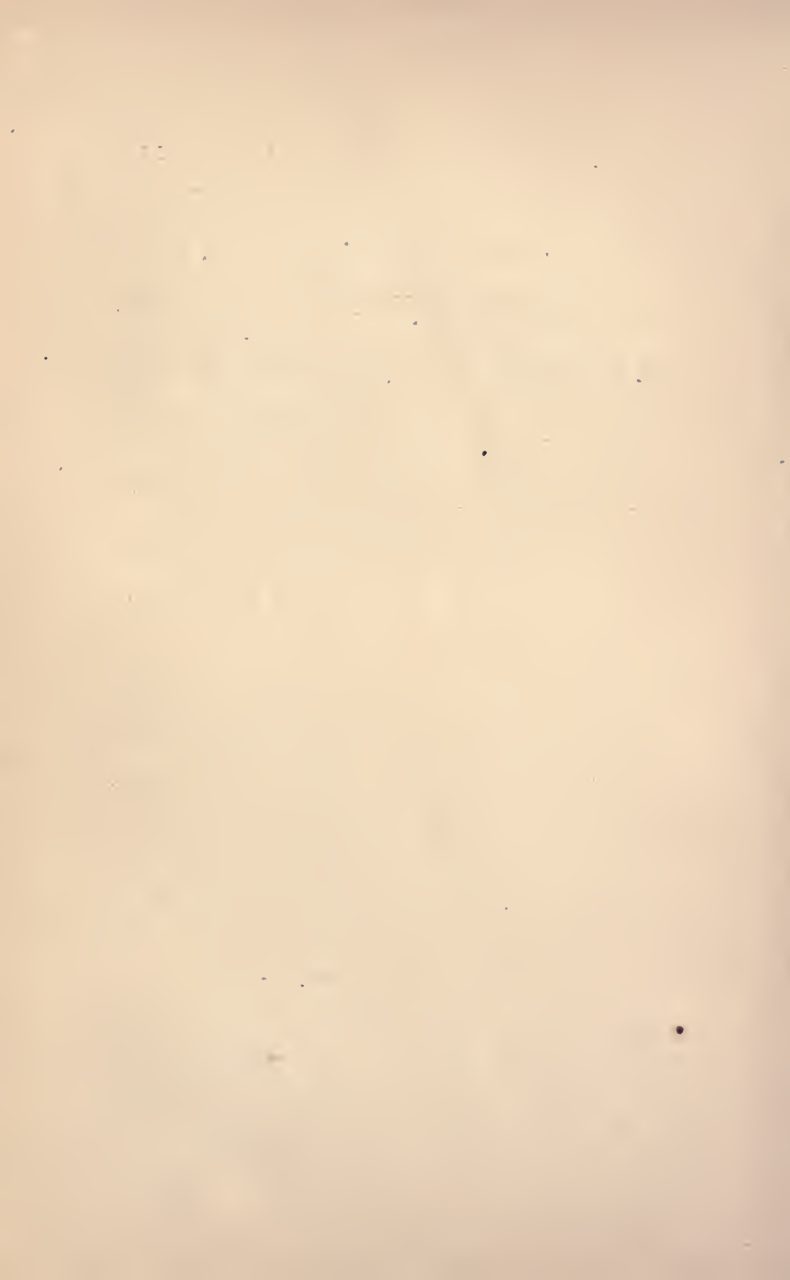
There is, in the South Island, a rabbit proof fence, made of small meshed wire netting, sunk into the ground to about eight inches, below which the rabbits do not burrow; its height is about three feet. This fence is between the infected parts of South Canterbury and the clear parts of North Canterbury. At various distances are placed men, whose sole duty it is to see that the fence is kept in proper order, and inspectors likewise go along at different times of the year.

So far, all attempts at total extermination

have failed, though numberless experiments have been tried. Large rewards have been offered by the different Governments, for which even M. Pasteur has competed without success, as his proposed remedy was considered unsuitable on account of the danger it involved to stock. Weasels and other natural foes of the rabbit have been imported to no purpose; indeed, they have only added to the misfortunes of the farmer, for they have turned their attention to the young lambs, evidently a more easy prey in their opinion.

Let us hope, for his own sake and for the sake of the Colonies of the Antipodes,

that the man who can invent a perfect remedy will soon appear. His fortune will be made, again and again, by the rewards of Governments and the gifts of a grateful people, and his name will be handed down from generation to generation, as that of one of the greatest benefactors Australasia has ever known.



CHAPTER III.

Mining and Minerals.

CHAPTER III.

MINING AND MINERALS.

AGRICULTURE by no means covers the extent of the productiveness of New Zealand. Vast mineral wealth of almost every description lies beneath the surface, and in this direction, perhaps, less after all has been done towards developing the resources of the country than in others.

Gold was found at a comparatively early period ; coal and other minerals have since

been discovered in great abundance, but no adequate idea of their extent can be at present obtained. It is perfectly clear, however, that all that has so far been done in the way of mining of any sort in New Zealand has gone to show the very remunerative nature of this industry, and how wide the fields for its development are throughout the islands. Here again, by reason of her healthy climate, New Zealand possesses great advantages over most other mining countries. Mining of every description, in comparatively unknown countries, is generally associated in the minds of most of us with untold hard-

ships, fevers and agues, hunger and thirst, extremes of heat and cold, but, when compared with the conditions to be met with in South Africa and the greater portion of Australia, difficulties of this description interfere but little with the miner in New Zealand.

GOLD.

In discussing the subject of the minerals of New Zealand in detail let us begin with gold, the most interesting, the most fascinating, and, from a certain point of view, the most important of all.

The histories of the separate gold dis-

tricts or fields are, of necessity, very similar. A few adventurous emigrants, or perhaps one by himself, would stumble across a pocket or a reef of gold. Considerable wealth became theirs almost in a moment, and they seldom concealed it for long. But this success, too easily earned, raised the wildest expectations in the minds of all who heard of it, fatal to a reasonable appreciation of the most apparent obstacles. The man who became infected with the gold fever allowed no considerations of prudence or fitness to stand in his way. Such men came from all quarters of the globe and joined in the mad rush for

gold, and disappointment was the fate of nearly all. The misdirected enthusiasm of the crowd soon exhausted the few pockets already discovered, and then spent itself aimlessly in prodding the earth in various directions until its means of subsistence were exhausted. The inevitable reaction set in, and, for a time, numbers of these would-be diggers hung around the seaport settlements disconsolate. But soon necessity started them on other pursuits, and, as farm labourers, and in some cases as land proprietors on their own account, the majority of them found employment more steady and remunerative, though per-

haps less romantic and exciting than what they had originally sought. Thus it was that agriculture became the primary occupation of the Colonist, and the epidemic of the gold mania gradually died out, to recur, however, again and again in less violent forms up to the present day.

It must be borne in mind, however, that the decay of this original enthusiasm by no means implied the non-existence of the precious object which had evoked it. It was on the contrary wholly due, firstly, to the unfitness and want of preparation of the motley crowd of those who started out in the wild pursuit and to the disgust in-

spired by the failure to realize the exaggerated hopes of which they had dreamed, a failure brought about by this unfitness; and, secondly, to the disasters which befell so many of those who actually had met with success in the subsequent follies which success too often induced. But the gold is there still, only the search for it is conducted, except on the occasions of the wild rushes which still occur, in less extravagant fashion, and, indeed, in most cases on fixed and well-considered principles.

By far the greater part of the gold mining of New Zealand at the present day is carried on by companies.

In order to pave the way to a proper comprehension of the subject it will be necessary first to give a brief explanation of a few of the technical terms in use amongst the diggers, and also of some of the most important laws affecting gold mining.

Before anyone is allowed to dig for gold, or rather before he can exercise the exclusive right to dig in any piece of land in which he has reason to believe gold may be found and to take legal possession of the gold so obtained, he must first procure a "miner's right." This is a concession granted by the agent of the Government

on payment of a small fee, and gives the digger the necessary powers over any piece of land, forty feet square, that he may select to "peg out." Pegging out means planting pegs at the four corners of the piece of ground.

The Government reserves to itself this power of granting licenses to dig over all the land in New Zealand ; not only over what belongs to itself, but also over what belongs to private owners ; thus the owner of a sheep farm who discovers gold upon his land is not allowed to dig for it and take possession of it without first coming to certain special arrangements with the Government.

Without entering too far into the technicalities of the question it will suffice to say that the obtaining of a miner's right or simple license to dig is the method in vogue amongst the ordinary miners working on their own account. Having obtained this license the digger will proceed to peg out his claim in any spot he may select. He must then commence at once to work it, and must work it for a certain time each day. If he neglects working it for a single week day it is open to any other man in possession of a miner's right to come and "jump" it; that is to say if A. pegs out a claim, but neglects to work it in the pre-

scribed manner, B., possessing a miner's right, comes and usurps his place, evicts A., and proceeds to work it on his own account. If A. possesses a bad claim he is pretty safe; if a good one he has to be "mighty sharp." Any number of claims can be pegged out by the possessor of a miner's right, but if he or his representatives fail to work any one of them it is forfeited to the first comer in the manner above described. A frequent method is for a number of miners to become partners, and make common property of their claims; they are thus in a better position to defend them, and should some lots turn

out unfortunate they are probably compensated for by others.

A gold field upon which a number of miners are working, each on his own account, or in partnership with others, is a small community governed by a commissioner, who is supported by a body of mounted police. The post of commissioner is no sinecure. He who holds it must be a man cast in a stern mould. Every new find is the signal for a series of desperate disputes, and the commissioner is called on to decide between the rival claims of a crowd of clamorous diggers upon evidence which is often apparently

equally strong in support of several different sides.

Such gold fields, however, are now comparatively rare. With the introduction of capital into the country their place has been largely taken by the system of mining carried on by companies, and although, when a new gold district is first discovered, the rush which immediately takes place creates a mining camp of the old sort, yet a company is speedily formed which buys up the land, enters into special arrangements with the Government, and sets to work in an orderly and regular manner.

Before leaving the question of the laws affecting ordinary diggers I may as well mention that no miner's rights are allowed to Chinamen. At one time, however, Chinamen had these rights, but they flocked in such numbers to the gold fields as to threaten to swamp the European population, and their manners also proved so objectionable to the latter that fatal riots frequently took place, the Ballarat stockade and the Turon stockade in Australia being the most serious, and laws were passed against granting to Chinamen licenses to dig for gold. Chinamen, however, are to be found on disused and

worked-out gold fields, where they turn over and pick amongst the wash dirt and earth heaps which have already been panned out and abandoned by the legitimate diggers. They do over again all that the diggers have done already, and often make good finds in this way. Chinamen are to be seen hanging around the gold fields ostensibly for the purpose of cultivating vegetables, doing washing, etc., for the diggers, but in reality they are waiting until the latter depart, and they can gather up their leavings.

The practice, however, of re-working an abandoned gold claim is not always con-

fined to the "heathen Chinee." The theory in regard to gold deposits is that the places where they are found were formerly portions of some river bed. The digger who has a claim, and finds the wash dirt, supposed to have been originally deposited by some river, works it so long as it lasts. Very often, however, he comes to a rock, and, believing this to have been the absolute bottom of the original river, abandons the claim. Another digger, however, comes along, and, sounding this rock, finds he can partially remove it or get beneath it, and sometimes discovers below a fresh deposit of wash dirt even more

valuable than what had been found above.

The steps which usually lead to the formation of a genuine Company are as follows: Gold is discovered in a certain district. As soon as the fact becomes known all sorts of people—clerks, store-keepers, farmers, business men, loafers and idlers of every description—join in a rush to the spot where it has been found, and these very soon exhaust the supply of nuggets and surface gold. Prospectors arrive upon the scene and examine the ground, and, if they discover quartz gold in addition to the alluvial gold, of which

the ordinary diggers are in search, proceed to form a company for working it. Quartz gold cannot be properly worked by ordinary diggers; it requires complicated machinery for crushing, etc., and has to be subjected to various processes for extracting the gold. The Company obtains a special lease of the land from the Government, and takes out special licenses, allots its shares, conveys and erects its machinery, employs its labourers, proceeds to work its mine, and to pay its dividends. These are the lines upon which a Company is generally floated and worked, but, of course, Companies do not always commence in the same way, or

work in the same fashion. There is, for instance, the Gillespie Beach Gold Dredging Company. Its object is to dredge the sea at the mouth of the Grey River and bring up the sand and mud, which contain large quantities of gold-dust washed down by the stream.

Bogus Companies are by no means rare. The various devices, however, which have been resorted to with more or less success for entrapping investors would take too long to describe; in the main they consist of false or exaggerated descriptions of the capacity of a newly-discovered mine, supported by ingenious reports from head-

quarters and samples of rich quartz alleged to have been procured from the mine in question. The inexperienced or ignorant investor who commences dabbling in gold speculations is almost certain to fall a prey to a Company of this sort; but even experienced men, in their haste to get rich, often make mistakes as well. Gold mining and speculation, in fact, is a pursuit like most others, in which skill, experience, and knowledge of the subject are essential to success. It is true that solitary instances are recorded of fresh and inexperienced gold-seekers finding on their first venture and upon their first claim

nuggets of exceptional value which men who have been working upon the diggings for years have never found; but these instances are upon the whole no more frequent than similar instances of chance success in other walks of life. When they occur the diggers, who are intensely superstitious and great believers in luck, follow the fortunate miner everywhere he goes, and whenever he pegs out his claim there is a rush to secure the claims nearest his. Again, it sometimes happens that a man, totally unacquainted with the business, buys shares in a new Company, and a few days afterwards finds they have risen to a

premium; but for any inexperienced man to go mining or speculating in the hope of meeting with such chances as these is simple folly. As a rule the great majority of those who join in a gold rush are men who, up to that time, have been following widely different pursuits, and the man who invariably comes best out of the enterprise is he who does not abandon his original calling in order to engage in an occupation which he knows nothing about, but who succeeds in setting up the first store or grog shanty upon the gold field. He it is into whose pocket eventually flows the greater portion of all the gold that is

found. Before long, if the field prove a rich one, the grog shanty becomes an hotel, and several more are opened, but it is the first which gathers in the dust.

These gold rushes, however, now occur but seldom, and, indeed, the word "gold" seems to have lost much of its old power to awaken the enthusiasm of the Colonist. Three main causes have been and are still in operation to produce this result.

Firstly, gold fields are bought up and monopolized by Companies which, with their machinery and improved methods of working, have taken the place of the private digger with his pickaxe, and the

private digger has become the *employé* of the Company. Secondly, the gold seeker arriving from abroad with the intention of commencing the search on his own account finds in New Zealand towns civilization and society much resembling what he has already been used to, and not a comparatively wild country such as he probably expected. These attractions tend to divert him from his original intention. If he be a labourer he soon finds employment in his old line; if he has any money he soon loses it, for sharpers abound, and "townies" (so-called because they introduce themselves as having come from the

same town in the old country) are always on the look out for "new chums." Thus the intending digger drifts into other channels, and unless there should happen to be a "rush" just about the time of his arrival he probably never reaches the gold fields. Thirdly, the demand for labour in other spheres is now so great and the prospect of earning good wages in other directions so certain, that the number of those whom want of employment sends to the diggings is now exceedingly small.

The districts in New Zealand in which gold has so far been discovered are somewhat scattered; but mining operations are

at present principally carried on in the South Island. On the eastern side of the Southern Alps, which form, as it were, the backbone of this island, no trace of gold has been as yet discovered, but immediately on crossing over to the western side of this ridge of mountains the "colour" of the precious metal is visible. The principal mining districts are Reefton, north of the Grey River; the Green-Stone diggings on the Taramakau River, and the Otago gold fields on the Clutha or Molyneux River south of Dunedin.

In the North Island mining is carried on in the district around the Thames River in

Auckland. Wonderful reports have also come of gold to be found in the "King Country," or Maori district north of Auckland.

There are considerable tracts of mountainous country on the west coast of New Zealand in which there is every reason for believing that gold exists in abundance, but which have not as yet been prospected.

Many failures have been recorded of those who have embarked upon the search for gold in the Colonies; many stories of their acts of folly are told. From their experience certain suggestions may be derived which I will here take the opportunity,

once for all, of offering to those, who, attracted by the prospects of adventure and wealth, may desire to seek their fortunes in a new country. It matters little whether their fancy prompts them to visit New Zealand or some other colony, or whether they propose to obtain their gold by digging or by other methods, the few words of advice which I now venture to proffer to the inexperienced explorer will be equally applicable.

We will suppose that a man is about to set out from England or some other country for the Colonies who has little or no practical acquaintance with the pursuit he

hopes to follow when he gets there. Such is frequently the case, for men are continually arriving, who, having failed at home, hope in a vague and indefinite way to make their fortunes abroad; nor does this hope by any means prove a delusion to a man who follows a wise and patient course. In the first place let him economize in every particular, in his outfit, in his passage and travelling expenses, in the luxuries which he allows himself on the journey, let him endeavour, in short, to have as much money in hand as he possibly can on his arrival in the Colony. In regard to the outfit the temptation is, for those

who have any money, to encumber themselves with a number of articles which are only in the way in travelling and of very little use on arrival. Clothes of a strong texture and an easy fit, good flannel shirts, and high water tight boots are what are necessary, the last especially being expensive in the Colonies. On the voyage out the emigrant may pick up a good deal, but, on the other hand, by injudicious openness he may lose quite as much. If he has money he had better not mention it even to the most companionable fellow voyager. Let him hear impartially the advice which he receives,

which will generally be of a conflicting character.

On his arrival in the Colony let him place what capital he possesses in one of the principal banks, reserving only what is necessary for his daily expenditure for a few weeks, which expenditure can be conducted, at any rate in New Zealand, on very economical lines, provided only he avoids drink and keeps clear of bar rooms.

His next step must depend upon his own capacities and disposition. If he possesses technical skill in any branch of trade or manufactures he will have very little

difficulty in finding remunerative employment at once in New Zealand, and from that point onwards he will only require steadiness, perseverance and a wise use of his money to speedily place him in a prosperous and even affluent position. If, however, he has had no particular technical training, or his abilities are of the literary or journalistic, or some equally valueless description, from a monetary point of view in the Colonies, his plan must be to acquire and to employ as quickly as possible some training which will be of value to him, and this brings us back, after an apparent digression, to the subject of gold mining.

We will suppose that he selects gold mining under these circumstances. Let him set out for the mines of the nearest gold company and ask for employment. He must take what wages he can get as a new hand. If an industrious worker he will very soon be in receipt of good earnings. He will probably get employment at the first mines, if not, let him go on to the next. Let him work as an *employé* therefore on different gold mines for at least twelve months, gaining experience, becoming acquainted with the details of mining, learning how to prospect for gold, and lending a discriminating ear to all that is said, and observing

all that is done. At the end of this time he will understand the business, how and where to look for gold, and how to recognize and work it when he sees it, and will also have been earning money and adding to his original capital. He can then, if he choose, take up an independent line, procure the necessary outfit and start prospecting and even company floating on his own account; but whatever course he may adopt in connection with gold mining, provided he has energy, foresight, and sobriety, I will not attempt to suggest any limit to his success.

COAL.

Upon the subject of coal mining there is no need for me to tender advice to persons going out to New Zealand; it is a subject at least as well understood in England as in the Colonies. To briefly indicate, however, the principal localities in New Zealand in which this mineral is found, and to describe its varicus qualities, may be useful.

New Zealand resembles England in regard to the abundance of coal to be found there. The seams which are at present worked are very large, in fact, the

companies do not see the use of working small ones when larger ones are to be met with. The chief centres for coal are on the West coast, namely, Westport and Greymouth. The coal from the former district I have already referred to as being a very good burning, black coal, but so extremely hot that it is generally mixed with Greymouth or some other for common use. Greymouth is also a black coal, and very useful for ordinary purposes, and of late years the Brunner coal from the same district has come into the market, and is mixed with Westport for steam production, etc. Good black coal is also found

in the Bay of Islands, north of Auckland, where the Union steamships generally coal when in those latitudes.

These black coals are generally from 18s. to 20s. per ton, according to the distance of transport. There are in the Malvern Hills, about forty miles from Christchurch, large quantities of brown coal, or lignite, which, though it cannot compare with the black coal already mentioned, either for steam production or general usefulness, is found to be very good for household purposes when mixed with a better quality; it will keep alight for a considerable time, but if used for engines it is

rather dangerous, on account of the sparks which fly from it, caused by the strong draught. It costs from 12s. to 14s. per ton.

Anthracite coal has also been found in the Rakia Gorge, and probably exists elsewhere, but as there has been no necessity so far to increase the output to any great extent, the coal companies have been satisfied with the mines which they are at present working. It has been calculated, however, that the amount of coal in New Zealand will be quite sufficient for all her wants in the unlimited future, even should her population become as great as that of England.

During the recent great strike throughout the Australasian Colonies coal was brought from Japan. One of the principal tactical mistakes for which the leaders of this strike were responsible was the "calling out" of the colliers.

The colliers have always been in receipt of a much higher rate of wages than is paid in England; they did not even pretend to have a grievance themselves—they were called out to join in the general strike, as it was hoped that thereby the power of the shipowners, the freezing and other companies would be crushed. The effect of this step, however—depriving the com-

munity, themselves included, of one of the principal necessaries of life, and largely increasing the number of men out of employment — served only to weaken the powers of the strikers and to bring about the collapse of their movement.

SILVER.

Silver has been found in New Zealand, principally in Stewart Island, but has not been worked to any great extent, partly because of the usual reason, lack of capital, and partly, since gold is to be obtained, and the gold-fields are more

advanced, comparatively little attention has been paid to the less precious metal. There are so many branches of industry to be taken up that this one has been somewhat neglected.

COPPER, LEAD AND IRON.

Copper and lead are said by prospectors and geologists to exist in this colony, and in no small quantities, but on account of the reasons just mentioned, and of the comparatively small demand so far these metals have not been sought after or worked. Magnesium has also been found. On the coast near New

Plymouth iron sand is obtained and worked, and the finest steel is manufactured from it.

PETROLEUM.

To the minerals already mentioned to be found in New Zealand there has lately been added another, by the discovery of petroleum oil springs in the North Island. The value of this discovery will be evident to those who have heard of the similar springs of America, and the proverbial wealth of their proprietors. But as yet these springs have not been utilized in New Zealand to bring the wealth and

prosperity in question to the country or to the individual.

How far New Zealand may be rich in other mineral possessions is still a matter of conjecture.

CHAPTER IV.

Manufactures and Minor Industries.

CHAPTER IV.

Manufactures and Minor Industries.

The industries of New Zealand, the trades and manufactures, are as yet confined and undeveloped; they suffer from lack of capital and lack of labour. Where capital, however, is forthcoming and labour is to be found, there is still the absence of skilled management and technical knowledge to contend with. In some cases, where a trade is started for the first time in the

country, it is started by persons who have really very little acquaintance with the work they are about to undertake. They are only emboldened to undertake it at all under these circumstances by the knowledge that there is practically no one else engaged in the same occupation within a wide radius, and, consequently, no competition to be feared. The industry is commenced, and, however defective its productions may be, however inferior in manufacture the goods which it turns out, it nevertheless generally pays its promoters—for it saves the necessity for importation, and the cost of transport to a

remote country like New Zealand, added to duty and to the original cost of the article, makes the purchase of imported goods very expensive.

I will give a short description of some of the principal industries, such as they are, of New Zealand, at the present time, enough to show that very promising success has attended efforts which have been already made, and alluding more particularly to those branches which seem peculiarly suited to the country and likely to thrive there. In speaking of a new country so thinly populated as New Zealand, cut-and-dried statistics and figures

are of very little use. Any calculation based upon them might very easily be upset to-morrow by a new discovery, the introduction of additional capital, or the landing of a few shiploads of emigrants. In fact, the whole position of affairs in New Zealand might be transformed in a very short time, and the situation very much improved, from a commercial point of view, by the landing of a small body of capitalists and a few thousand skilled workmen, together with a number of experts in various trades. I will confine myself, therefore, to general statements.

The lines upon which improvement and

extension might take place will be gathered from the following description.

WOOL.

Perhaps the most important of all New Zealand trades is that in wool. I have already spoken of wool-growing under the head of sheep farming. I refer to the subject here only to comment upon the fact that the manufacture of this most extensive home product into cloth and other fabrics is very insufficiently carried on in New Zealand. The raw material is exported to England and other countries, and is returned to New Zealand in the

shape of manufactured goods, with a duty to pay upon re-importation. That this should be the case for any length of time in a healthy and civilized country, with a rapidly increasing population, composed principally of active and enterprising Englishmen, seems impossible, but so it is. There is every facility for cloth manufacture, and the material, when manufactured, would most certainly be well patronized, both on account of its cheapness and the prevailing desire to support a local industry. New Zealand should, in this respect, import only the very fine fabrics which are made in special places

on the Continent, and these only for a time.

There most certainly appears to be an excellent investment awaiting the capitalist in New Zealand in the direction of creating more cloth factories to meet the requirements of the people of the country.

NEW ZEALAND FLAX.

There is an important industry peculiar to the country in connection with New Zealand flax. This flax (*Phormium tenax*) does not belong to the same botanical order as English flax (*Linum utilissimum*), and the plant itself grows in an altogether

different manner. In appearance the leaves somewhat resemble those of the bulrush, only they are broader and more shiny; they are of a very fibrous nature, the fibres running longitudinally up the leaf. This flax grows on the banks of rivers, in swamps, and damp places, but comes to perfection on well-drained swamp land. It is to be found all over New Zealand, both on hills and on plains, and has never yet been cultivated, although, if a swamp containing it were well drained and preserved, it would thrive splendidly. The flax industry cannot be said to be at present in a very flourishing

condition, although, some two years ago, the flax that is now sold in the London markets at about £22 a ton, when dressed was then fetching £35 to £37; and paid the exporters exceedingly well. It generally brings from 2s. 6d. to 5s. a ton as it grows on the land, and there are about ten tons to an acre. It has then to be cut at a cost of 5s. a ton; after that it is taken to the flax mills, where it goes through the scraping machine, which removes all the green coating; it is then "retted" or spread out for some ten days upon grass for the purpose of allowing the damp to separate the fibres by decom-

position; after that it is "scutched" to remove rough fibres, etc., and then baled and is ready for the market.

The cause of the great fall in price before mentioned in the London market was owing a great deal to the folly of the exporters, who did not keep the quality of their stuff up to the samples originally sent; thus buyers lost faith and regarded the commodity with suspicion.

The flax is ready to be cut from the same root every three years, and thus it will go on growing for any length of time at the rate of about eighteen inches in the year.

The flax when dressed produces a strong, coarse fibre, which is used for the manufacture of mats, carpets, ropes, etc.

There are flax mills all over the colony, but since the fall in prices a number have stopped working. Some millers combine this trade with flour milling.

The supply of flax is plentiful, although it is being gradually cleared from the land by the settlers, but it would undoubtedly pay to cultivate, dress, and manufacture it into the various articles before mentioned. On account of this flax New Zealand is independent of Manilla or Russian hemp, but it will not make fine fabrics, such as

linen, which are produced from English flax.

KAURI GUM.

Another New Zealand speciality is the Kauri gum trade. This is confined to Auckland province, as it is only to be found where the Kauri pine grows or has grown. It is the product of this tree, being the gum which it exudes. It is generally found below the surface of the ground from about six inches to three feet down, and is discovered by means of prodding the earth with steel-headed spears about four feet long. It is

found in blocks of all sizes up to 150lbs. each.

At one time gum digging was greatly looked down upon, and called a "new chum's game;" but now that the trade has been opened up with America, it is a very remunerative business.

The gum is used in the manufacture of varnish by New York and London firms, which have branches in Auckland. It is also used for ornaments and pipe mouth-pieces, which are often sold to the innocent as amber. It fetches from £35 to £50 per ton.

LEATHER.

Leather is, of course, manufactured, the bark of a New Zealand tree, the wattle, being substituted for the oak bark in the tanning process. The leather is made into Colonial boots and shoes, machinery belting, and other articles. But English boots seem to have the preference extended to them among fashionable circles of New Zealand society, apparently on account of their more elegant shapes.

The leather trade is hardly in a very prosperous condition, though why it should not be prosperous I am unable to

say, since leather should be made and sold in New Zealand at a cheaper rate than it could be imported, but I imagine that in many cases the manufacturers do not understand their business, and have only made a speculation of it, a practice very common in the colonies.

TIMBER.

A very extensive trade which New Zealand carries on is that in timber. I mentioned in the first chapter the chief trees which compose the forests of New Zealand; the most important of all for timber is Kauri. This timber is exported

to a great extent both to America and Australia, and, sad to relate, the supply is gradually diminishing, as the trees take centuries to grow.

The New Zealanders have no need to import timber from other lands, for, although they do not possess many of the same trees as are found elsewhere, they have substitutes, and in some cases the substitute is the superior.

The saw mills are generally situated in the bush, where the timber is being felled, and there the logs are cut up and sent to the various markets.

Beautiful woods for cabinets and orna-

mental purposes are plentiful throughout New Zealand, and wonderful effects can be produced with them.

FURNITURE.

Furniture, of course, is made and sold, and is generally of good, solid, wearable quality, although fancy articles are also to be had, and no doubt, in time, when the skilled inlayer of woods and cabinet-maker finds he can get better remuneration for his work in New Zealand than elsewhere, he will emigrate, and fancy upholstering will become as common in New Zealand as in England. Some of the

most expensive articles in furniture are at present imported.

IRON FOUNDRIES.

Iron foundries exist in New Zealand chiefly for the manufacture of agricultural implements. Cutlery, however, and articles of that description are mostly imported from abroad, and in this line Sheffield and American wares command the market. Colonial made implements are generally preferred to English on account of being better suited to the work for which they are required.

MILLS.

Milling is carried on all over the country; indeed, it would be remarkable if it were not so, considering the large extent of New Zealand devoted to grain growing. Mills are both roller and stone. Some of the largest are at Oamaru and Ashburton.

BREAD AND BAKERIES.

In spite of the fact, however, that mills are so numerous, bread is by no means cheap; in fact, it is one of the most expensive articles of ordinary diet, especially when compared with the cheapness of

animal food. The quartern loaf costs sixpence.

Bakeries exist in all the towns and cities, and in the more populated districts, but on the back stations the bread is home-made, and when camping out "damper"—a kind of cake made of plain flour and water—is usually eaten. Yeast is procurable from the brewers, but in the "back country" is made from potatoes, etc.

Bread is dear, not because of the price of grain and flour, but because of the high rate of wages paid to the men employed in the mills and the bakeries. In fact, this high rate of wages accounts in a great

measure for the dearness of all New Zealand manufactured goods.

BREWERIES.

In regard to breweries New Zealand cannot be reproached with being behind hand. This trade does not suffer from lack of enterprise or want of support. Nevertheless, I believe many English people in the Colonies drink only bottled Bass and Burton ales, which are largely imported. This, I suppose, is due to prejudice alone, for at the Melbourne Exhibition, 1888, Manning and Co.'s (Christchurch) beer took first prize against all-comers.

New Zealand beer is of various qualities, and is made all over the country—at Dunedin, Christchurch, Auckland, Hastings, Napier, and elsewhere; indeed, comparatively speaking, it appears to be quite as extensive and paying a trade in New Zealand as in the old country. New Zealand beer is regarded as being superior to that manufactured in any other part of the Australasian Colonies.

BRICKS AND POTTERIES.

Brick works and potteries, of course, exist, as might naturally be supposed. The former do not require much skilled labour,

and the bricks used for building are of excellent quality. Potteries, however, are not in a very advanced state, although very good articles in the shape of common crockery are turned out. But, as in various places the fine clay necessary for the manufacture of porcelain and china is found, there is no reason why these wares should not be produced on the spot, except the absence of skilled workmen. Imported wares bring large prices. But, doubtless, when New Zealand is really inhabited she will no longer be dependent upon outsiders for her teacups.

FRUIT GROWING.

From the latest indications fruit growing promises to become one of the most profitable occupations of the New Zealand Colonists. Tropical fruits are, of course, chiefly grown in Auckland, where they thrive well.

Olives, peaches, grapes, pears, apples are amongst the principal fruit productions of the country. During the last few months cargoes of apples have arrived in England from New Zealand, and the extraordinarily large prices they have brought at Covent Garden show what their quality

must have been, and will, doubtless, serve to give a considerable impetus to fruit cultivation. Dunedin is one of the principal apple growing districts at present.

RAILWAYS.

The great railway industry in New Zealand is entirely in the hands of the Government, with the exception of one line. Here we have an example of the reckless expenditure of the Legislature. As yet the traffic of the country is by no means capable of engaging the extensive system of railway communication which has been laid down and paid for with borrowed

money. The manner in which the lines are managed is, moreover, very defective in some parts, and furnishes much ground for complaint, the service being irregular, and the rate of travelling distinctly slow. The faults of the railways of New Zealand, however, are such as time and increased population will undoubtedly remove.

CHAPTER V.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL.

CHAPTER V.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL.

LIFE AND SOCIETY.

WE live very well in New Zealand. Food is plentiful, so is fresh air, and health and strength follow as a matter of course. Society is unconventional; hospitality is the general rule. It is true that in the towns certain people endeavour to fashion their lives after the customs of the aris-

tocracy of other countries, but their pretensions are not very successful. I must not be understood to imply, however, that New Zealand is a sort of bear garden, where roughness and rudeness are the rule. No; true politeness extensively exists, and refinement of manners is sought after and cultivated, but the spirit of the inhabitants is opposed to the social predominance of any sect or caste. Rank is not much regarded, and wealth, while undoubtedly conferring upon its holder great powers of purchase, confers in the eyes of New Zealanders no right and no power to despise or insult those who do

not possess it. Social equality, in short, is something of a reality, and genuine merit has a genuine chance. Another marked trait in the colonial character is sociability. On land and on sea, on the road and in the railway carriage strangers manifest towards one another a cordiality conspicuously absent, as a rule, from the behaviour of unintroduced persons in the Mother Country. These characteristics, however—hospitality, equality, and sociability—are so well known to belong to a marked extent to almost all Colonists, and the reasons for their development are so obvious that it is unnecessary for me to

dwell further upon them, or to advance evidence in detail of their abundant existence among New Zealanders. One remark, nevertheless, in connection with this subject remains to be made, and it is this. The fresh arrival in New Zealand has need to discriminate. Different people are apt to look at things in different lights. Some would be inclined to resent what they would regard as the impertinent familiarity of a total stranger, others, looking at the behaviour towards themselves of the same individual from another standpoint, might be carried away by his apparent openheartedness and flattering attentions, and

be led into divulging their affairs and confiding their interests to a person whose intentions were the reverse of honourable. The former course of conduct would be very badly received in the Colonies, and would be quite unnecessary to the maintenance of proper dignity and caution; the latter, I need hardly say, would be extremely injudicious, and certain sooner or later to end in difficulties, for there is no lack of the "unscrupulous" in New Zealand. The "new chum" should avoid a too delicate susceptibility and a stand-off demeanour, but, on the other hand, should preserve a careful reticence both of his

confidence and his cash. He should seek information and advice, but only from responsible parties, nor should he jump to the conclusion that the first which he receives is by any means correct.

The magnificent climate of New Zealand, and the attractive character of the country, together with the qualities I have just mentioned possessed by its inhabitants, make life in this Colony something more than a mere existence, a dreary round of unremunerative toil, or a painful struggle with misfortune or ill-health, which it so often becomes in lands less gifted and less free.

The two main ingredients in the composition of English society are lacking in New Zealand—rank and pauperism are conspicuous by their absence. Titles are bestowed, however, on certain individuals who are held to have earned them, namely, members of the Upper Legislative body, who become "Honourables" for life, and Premiers, who are generally knighted during or after office. There are no workhouses; for the aged and infirm poor there are almshouses. But when a man, strong, well, and able to work, is found loafing about or begging he is "run in," and gets seven days' hard labour for having no visible

means of support. Thus does the law deal with the loafer in New Zealand, and it cannot be denied that this method of treatment is eminently productive of advantage to society in general, nor can it be described as unjustly harsh, since there is work and enough for each and all.

THE QUESTION OF EMPLOYMENT.

I have stated that there is work for all, and this statement will doubtless be disputed, and, in support of the opposite contention, will be urged the fact that in spite of the law just quoted against loafing, and in spite of the asserted abundance of

employment, there are, nevertheless, to be found numbers of men hanging around the principal towns and complaining that they can find no work to do. This fact brings us face to face with one of the principal difficulties which will have to be overcome before the great labour question can be satisfactorily settled, either at home or in the Colonies, namely, the tendency of the inhabitants to flock from the country to the towns, and of mankind in general to congregate together. In England, this tendency has been shown to be one of the principal causes of low wages, bad dwellings, and scarcity of employment, and, on the

occasion of a great strike, it has been the means of supplying the employers with an unlimited number of new hands in place of those who have struck work. The strike leaders have not failed to perceive the damaging effects of this circumstance upon their plans, and have consequently organized a crusade amongst the agricultural labourers and the dwellers in the country districts, to induce them to remain at home and stick to the village and the plough. Whether this crusade will be successful or not remains to be seen, but the English peasantry have certainly this fact to plead in favour of their migration,

namely, that the wages which they receive as tillers of the soil are frequently so miserably inadequate that they are absolutely forced to endeavour to improve their condition by seeking employment elsewhere, to say nothing of the circumstance that many of them complain of what is called the "tyranny" of the parson and the squire, which latter, however, is a question upon which I am not in a position to pronounce an opinion.

In New Zealand, however, the case is reversed; the unemployed in the towns have no such excuse for being found there. On the contrary, I should say that one of

the principal attractions appears to be the plenitude of public-houses, and the opportunities for meeting and drinking with old acquaintances. The Government appears to be of a similar opinion, for in certain of its largest undertakings in the shape of laying down railway lines, etc., it stipulated that no men should be employed on the works within a distance of 20 miles of the town in which they were accustomed to dwell. The men employed upon the farms, the sheep runs, and the mines of New Zealand have no cause to seek for better wages in the towns; they make their own terms with their employers, nor has

"tyranny" in any shape or form any fears for them.

THE VARIOUS CLASSES OF SOCIETY.

Wealthy men of business and the professional classes constitute the leaders of society in New Zealand; clerks and cadets are the young men of fashion. The position of a cadet is a peculiar, though a common one. He is generally a young man or youth from England, whose parents or guardians have sent him out for his health or bad conduct, and have placed him on a farm or station after paying the owner a premium of

from £75 to £100. This places him in some respects in the position of a labourer on the farm without the privilege of receiving wages. He lives with the owner or manager, a circumstance, however, which, in New Zealand does not imply much special advantage, as the men on the farm fare as well as the "Boss."

From the rapidity with which fortunes were made in the early days of the Colony the men of wealth, and consequently those who take a leading position in society, are frequently those who have commenced in what we are accustomed to call the humbler walks of life. For an example of this

fact there was the sailor, who, landing in New Zealand, invested a few pounds of his wages in some land where Christchurch now stands, and returning, several years afterwards, found a handsome building in course of erection on his plot. He entered, but was roughly ordered out by the foreman. Next day, however, he returned with his solicitor and the title deeds, and this time he met with a different reception, and obtained from the Banking Company, who were the owners of the building, a very considerable sum in return for his permission to go on. Numberless instances of a similar nature

are to be met with throughout the Colony.

On the other hand there are to be found in every grade of society, amongst shearers, farm labourers, railway servants, and miners, men belonging to some of the oldest and highest families in the United Kingdom, who, on account of their altered fortunes, have preferred to seek in New Zealand a life of healthy activity free from the endless embarrassments and difficulties created by the struggle to keep up former appearances at home.

From these circumstances it can easily be inferred that to be actively engaged in

any business or employment whatever, so long as it is of an honest description, is by no means a social disadvantage in New Zealand. Remarks derogatory to an individual on account of his or her occupation are seldom, if ever heard, for all persons have at some time or other worked for a living with their own hands, and there are to be found few men, no matter what their wealth, who are not actively engaged in business of some kind. One man being considered every bit as good as another, business is carried on in a more simple and satisfactory manner than in older countries, for equal attention is given to all clients and cus-

tomers, and principals deal directly with their *employés*.

AMUSEMENTS.

Although, as I have said, New Zealanders, as a rule, enjoy being actively engaged in work or business, yet they thoroughly understand and appreciate the art of recreation. Their amusements are, in many respects, similar to those which find favour in the Mother Country. They are enabled, however, by their superior climate to enjoy to a greater extent the delights of picnics and camping out. Lawn tennis is the favourite game indulged in by both sexes,

while cricket and football are most actively pursued by the young men of all classes.

New Zealanders take great delight in music and in dancing, and they take every opportunity of indulging their tastes in this direction. Concerts and assemblies of every description are frequent, and are most popular and well attended, whilst, on the country stations, the shearers hold similar levées after their day's work is over, and, in music of no mean order, dances, songs and stories, they while away their evenings.

RELIGIOUS CONDITION.

The position of New Zealand, from a religious point of view, is, I daresay, on a par with that of other English-speaking countries. Churches of all denominations are numerous. Christchurch was originally the Church of England, and Dunedin the Scotch Church settlement; but since there is no State Church these distinctions are rapidly passing away. The Salvation Army is in considerable force in many of the towns.

A difficulty arose in connection with the Church of England in New Zealand which

created considerable stir shortly before my departure. The Archbishop had resigned, and his successor, according to rule and custom, was the Bishop who had been ordained for the longest period. But each of the Bishops claimed this distinction, and for some considerable time the post remained vacant while the matter was under discussion. How it was settled I have not heard.

There are many people of wealth in New Zealand, and all, or nearly all, belong to one or other of the various religious denominations. The old settlers are extremely liberal and advance money towards the

cause in a generous but sometimes indiscriminating fashion ; and though excellent men of business, they are frequently duped by alien adventurers in the guise of professors of religion. A man stating that he was the brother of a famous American pugilist, and that he had been a Professor of Athletics, until he was converted, arrived in Christchurch and there hired the theatre, in which he preached every Sunday afternoon and evening. He had a fine presence and a splendid voice, and consequently attracted large audiences, but never forgot to pass the hat round at the close of his services. Soon he was invited

to preach at various churches, which he did with great unction, and his sermons created a most favourable and edifying impression. Moreover, he conducted oratorios, and would vary his performance by singing a piece from some opera. All went well, and he began to be looked upon as a permanent and welcome institution, when at length a lady recognized him as a man whom she had formerly come across under different circumstances. But he stoutly denied the imputation, and carried himself more boldly than ever, and when the Bishop and some clergymen called upon him to examine him touching certain

matters whereof he had been accused, he said, "I give you two minutes to leave the room by the door. Were it not for the grace of God you would go out by the window." Whereupon they left the presence of the converted prizefighter. His next proceeding was to hold a farewell meeting in a public hall, after having given out that he was about to leave Christchurch. A purse of about £100 was collected for him, and when it was in his pocket he announced that he thought he would stay in Christchurch after all. That night he went "on the spree," and left for Auckland the next day. Having arrived

there he made an announcement to the effect that he had got £2,000 out of the Christchurch people, and now intended to return to his old faith, which was that of a Roman Catholic.

Incidents such as the foregoing are not at all uncommon, and even old Colonists, who ought to have learnt wisdom, are continually being gulled by adventurers from all parts of the world, especially America.

THE LEGAL PROFESSION.

The law, of course, is present in its full majesty in New Zealand, and exists, as in other countries, primarily for the benefit of

its professors, and, in a secondary and subordinate sense, for that of the public. Barristers, solicitors, and other hangers-on of Justice form a large and influential portion of society. I believe that as regards this profession New Zealand is as much overcrowded as England, and that unless a man is unusually clever and persevering, and has influence and connections, his legal career will be no more successful in the Colonies than at home.

THE MEDICAL PROFESSION.

The medical profession is fairly well represented in New Zealand. The life of

a doctor up country is, I should think, a delightful one. He is generally guaranteed a good income of a fixed amount per annum by the district he is in, and which has selected and invited him. In addition to this, of course, he receives the customary fees from the patients whom he attends. He is also usually the appointed physician to various lodges and societies, from which he receives a yearly stipend. Besides all this, if he be of a sociable disposition he has the run of all the houses in the neighbourhood, and is always regarded as a welcome guest when he does not come in his professional capacity. Such a position

is best suited to a young and active man, as the distances which he sometimes has to ride or drive are considerable. There are plenty of vacant places for more of these doctors to fill up, and if a qualified man desires an active and country life, with a good position, he can find both in this direction. Doctors in the towns occupy much the same position as in England. Specialists have, I believe, done well, for as yet there are not too many of them.

Dentists also pursue the same tactics as in other countries, and here the Americans come in, as usual, where no diploma is needed.

But as I have never during the years which I have spent in New Zealand had occasion to seek the aid of either doctors or dentists I am unable to advance any testimony in their favour or the reverse derived from personal experience.

POLICE AND MILITARY.

The military section of society so prominent in England has no place in New Zealand. The only substitute for it is the police contingent, and a few permanent artillerymen. The latter are employed to garrison the forts and batteries. One of them I know, who measures six feet nine

inches in his stockings, and is said to be the tallest white man in New Zealand.

DOMESTIC SERVANTS AND WIVES.

Very high wages are demanded and received by domestic servants in New Zealand. For this reason many people employ Chinamen in this capacity. Chinamen are inexpensive, industrious, and willing, and make excellent gardeners and washermen, but, until accustomed to them, they are apt to spoil one's appetite when they wait at table.

Whilst on the subject of domestic servants, a few words on the New Zea-

lander's requirements in a wife may fitly be introduced. The New Zealand young man, as a rule, wants a wife who is able and ready to do all the housework, and so avoid the necessity for obtaining assistance, which is most expensive in the Colonies; moreover, one who can saddle and harness a horse, assist in the management of a farm, and, in short, make herself generally useful. It may be said that there is nothing remarkable about this, that such qualities are always held up for admiration in a woman, and that men of all countries are accustomed to seek for wives of the character described. To a certain extent

this is true, and, in theory, such women are always at a premium, but the difference lies in the fact that with Colonials it is not merely a theory, but a confirmed practice, to admire and seek for women of this description as wives, to insist on having them, and to see that they get no other. The result is that the training of a New Zealand girl is in the direction of cultivating the qualities required, and of fitting her for the part she will be expected to take.

A man often comes out who is engaged to the proverbial "girl at home," but when he returns home on a visit the girl is generally married, much to the satisfaction

of the enlightened young man, who has generally realized that she is not the one to suit him best in the new life of a new country.

THE LABOUR QUESTION.

What is known as the sweating system at one time existed to a certain extent in New Zealand, but it was speedily taken in hand; inquiries were instituted and societies formed to procure its abolition, and it is now entirely done away with.

Labour of all kinds being very expensive on account of the high wages which are paid throughout New Zealand

certain landowners and large farmers, generally in the North Island, resort occasionally to the employment of the Maori natives. It may be doubted, however, whether any advantage, pecuniary or otherwise, is derived from adopting this course, for, although the labour of the individual Maori is decidedly cheap, yet he is usually accompanied to the scene of action by the whole of his tribe, men, women and children, the old and infirm, as well as the babies in arms, who have all to be supported by the employer while the work is in progress. One of the reasons alleged why some of the old and wealthy

settlers continue to employ the Maoris and thereby saddle themselves with the necessity of providing for their families and tribes is that they do it to ease their consciences, which otherwise might be somewhat troubled at times by the reflection that the land which they now occupy and from which they derive their wealth was not so very long ago the property of these very Maoris, and that it has been obtained from the latter by means which would not always bear the closest investigation.

While on the question of labour, the great strike which so recently agitated all

the Australasian Colonies requires a word of notice. The strike commenced in Australia, and, after the wharf labourers had ceased work, those in New Zealand also struck out of sympathy, and not because they professed to have or put forward any grievances of their own. This placed the employers in a most peculiar position. Even had they been disposed to yield the point, they could hardly be expected to do so, since there was no point to yield. They rose to the occasion, however, and with the aid of volunteer labour in the shape of clerks, members of the athletic clubs, and of the Canterbury University, the work of

loading and unloading was carried on successfully, and the strike in this quarter collapsed chiefly through its own inherent unreasonableness.

Although, as a matter of opinion, I am bound to say that, taking this great recent Colonial strike as a whole, I can hardly see in what direction the men could rationally expect to improve their position by striking, or what real grounds of complaint they possessed, yet, had their campaign been properly conducted, and had their leaders been other than interested agitators, they might have succeeded in making their own terms in the settlement,

instead of being compelled to ignominiously surrender. As it is, the chances for strikers have been considerably diminished for the future on account of the strong employers' associations which have been formed as a result of the recent disturbances.

THE LEGISLATURE AND POLITICS.

The Legislature of New Zealand consists of a House of Representatives, an Upper House, and a Governor appointed by the Crown, all measures, of course, being subject to the Imperial veto. The members of the House of Representatives are

elected in much the same manner as the members of the House of Commons, and are entitled to place M.H.R. after their names. The Upper House, or "Legislative Council," as it is called, consists of those who are elected from the Lower House by the members thereof. Members of the Upper House take the title of "Honourable" for life.

Party Government is the system in New Zealand, as in Great Britain, but, as it is conducted on a much smaller and simpler scale, and is free from the many confusing complications which surround it in the latter country and elsewhere, its

absurdity and weakness as a method of ruling and legislating for a people are more strikingly apparent. The distinctive parties are not known as Liberal and Conservative. The principal points at issue are Free Trade and Protection, the Education question, and, of late, to a certain extent, Woman's Suffrage. Sections of voters follow individual leaders, and when one man gets into power he brings in the same bills that he opposed when out of power. It is a perpetual scramble for office, and legislation is initiated more for the purpose of keeping a party in power than for the good of the country.

A better state of affairs, however, is, I think, beginning to prevail. Signs are not wanting to show that the public is awaking to a due sense of its responsibilities and is determined no longer to permit its representatives to amuse themselves at its expense. The course of policy which has landed the country so heavily in debt has been abandoned. The debt itself, unfortunately, cannot be got rid of so easily. Various schemes for meeting the heavy interest on the borrowed money are proposed, and one which receives considerable support is the imposition of a heavy land tax. Into this question, however, I do not

propose to enter, beyond remarking that opinion is still very unsettled as to what course to pursue. A great deal of the land of New Zealand belongs to the Government, and it is advocated by some that the Government should retain this land and endeavour to reclaim and nationalize the remainder. Sooner or later a definite line of policy must be adopted, and there is no doubt but that such policy will be in accordance with the spirit of the times. After all, the debt is no very formidable burden when the magnificent resources of the country are taken into consideration, nor is there any cause for alarm on its account.

Over this and over every other obstacle the people of New Zealand, aided by their splendid climate, their advantageous geographical position, the fertility of their soil, and their wonderful mineral resources will triumph, and, proceeding along the lines of enlightened enterprise and complete freedom, will continue to excite more and more the envy and admiration of the world.

THE END.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY
Los Angeles
This book is DUE on the last date stamped below.

JAN 24 1958

Form L9–25m-8,'46(9852)444

THE LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
LOS ANGELES

DU
411
S97n