

AUSTRALIA AND ITS GOLD.

BY ALFRED H. GUERNSEY

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS.

AUSTRALIA*—the Southern Land—is the name now given to that great island-continent formerly called New Holland, lying between the parallels of 10° and 40° south latitude, and those of 112° and 154° east longitude from Greenwich. The extreme length of the island from east to west is about 2500 miles, and its utmost breadth from north to south is about 2000 miles, the mean length and breadth being each some 500 miles less. The coast line is indented upon the north by the deep Gulf of Carpentaria, and upon the south by the great Australian Bight. The distance between the northern and southern shores at these opposite indentations is something more than a thousand miles. The whole island has a superficial area of between three and four millions of square miles; and may be stated, with sufficient accuracy for general purposes, to be equal in extent to the United States or the whole of Europe.

For a great part of its circumference the island is surrounded by almost continuous ranges of mountains or highlands, in no place attaining a very considerable altitude, and for long distances consisting of elevated plateaus or table-lands, with isolated peaks and detached chains springing above the general level. There is, however, along all these chains a continuous height of land or water-shed which is never broken through,

* From *Auster*, the South Wind, the South, *Australis*, Southern.

and which never recedes to any very great distance from the coast. The habitable portions of the island are limited to the slopes of these mountains and the space between them and the coast. The width of this habitable belt, in those parts which have been explored and settled, is from two to three hundred miles; but is probably much less in the remainder of the island. The interior consists wholly of an immense depressed plain, more hopelessly barren and uninhabitable than the desert of Sahara. Australia therefore presents a smaller proportion of habitable territory than either of the other great divisions of the globe.

This great interior desert has probably never been traversed by the foot of man; and only two or three expeditions have ever penetrated far into its depths. The farthest point attained was by Captain Sturt in 1844. He made his way some four hundred miles beyond the habitable limits, which brought him very nearly into the geographical centre of the island. This he found occupied by an immense plain covered with ridges of drifting sand, often rising to the height of eighty or a hundred feet, and stretching away in either direction as far as the eye could reach. In isolated spots grew a few solitary tufts of grass, the necessary moisture for whose sustenance was supplied by infrequent thunder showers. Permanent water there was none, and the sand was heated to such a degree that a match dropped upon it became instantly ignited. The thermometer on one occasion rose to 153° in the coolest place to be found. In the midst of this sterile tract was a desert of still deeper gloom, which was traced for a dis-

tance of eighty miles in one direction, and thirty-five miles in the other. Its surface was paved with a solid bed of dark ironstone, upon which the horses' hoofs rung as upon a metallic floor, but left not the least impression, and in which not the slightest trace of water or vegetation was found.

Mr. Leichardt, a German naturalist, succeeded in penetrating from the settlements on the eastern coast through the unexplored interior to the northern side of the island; but his course only led him along the skirts of the great central desert; yet more than once even here he was saved from perishing from thirst by following the flight of the bronze-winged pigeon directing its course to some solitary water-hole. In 1846 he set out on a new journey intending to pass from the east through the central desert to the little colony on the western shore. The journey was expected to occupy two and a half years. In April, 1848, a letter was received from him written upon the verge of habitation, since which time his fate is unknown; but he doubtless perished long ago in the great desert.

When it was ascertained that no rivers from the interior reached the sea-coast it was supposed that a great inland lake existed which received the central waters; and that navigable streams would be discovered, leading into the interior. This opinion was apparently supported by the fact that one river at least, the Victoria, poured a large current directly into the interior; but Captain Sturt traced its course, and instead of augmenting in size, it decreased as he followed it down, dwindling into a succession of water-holes, and was finally lost among the barren sands.

The mountain chains of which mention has been made, constitute the leading feature in the physical geography of Australia, determining as they do the character of its river-system, and consequently the whole character of the country. The principal of these ranges runs in a general north and south course along the eastern shore of the island. The name of the Australian Cordilleras has been proposed for this whole chain; but at present it is known by different names in different parts of its course. It attains its greatest altitude near the southern extremity, where Mount Kosciusko, the highest peak, rises to the height of 6500 feet, an elevation equal to that of Mount Washington in our White Mountains. This part of the range is called the White Mountains, and though not covered with perpetual snow, is elevated enough to feed the affluents of the Murray River, almost the only Australian stream, which has running water at all times. As this range of mountains goes northward toward the equator, its height diminishes until at its northern extremity it is merely a chain of slight hills. This great eastern chain is not, however, a continuous ridge, but for a considerable part of its course a succession of broad plateaus and elevated table-lands, from which spring separate peaks and minor ranges, sometimes running parallel to and sometimes at

various angles with its general course. There is a well-defined height of land or water-shed, which is nowhere broken through, and maintains a nearly uniform distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the shore. Great spurs frequently shoot out from the main range, running down to the sea-coast on the one side, or striking off toward the interior on the other.

Farther west a smaller chain leaves the southern coast, but after a course of a few hundred miles is lost in the central desert. The western and northern shores are in like manner furnished with chains running parallel to their course, as laid down on the map. These, however, are less elevated than the eastern chain; but like that present a continuous water-shed at no great distance from the coast. The southern coast only is destitute of this bounding ridge; and here, for a great portion of its extent, the great central desert appears to extend down to the sea-shore.

As the mountains in which the Australian streams take their rise are so near the coast, the rivers have but a short course, and are mostly incapable of navigation. Few of them, indeed, are navigable twenty miles from their mouths. And as the mountains mostly fall far below the line of perpetual snow, the rivers are fed merely by the rains, and consequently vary greatly in the amount of water. The large maps of Australia are marked with a network of rivers, conveying the idea of a country abundantly watered. But there the actual presence of water is not at all essential to the existence of a river; all that is involved is, a channel down which water has flowed, or may flow. A river, except in seasons of flood, is generally a mere succession of water-holes, at the bottom of a deep ravine, sometimes connected by a scanty stream, and sometimes entirely isolated; and in times of drought even these disappear altogether. So too what are laid down on the maps as lakes, are but valleys filled with soft mud, growing more and more moist toward the centre, where water may perhaps exist.

SOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTIONS.

The settled portions of Australia occupying the same general position in south latitude that we do in north, their seasons are the reverse of our own. New Year's day falls in midsummer, and the Dog-days come at Christmas, to the great detriment of young Australian poets, who can make no use of the stock phrases of "rosy May," "bleak December," "Christmas fires," and the like.

The latitude of the colonies corresponds to that of Florida, the Carolinas, and Virginia, but the temperature and productions are varied more by position and elevation than by latitude. The daily range of the thermometer is greater than with us: but the annual range of the mean temperature is much less. Thus, at Sydney, though the thermometer sometimes rises to 118° the mean temperature during the summer months is but 67°, and that of the winter months is 57°. In this respect the climate approximates to that

of Italy. The climate of Australia is beyond all doubt one of the most salubrious and healthful in the world, and is extremely favorable to physical and intellectual vigor. Owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, the absence of marshes, and of rank vegetation, those intermittent fevers and agues are utterly unknown, which "do so shake from their propriety" the settlers in most new countries; and the inhabitants sleep in the open air with the most absolute impunity.

The soil presents some singular anomalies, especially in respect to the distribution of the fertile portions. In other countries the fertile tracts lie usually in masses, and generally along the courses of the rivers. In Australia they occur in isolated patches, and most frequently upon the sides and summits of the hills. These fertile tracts are continually intersected by broad plains, the soil of which is too light for cultivation, though forming the most admirable pasturage in the world, or by barren tracts furrowed by ravines, and clothed with scrub, entirely destitute of value. The best authorities assure us that of the land worth occupying, not more than one-third is fit for cultivation; the remaining two-thirds being only available for pasture-grounds.

The productiveness of the land adapted for agricultural purposes is very great, and the range of available productions is wide. With few exceptions the trees, fruits, vegetables, and cerealia of the temperate zone flourish, besides many of those belonging to those tropical regions farthest removed from the equator. This is the more remarkable, because every thing of the kind is exotic.

When Australia was taken possession of by the European race, scarcely half a century ago, it was by far the most destitute of natural productions of any habitable land on the globe. No species of grain was known to the natives; not a single fruit worthy of notice grew wild; not an edible root of any value was produced. The only game was the shy kangaroo, and a few species of birds; domestic animals were unknown; and the only carnivorous animal was the *dingo* or native dog.

In some districts, especially upon the seaward slope of the hills, where there is an accumulation of moisture, the forests present something of a tropical character; lofty trees spread their umbrageous branches about, with great cable-like creepers climbing from tree to tree, forming an almost impervious mass. But the prevalent native tree is the "gum-tree." These trees usually stand wide apart, their bare stems covered with ragged bark like worn-out matting. The leaves are few and scattered, so that they afford but little shade. They spread over the most barren and rocky ground, where there is apparently not a particle of soil. The ground is destitute of underbrush, but scattered around on the brown surface are old decayed branches and trunks often blackened by fire, with which also the still living trees are frequently scarred. This is "the Bush"—the scene of so much wild romance and

startling adventure in the early days of the colony.

But the "Plains" are the characteristic feature of Australia. These are open park-like intervals, where the gum-trees stand singly or in clumps, and the undulating ground is covered with rich and luxuriant grass. These plains sometimes stretch away for hundreds of miles, over the broad plateaus and table-lands, or are broken by rocky ranges, and end in deep gullies. Over these plains the stockman drives his herds, or the shepherd his flocks, for days or weeks, without meeting any serious interruption to his progress, or without failure of the pasturage except in seasons of drought. These plains are the feeding-places of those mighty herds of cattle and horses, and those vast droves of sheep, "of noble race, whose feet"—so runs the old Spanish saying—"turn all they touch to gold." Those plains are the sources of wealth to Australia, more permanent, and perhaps not less valuable than her new-found gold-deposits.

COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT.

Captain Dirk Hartog, of the good ship *Endracht*, of Amsterdam, landed upon the western shore of Australia, Oct. 25th, 1616, as we learn from an inscription upon a plate of pewter which was found on the spot in 1801. This, as far as is certainly known, was the first time that any European had set foot on the Island. The Hollanders took the lead in exploring the shores, and gave to the island the name of New Holland; but the expedition sent out by the Dutch East India Company to examine the country, with a view to colonization, reported that it was the "abode of howling evil spirits," a country of "barren coasts, shallow water, islands, thinly peopled by cruel, poor and brutal natives, and of very little use to the Company." Subsequent navigators of all nations concurred in this evil report of the land, and the tide of emigration was directed toward America.

The colonization of Australia by the British stands in close connection with that war which lost them the Thirteen American Colonies. That outlet for the banishment of their criminal population being closed, it became a great problem how to get rid of the annual accumulation of roguery. Cook had recently made some explorations in Australia, and it was finally resolved to make the island a penal colony. The first convict fleet sailed on the 13th of May, 1787, and reached Botany Bay, which had been selected as the site for the settlement, on the 20th of the following January.

This "goodly company" of patriots "who left their country for their country's good," consisted of 565 men, 192 women, under the charge of a military force of about 200 men, with whom were 40 women, the wives of the soldiers. It was at once found that Botany Bay was an unsuitable place for the settlement, and it was formed at a distance of about 18 miles, upon the spot where now stands the city of Sydney. Botany Bay, however, long continued to be the popular name given to the whole penal colony.

The colony commenced under most unfavorable auspices. No agriculturist had been sent to teach the cultivation of the soil to those London pickpockets whose only harvest-field had been the pockets of their neighbors. The very supply of mechanics was left to the chances of the previous pursuits of the criminals; and as it happened, there were in all but a dozen carpenters, and but one bricklayer; and not a single mechanic with skill enough to erect a corn-mill. Such were the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Australia.

In one thing they were fortunate. If the island was destitute of natural productions, there were also no warlike natives to dispute the possession with them. The aborigines were few; they cultivated no soil, built no huts, possessed no ornaments of gold and silver, and knew not the use of metals. Their dwellings consisted merely of a few bits of thick bark peeled from the trees and set upright, as a protection from the wind; a fire was built in front of the open side, and their habitation was complete. Such a hut was called a *gunyah*.



AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES UNDER GUNYAH.

Their weapons were the club, the spear—they do not seem to have been acquainted with the bow—and the *boomerang*. This last weapon is peculiar to the aborigines of Australia, and its mode of action is a puzzle to mathematicians. It is simply a crooked piece of hard wood, three feet long and three inches broad, pointed at each end, the concave side a quarter of an inch thick, the convex side made sharp. The native takes it by one end, and flings it sickle-wise with his hand, when it of course revolves as though upon an axis. If he wishes to strike an object at a distance, he flings it toward the ground, as a boy does a flat stone upon the water, to make it "skip." And just so the boomerang goes skipping to its mark. If he wishes to throw it so that it shall fall at his own feet, he flings it at a particular angle up into the air; away goes the boomerang whizzing and whirling in ascending curves, until all at once it turns short round, and flies back directly to its master. And so, by altering the angle at which it is thrown, the weapon strikes at any point behind him. In like

manner, the boomerang may be thrown around an intervening object, actualizing, in a fashion, the old joke of the crooked gun to shoot around a corner. The weapon is useless in the hands of a European, being quite as likely to strike the thrower as the object aimed at; but in the hands of a native it is a formidable missile, striking from the most unsuspected direction, in spite of any defense. You sit unconcernedly behind a rock or tree, thinking yourself safe from an attack in the rear; but the boomerang doubles the corner, and is upon you. That innocent-looking native, walking off with his back to you, may be at the instant taking aim at you with the inevitable back-flying boomerang. It doubtless originated from the necessity, in hunting the kangaroo, that the shy animal should not see his assailant; but it is singular that so barbarous a people should have invented such a weapon.

The aborigines of Australia possess a physical appearance different from any other race; or rather compounded of many. To the black color

of the African, they add the straight silky hair of the Malay, and the lean, long limbs of the Hindoo, while their language bears a remarkable affinity with that of the North American Indians. They seemed to be entirely destitute of any form of government or chieftainship, and to be merely an aggregation of separate families. Though possessing no fixed habitations, their migrations were confined within narrow limits, no family apparently exceeding fifty or sixty miles in their wanderings. Their numbers were small, never probably amounting to more than a hundred thousand souls. This paucity arose less from wars among themselves, than from the incapacity of the country for their support. Nothing came amiss to their omnivorous appetites; worms and slugs were as little distasteful to them as oysters and shrimps are to us; and the larvæ of insects constituted a dainty dish. So feeble a race, of course, melted away before the rough convicts and settlers, who shot them down with as little scruple as so many kangaroos; and they are now almost extinct. The few attempts made to instruct them in the arts of civilized life, have proved utter failures.

The colony, at first, was unsuccessful enough; and was more than once reduced to the verge of starvation, being dependent for food upon supplies from the parent country. About six months after the first settlement, it is recorded as a great calamity, that two bulls and four cows, the major part of the stock of neat cattle, had escaped into the bush, and could not be recovered—a loss, however, which subsequent events proved to be an immense gain.

We can not detail the miseries of the first few years of the colony; and of its moral and social state it is sufficient to say that, eighteen years after its first foundation, the current coin of the capital was rum, and that of the births two-thirds were illegitimate. The government was conducted at the Colonial Office in England with that blundering, official stolidity, which has always been characteristic of British administration abroad; the result of which has been, and will be, that no sooner does a colony begin to feel its strength, than it seeks to become independent of the parent state. In the mean time free settlers began to arrive in Australia, to whom grants of land and convict laborers were made, in proportion to the amount of capital they brought with them; these convicts being fed and clothed by the Crown.

We must, however, glance for a moment at the system pursued in reference to the public lands, as this furnishes the key to the whole character of Australian emigration. In 1831 the free grants of land were discontinued, and the lands were ordered to be sold. The price was at first fixed at five shillings an acre; and a considerable body of emigrants were attracted, of that class who were desirous of living upon their own land. These, of course, brought their families, and scattered themselves over the colony, wherever they could find land upon which to settle.

In the course of time, the theory was propounded that it was desirable to concentrate the population, and to effect this the price of land was raised to a minimum of twelve, and subsequently of twenty shillings an acre; and the quantity put up for sale at a time largely increased, with the avowed object of preventing the purchase of land by any persons except large capitalists. A further object was to keep the great body of emigrants in the condition of laborers and servants, in order that by competition the price of labor might be kept down. This is perhaps the solitary instance in modern times when legislation has been framed with the avowed object of reducing the price of labor. A portion of the sum derived from the sale of lands was appropriated to giving a free passage to emigrants, who were approved by the Colonial Office at home, and whose competition in the labor market, on their arrival in Australia, would tend to keep down the price. Thus the landholder, who paid an exorbitant price for his land, had the sum refunded to him by way of cheapened labor.

But it was soon discovered that the great body of land in Australia, though not adapted to cultivation, was the finest in the world for pasturing cattle and sheep. We have mentioned the grief occasioned by the loss of a great part of the cattle, in 1788. Seven years afterward it was reported by the natives that cattle had been seen grazing on the plains in the interior; an expedition was sent to investigate the matter; and sixty animals were found feeding in a single herd, the produce of the lost beasts. This was the origin of the immense herds of cattle which now cover the Australian plains.

About the same time John M'Arthur, who had come out as an officer in the army, happened to observe that the hairy wool of a few Indian sheep which had been imported, became much finer among the rich pastures of the plains. He was a man of far-reaching views, great energy, and indomitable courage. The discovery did not lie idle, and he devoted himself, in the midst of the ridicule of the colony, to improving the breed of sheep. At this time the exportation of merinos from Spain was strictly forbidden, and severely punished; but in 1803 M'Arthur visited England and succeeded in obtaining a few pure merinos from the flock of George III. From these have sprung those countless flocks of sheep which in less than half a century have made Australia the greatest wool-growing country in the world.

The introduction of flocks and herds was destined to effect a great change in Australian society. The saying of one of the early governors, that there were only two classes of inhabitants in Australia—convicts, and those who ought to have been convicted—had ceased to be true. The number of free emigrants greatly exceeded that of the convicts; and of the "emancipists" not a few retrieved their characters in the new circumstances in which they were placed.

The British Government, with its usual wrong-headedness, set itself seriously to work to neu-

tralize the blessings which nature, ever bountiful, was so freely proffering to the superabundant agricultural population of the mother country. The price which had been fixed upon land, was of course far beyond its value for pastoral purposes. But to reduce the price would put it in the power of large numbers of persons, with limited means to purchase. A most complicated system of leasing the grazing lands was then adopted, by which persons of considerable capital only could occupy the lands for pasturage. These pastoral occupants—in Australia called squatters—in course of time became the leading interest in the colony; and gradually absorbed a great share of the labor, in the shape of shepherds and stockmen. In the eyes of the new aristocracy, the great end and aim of the Australian colonies was to produce cattle and sheep—the character of the men and women produced was of no importance. Their *beau ideal* of a laborer was an able-bodied, unmarried man, from

an agricultural county, humble, ignorant, and strong, and the Colonial Office adapted their measures to supply just this class of emigrants. The consequence was that except the utterly destitute among the laboring classes, few went to Australia, and the better classes of emigrants made their way to America. Emigration by families, in particular, was strongly discouraged.

The consequence was what might have been anticipated. From the original constitution of the colony as a penal settlement, there was of course a large preponderance of males. The new emigration kept up this disproportion by bringing over only single men, and married couples without children. In the course of time a great demand sprung up for female servants; and this was sought to be met by sending over shiploads of young women, who were landed at Sydney, unprotected and without means of finding their way to those rural districts where their labor was required. Thus, by a complication of errors, Australian society was undergoing a twofold process of demoralization. In the rural districts the men were lapsing into barbarism from lack of female influence, and in the cities the female population were falling into ruin for want of protection.

Government, of course, had quite other things to attend to than to attempt to remedy a social evil like this. And it was reserved for a private individual, and that a woman, to develop a scheme of colonization adapted to Australia. We will therefore devote a few paragraphs to the career of this benefactor of this colony.



CAROLINE CHISHOLM

Sometime in the early years of the present century, the home of William Jones, a sturdy Northamptonshire yeoman, was gladdened by the birth of a daughter. The girl grew up tall and vigorous, with that fine physical development in which our American women are so deficient—a sound mind in a sound body. At the age of twenty she was married to Alexander Chisholm, an officer in the East Indian army, whom two years after she accompanied to India. Here her sympathies were aroused by the condition of the daughters of the soldiers, exposed to the twofold pollutions of the barracks and of heathendom. Feeling with her was the parent of action, and she proceeded to establish and superintend a school of Industry for their benefit, which has grown up into an extensive orphan institution, though her own labors were transferred to a wider sphere.

In 1838 the health of her husband became impaired, and he was advised to visit the more genial climate of Australia, with his wife and young children. The colony was now passing into the second stage of its development, and from a penal settlement becoming a colony of freemen. The attention of Mrs. Chisholm was soon directed to the unhappy condition of the young women whom Government had sent out as emigrants; who in a strange country, ignorant and unprotected, were exposed to the most deadly perils. But the little that she could personally do for their benefit only showed her how much remained to be done. What could she do—a woman and a stranger? Yet the work was

forced upon her by influences from without and impulses from within. "When I heard," she writes, "of a poor girl suffering distress, and losing her reputation in consequence, I felt that I was not clear of her sin, for I did not do all I could to prevent it."

Now came the solemn season of Lent, when the Catholic church, of which she is a member, so affectingly commemorates the voluntary humiliation of "him who though he was rich, yet for our sakes became poor;" and the associations of the season pressed her task upon her mind. At length came Easter Sunday, when her church celebrates the finished work of redemption; and upon that day, she writes, "I was enabled upon the altar of our Lord to make an offering of my talents to the Lord who gave them. I promised to know neither county nor creed, but to try to serve all justly and impartially. I asked only to be enabled to keep these poor girls from being tempted by their need to mortal sin; and resolved that, to accomplish this, I would in every way sacrifice my feelings—surrender all comfort, and wholly devote myself to the work I had in hand."

For all the encouragement and support she at first received, she might as well have been a prophet in the old Hebrew times. But though wearied she was not disheartened. The co-operation of Government seemed essential to any effectual result. Sir George Gipps, the Governor, was an obstinate, self-conceited haughty man; yet not without certain personal good qualities: the very counterpart of those colonial governors who drove our fathers to insurrection. At last, after repeated and urgent solicitations he was induced to grant an interview to Mrs. Chisholm. "I had expected," he afterward said, "to have seen an old lady in white cap and spectacles, who would have talked to me about my soul. I was amazed when my *aide* introduced a handsome stately young woman, who proceeded to reason the question, as if she thought her reason and experience worth as much as mine." The Governor was slow to be convinced even by the arguments of a "handsome stately young woman;" but upon receiving a guarantee that Government should be put to no expense, he granted her the occupancy of a little wooden building, used as a government storehouse. She soon found that to exercise any adequate superintendence over the charge which surrounded her, she must herself occupy the premises. Her husband had been meanwhile recalled to India, but had feared to take with him his young family; and she took possession of a vacant room, seven feet square, infested with rats. Sickness among the emigrants compelled her to send her own three children away; but she courageously kept her post.

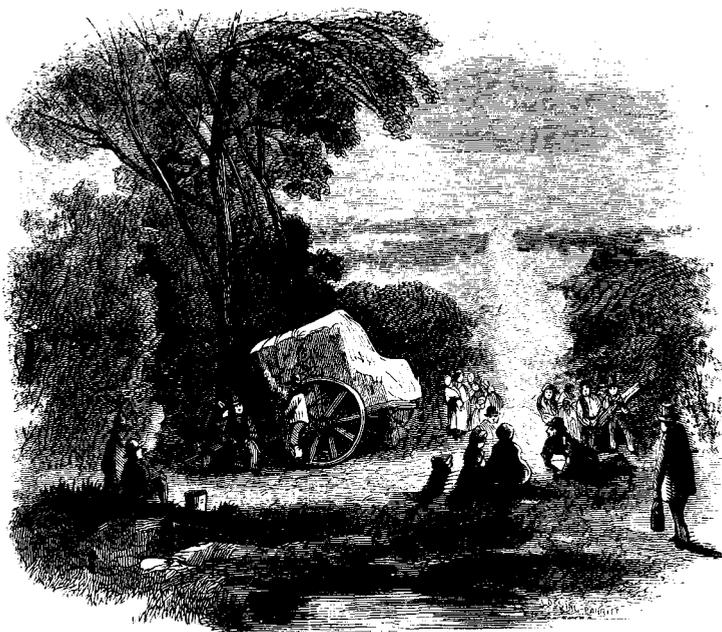
It was no part of Mrs. Chisholm's plan to found an alms-house. When she opened her "Home of Protection" there were at Sydney 600 young women unprovided with work; while all through the colony there was the most urgent demand for their labor; but those who wished

to work, and those who desired their labor were at a distance from each other. Her purpose was simply to make herself acquainted with both parties, and to bring them together. Having, by means of circulars, ascertained the locations where labor was wanted, she undertook to convoy parties to these places. Her plan succeeded. Journey after journey added to her means of information. The settlers in "the Bush" came to her assistance, and supplied sustenance and transport for her parties. The public inns refused pay for shelter for her charges and food for herself; so that her personal expenses during her journeys, for seven years, were actually less than ten dollars.

It was not long before she saw that it was not necessary to confine her services to female emigrants. Fathers, husbands, sons, and brothers asked to be allowed to accompany her parties; and thus her journeys became longer, and her parties larger, until on one occasion a company of 240 persons were under her charge, "bushing it," some on foot, some in drays, she herself leading the way on horseback, acting as guide, purveyor, and director. One of these expeditions occupied five weeks, of which three weeks were spent in "the Bush."

Emigrants often arrived ignorant of the manners and customs of the colony, liable to imposition from their own ignorance or the trickery of employers. For their benefit she opened a registry-office for servants and laborers, with a printed form, specifying all the essential points of agreement, to be signed in duplicate by each party. Employers were frequently unwilling to advance the sums necessary to transport the emigrants to their fields of labor. In hundreds of cases, Mrs. Chisholm advanced the needed sums, sometimes amounting to £40 for a single party; and all that she ever lost by this means was £16. During the seven years which she spent in the colony she was thus the means of settling 11,000 individuals.

A scheme of colonization gradually grew up in the mind of Mrs. Chisholm, based upon a keen insight into human nature, and a thorough knowledge of the wants of the colonies. All experience has shown that it is not good for man, or woman either, to be alone; and that a virtuous society can be reared only upon the basis of the family state. Her published reports contain many instances, half-sad, half-ludicrous, of the anxiety of the better part of the settlers for virtuous wives, and of the impossibility of their obtaining them. The anxious question of the stockman, "When they were to have a Governor who would attend to matters of importance like that?" embodied more wisdom than the Colonial Office was aware of. Something else is requisite for a flourishing state than fat cattle and fine-wooled sheep. With practical good sense Mrs. Chisholm thus hits the nail upon the head: "To supply flockmasters with good shepherds is a good work; to supply those shepherds with good wives is a better. To give the shepherd a good wife is to make a gloomy, miserable hut a cheer-



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ful, contented home. To introduce married females into the interior is to make the squatters' stations fit abodes for Christian men. . . . All the clergy you can dispatch, all the schoolmasters you can appoint, all the churches you can build, and all the books you can export, will never do much good, without 'God's police'—wives and little children." But seeing all this, she also saw that sending out female emigrants, as Government had done, like so much merchandise to supply the matrimonial market, would not remedy the evil. The only feasible means of removing the disparity between the sexes, was to send out emigrants in families. To organize a scheme of family emigration, Mrs. Chisholm, accompanied by her husband, who had now rejoined her, and family, left Australia for England, in 1846, bearing with her the warmest good-will of colonists of every class.

Immediately upon her arrival in England, she set herself resolutely to her task. The modest house which her circumstances allowed her to select for a home was crowded by those seeking for information on the subject of emigration. Government even so far relaxed from its official dignity as to ask information and advice from her. In the course of a year or two she had organized her plan, and had enlisted powerful support in its favor. This plan was to establish a Family Colonization Loan Society, the object of which was to assist families of good character to emigrate. If necessary, the Society undertook to advance a certain portion of the requisite expense of passage; but the main assistance rendered was that more needed than money, advice

as what to do and how to do it. The Society undertook to charter ships, see to it that the accommodations and supplies were of a proper character, and that the emigrants should be so brought together in groups, before setting out, that they might render each other mutual aid and assistance. This scheme was brought forward in May, 1850. In September of that year the first ship was dispatched by the Society, which has since been followed by four others, conveying more than a thousand emigrants. Besides superintending all these outfits, Mrs. Chisholm has corresponded with and advised more than twenty thousand persons upon the subject of emigration. Her husband has recently taken passage from Australia, to open an office for the advice of emigrants upon their arrival, where they can at once receive information as to the most advisable places of location, and thus not be left to wander aimless and hopeless in the streets of the sea-port where they first land. To this woman then belongs the merit of having developed the only means by which the superfluous mass of human life, which is now heaped up and stagnates upon the narrow rim of overcrowded Europe, may be spread abroad, blest and blessing, over the broad uninhabited regions crying out for human inhabitants; fields which no plow has furrowed, so wide that their gleanings would feed the pent-up starving millions of Europe.

PASTORAL LIFE.

Poets have contrived to throw a coloring of romance over the most prosaic and monotonous mode of human life. Sentimental readers of Virgil and Florian picture a shepherd as a rosy-

checked youth reclining upon a bank of flowers under a shady tree, with nothing to do but to watch his fleecy flock and make music on the oaten pipe. Pastoral life is anything but romantic in Australia. Any man can be a shepherd who has a tolerable pair of eyes; a wooden leg is no special objection, provided the owner can stump along at the rate of about a mile an hour. Hence it is a ready resource, everything else failing, of all those who prefer working to stealing or starving. The future shepherd takes service with some of the great squatting aristocracy—the grazing grandees—the magnates of the Bush—who count their flocks by tens of thousands, and their pasture-lands, leased of the Crown, by scores of thousands of acres. He is then dispatched on foot to the "station" in the Bush, a distance of probably two or three hundred miles. If he have a wife and children—a consummation most devoutly to be wished—they are sent on by a bullock-dray. The "station" consists of a hut designed for two shepherds and a hut-keeper, who takes charge of the hut, cooks for the shepherds, and watches the sheepfold by night. If one of the shepherds have a wife and

children, they perform among them the duties of hut-keeper. Each of the shepherds has charge of a flock of sheep, which are driven in opposite directions by day, but at night are folded together close by the hut. The shepherd rises at break of day, makes his breakfast of mutton, unleavened bread baked in the ashes, known as "damper," and tea, made in "Bush fashion" by boiling the Chinese leaf in an open kettle with sugar and milk. Our Australian Corydon now takes his pipe—not the poetical instrument so called, but a blackened *dudheen* redolent of fragrant "negro-head" and "pig-tail," and drives his flock a-field. But, alas for the dreams of flowery banks and cool shades, the best pastures only produce grass without flowers and gum-trees, which cast no shade. The flock feed walking, and it is the shepherd's duty to keep with them, letting them go where they please, unless they approach too near the "scrub," when he must head them off. By the time the sun has reached mid-heaven, he turns them toward some creek or water-hole, where after they have drank they camp down in a ring, with their heads turned socially toward the centre. This is the time



A SHEPHERD'S HUT.

when an Arcadian shepherd would tune his pipes; his Australian brother, if of a musical turn, solaces the hour with a Jews-harp, or an accordeon. These instruments accordingly figure largely in the list of imports, five hundred of the latter, and fifty gross of the former, being no extravagant venture by a single vessel; and a shepherd has been known to walk a couple of hundred miles to purchase one of these solacers of his weary hours. As evening approaches, he drives his flock homeward, shuts them in the

fold, and delivers them to the charge of the hut-keeper. He then makes his supper of the unvarying mutton, and damper, and tea, and his day's work is done. If the night is clear, as it usually is in Australia, the sheep need no watching till midnight, at which hour the watch takes his post near the fold. If the night is stormy it invites the attacks of the dingo, or native dog, and the watch must walk about his woolly charge. The wages of the shepherd, previous to the discovery of gold, were from 60 to 100 dollars a

year, with abundant rations of meat, flour, tea, and sugar; what further luxuries he wishes, he provides for himself. If a man were an oyster, no pleasanter life could be asked. For months at a time he may not see a single human face by daylight; and by firelight only those of the companions of his hut. Even the busy times of shearing and washing do not disturb the monotony of his life; for these more active operations are usually performed by itinerant professors, who travel from station to station, busying themselves during the remainder of the year in other occupations. A strike among the tailors in London, some years since, and the consequent emigration of many of the craft, furnished Australia with a number of amateur shearers, who wielded the blades as deftly upon the fleece as they had been wont to do upon the web.

For the more stirring and adventurous spirits among the colonists, the care of cattle affords a more congenial occupation. The Australian "stockman" is a sort of Europeanized Tartar. He lives on horseback, and scarcely enters a hut except to sleep. His food is beef and "damper;" his pride is his horse; and he scorns those who plow and sow, and, above all things, despises a "crawling shepherd." As for the "crawlers" themselves, as he contemptuously denominates the sheep, he regards them as did that good old hater, John Randolph of Roanoke, who declared that he would go an indefinite distance out of his way to kick one. In his "run" the stockman is a king: his cattle are his subjects; his saddle is his throne; his sceptre is the stock-whip. This is a thong of leather twelve or fourteen feet long, weighing a couple of pounds, thick at the "belly," and tapering to the end where it is finished off by silken cracker, and attached to a handle not more than eighteen inches long. Bearing this official sceptre, the stockman from his saddle-throne keeps watch over his pasture-ground. Woe to the unlucky beast who attempts to stray beyond the limits; the stockman is upon him at once, with his whip, each blow of which, from a practiced hand, cuts through hide and flesh to the very bone. Dexterity in the use of this weapon can be acquired only by long practice; and the young stockman expectant devotes all his leisure to its acquirement, with the grave devotion and persistence of a juvenile practitioner on the violin or French horn; and makes quite as much noise in attaining a respectable proficiency. At noon, the herds are assembled at the "camping-ground," close by a water-course, if possible, where they lie chewing the cud. It takes a year or two to teach a new herd to betake themselves to the spot at the proper hour. The stockman trains them to this by riding about and flogging every beast found straying at camp-hours. In the course of time the whole herd get so trained that at the cracking of the whip, which rings like a musket-shot, they gallop spontaneously to camp. The life of the stockman has at times the excitement of a bull-fight. Once a year the cattle are mustered for inspec-

tion and branding, and a maddened bull not unfrequently breaks away from the yard and heads back for the bush; a stockman gallops after him, and cuts his flanks with the terrible whip; the beast turns when his pursuer is close beside him, and, unless both horse and rider are wary, the steed is impaled on the horns of the infuriated bull. But, sooner or later, the bullock is subdued, and makes his way back to the yard, his hide covered with mingled blood and foam, his eyes glaring, and tongue protruding with agony and fear.

The bullock-driver is a sort of necessary mediator between the city and the pastoral regions. He conducts the enormous carts, with their loads of wool, to market, and brings back the annual returns of stores, and articles of luxury and necessity. His slow journey sometimes occupies two or three months, up the steep mountain side, over apparently impracticable roads, through heat and dust, rain and snow. During the whole time he does not probably once enter a human dwelling, sleeping in his vehicle, while his dog keeps charge over his bullocks turned out to gather their food. The setting out and return of the dray are the great annual events in the lives of the settlers in the Bush, for they are almost the sole links which bind the solitary inhabitants to the great world beyond.

A FEW STATISTICS.

Those portions of Australia which have been settled by emigrants from Great Britain are comprised in three principal colonies. The statistics given are from the census of March, 1851, the last which has been taken. The total population at that time, it will be seen, amounted to 322,000. The discovery of gold has given a great impulse to emigration, so that the population at present probably numbers 450,000. We have tables in detail respecting the population of only New South Wales, where the adult males amount to 60,500, while the adult females number only 33,700; the adult males numbering almost twice as many as the females. The proportion in the other colonies is probably about the same. The colonies are:

I. *New South Wales*, situated upon the eastern shore. Founded in 1787, as a penal settlement. Population, 187,000; sheep, 7,026,000; cattle, 1,360,000; horses, 111,200; exports, £1,990,900; imports, £1,670,300. Sydney, the capital, has 60,000 inhabitants.

II. *Victoria*, situated at the southeastern angle of the island. First settled in 1835; cut off from New South Wales and erected into a separate colony in 1841. Population, 78,000; sheep, 6,033,000; cattle, 346,500; horses, 16,743; exports, £1,041,796; imports, £744,295. The capital is Melbourne, having a population of 25,000. This has been by far the most flourishing of the Australian colonies; and the richest deposits of gold have also been discovered here.

III. *South Australia*, lying on the southern shore of the island, immediately west of Victoria. Founded in 1835. Population, 67,000;

sheep, 1,200,000 ; cattle, 100,000 ; horses, 6000 ; exports, £571,000, imports, £887,000. Adelaide, the capital, contains 14,000 inhabitants. This is less a pastoral colony than either of the others, the principal article of export being copper. It has suffered very severely from speculations in copper mines, and, on the whole, has not been successful. The discoveries of gold in the neighboring colony of Victoria, have likewise proved injurious to South Australia, drawing away a considerable share of its population. It is not known that any gold has been discovered in this colony.

In addition to these colonies, an attempt was made in 1829 to found the colony of Western Australia or Swan River, on the western shore. There are said to be some ten thousand inhabitants in this unfortunate district. The name of Northern Australia has been vaguely bestowed upon the whole central and northern parts of the island ; but no permanent settlements have as yet been formed there.

NATURAL HISTORY OF GOLD.

Long ago—so long that we have no numerals to express either the date or the duration of the period—the layers which compose the superficial shell of our earth were slowly deposited around a still older rocky nucleus. This was the period of these shell-fish, and lizards, and huge monsters whose fossilized remains are disinterred by geologists, deposited in museums, and labeled with names as long and uncouth as themselves. Generation after generation, species after species, of these animals lived and died, and were buried, and the rock deposited from the surrounding waters was formed around their remains. At length the inner core, which lay below all organized life, and whose structure at once suggests the idea that it was formed in fire, was thrust up, by some force, the present existence of which is hinted to as by volcanoes and earthquakes. *Through and among the aqueous rocks the fiery intruders made their way, overturning and displacing the quiet strata above, filling them with cracks and fissures, and in some cases giving them a semi-igneous character.* Into many of these fissures the molten rock found its way, forming when cooled veins and dykes running in every direction.

The most frequent of these intruding rocks was quartz, either alone, or in connection with other kindred rocks. It is almost exclusively in the quartz veins thus forced up among the more ancient species of the aqueous rocks, that gold is found ; not that it is always found there, but it is rarely found any where else. How the gold made its way there geologists no more know than thick-lipped and thick-headed King George knew how the apple got inside of the dumpling ; but there it is, sometimes in lumps and veins, sometimes in flakes and spangles, and sometimes scattered through the whole mass of quartz in grains so minute as to be invisible to the naked eye. In the course of ages this aqueous shell, with the intruding gold-bearing quartz, was again and again sunk beneath the sea, and elevated

above it. Thus every portion of the earth's surface has been exposed to the action of tides and currents and waves, similar to those which now waste away our sea-shores. The waters wore away and broke off portions of these rocks, pounded them into boulders and pebbles, crushed them into gravel and sand, ground them into mud and clay, and spread the fragments out in broad alluvial tracts, deposited them in narrow patches, or heaped them up in hollows and depressions. The various substances swept along by these currents would be gradually dropped, according to their size and specific gravity—the larger and heavier portions first reaching the bottom. If these currents acted upon gold-bearing quartz, the portions of precious metal, being some seven times heavier than its stony matrix, would be deposited sooner than fragments of quartz of similar size and shape. But larger fragments of stone and smaller ones of gold would be deposited together ; while the finer portions of the stone would be borne farther than any part of the metal. But though gold and quartz were deposited together, the agitation of the current would in the course of time sink the heavy metal to the bottom of the boulders and pebbles, till it rested upon a solid bottom of rock or clay ; and if the bottom were tolerably soft clay it would even become imbedded for a short distance in that. In case there were any cracks or crannies in this bottom, they would become filled with the metal, forming what miners call “pockets.” So too in case the bottom was crossed by a bar or obstruction of any kind, as was frequently the case, the gold as it was swept along would be arrested and accumulated upon the upper side of the bar. Wherever, in short, the current was in any way obstructed, the deposition would be more rapid. In all these cases the heavy gold would slowly but surely make its way through the lighter matter deposited with it, till it rested upon a solid bottom.

But though gold is usually found in the beds of rivers, we must not infer that it is our present rivers whose waters have broken down and swept away the stony matrix, liberated the gold, and sorted and sifted it for the digger. Our rivers have flowed but a few years, geologically speaking ; but they would naturally for the most part follow the channels worn through countless ages by the ante-diluvian and pre-Adamic currents. It sometimes happens that the ancient channel of a river has become filled up and obstructed, so that it has taken another course. If the old channel passed through a vein of auriferous quartz, the gold would be deposited in the old bed, and buried beneath the matter which choked it up. These deposits in ancient water-courses, now dry, are what are known as the “dry diggings,” while those in the bed of a running stream are the “wet diggings.”

The nature and composition of a gold-field result from the manner of its formation. The larger lumps of gold, which the current can carry but a short distance, are first deposited. In Australia these are called “nuggets,” and are usually



ROCKING THE CRADLE.

found near or upon the surface of the ground; for the lighter materials have been mainly swept further onward. These nuggets occur in masses from the weight of a few grains up to that of the "great lump," the largest ever discovered, which weighed more than a hundred pounds. Further down the stream are deposited the smaller flakes and grains of gold, together with boulders and pebbles; still further down are borne the fine dust and invisible particles. Nuggets are thus found sparingly, and only in the close vicinity of the original spot where they originated. As a general rule, the less rapid the current, the smaller the particles deposited, and the more evenly are they distributed.

Almost all the gold in circulation has been obtained by washing these alluvial sands. Nature has here done all the crushing and grinding, and a great portion of the washing and sifting:

and to complete the work, the gold-digger merely imitates on a small scale the processes which Nature has been carrying on for leagues and ages. These processes are too simple and too well-known by this time to demand more than a passing notice; and they are now adverted to merely to point out their analogy with those employed by Nature. The cradle—very similar to the nursery article of the same name—is but a contrivance to produce an artificial current of water; the cleets across its bottom answer to the bars and obstructions in the bed of the river, which catch the gold drifting down. The river, in fact, is but a gigantic cradle, or the cradle but a miniature river; while the washing-bowl is neither more nor less than an artificial "pocket," from which all but the gold has been swept away. So well has Nature performed these preliminary operations that, except in the rarest instances, gold-mining can never be come profitable until after the washings have been exhaust-

ed—which is not likely to happen in our day. For—to say nothing of the fact that the auriferous sands must be richer than the rock from which they are derived, because a greater proportion of



THE WASHING-BOWL.

the rock than of the gold has been washed away—the action of the rollers and stamping-mill pulverizes the gold as well as the quartz, and leaves it in

such a form that it can be separated only by complicated and expensive chemical processes, instead of the cheap and simple operation of washing.



GOLD-DIGGING IN AUSTRALIA

It was not from lack of abundant indications of their existence that the golden treasures of Australia remained so long unknown, and that the shepherds and stockmen and bush-rangers were ignorant of the wealth which lay beneath their feet. A quarter of a century ago a convict was found in possession of a "nugget" of gold, which he professed to have found in the neighborhood where gold has since been discovered. His story was disbelieved, and he was soundly flogged, on suspicion of having obtained the gold by robbery, and of having melted it down in order to destroy the evidence of its identity. At occasional intervals gold was offered for sale to the jewelers of Sydney; and one old "emancipist" named M'Gregor gained some notoriety as a gold-finder; though it was shrewdly suspected that the real source of his findings was the pockets of unwary travelers. The old clansman's prospecting, however, does not seem to have been over-successful, since at the outbreak of the gold-fever, he was confined in Sydney for debt. A party of speculative miners paid his debts on condition that he should give them the sole benefit of his gold-hunting experience. But it is ill bargaining with rogues: M'Gregor took the earliest opportunity of cutting loose from his benefactors, and picking up a companion more to his liking, made his way to his old haunts, and "lay by" on his own account.

Science also pointed to the probability of the existence of gold in Australia. Humboldt had

announced the *à priori* probability that mountains of the general geological character of those of the Australian Cordilleras, especially if running north and south, would be found to be auriferous. In 1841, and subsequently, Mr. Clarke, a colonial geologist, affirmed that gold "in considerable quantities" existed in certain Australian rocks. In 1844, and afterward, Sir Roderick Murchison, the eminent English geologist, expressed the same opinion, which he based upon the resemblance between the Australian Cordilleras and the Ural Mountains. In 1848, he wrote to Earl Gray, the Colonial Minister, urging measures to facilitate the search for gold. But that wise functionary shook his head, and declined interfering, on the ground that "the agitation of the discovery of the precious metals would prove injurious to an agricultural and wool-growing community."

In 1848 one Mr. Smith produced a piece of gold imbedded in quartz, which he stated that he had found, and offered to disclose the spot to Government for a reward of £800. But Sir Charles Fitzroy, the "sporting Governor," suspecting the lump to be a "plant" on the Douterswivel plan, and that its true origin was California, refused to give the reward in advance; but promised that if the disclosure should prove valuable, the discoverer should be liberally rewarded. But Mr. Smith would no more trust the Government than the Government would trust him. And thus he lost the chance of immortal-

izing himself as "the Mr. Smith" who discovered the gold mines of Australia

proposition of Government, and proceeded to the places which he designated, in company with the Government geologist. The first place where search was made was at Summerhill Creek, near the town of Bathurst, on the western side of the mountains, 150 miles from Sydney, the very district where old M'Gregor professed to have found his nuggets



EDWARD HARGRAVES.

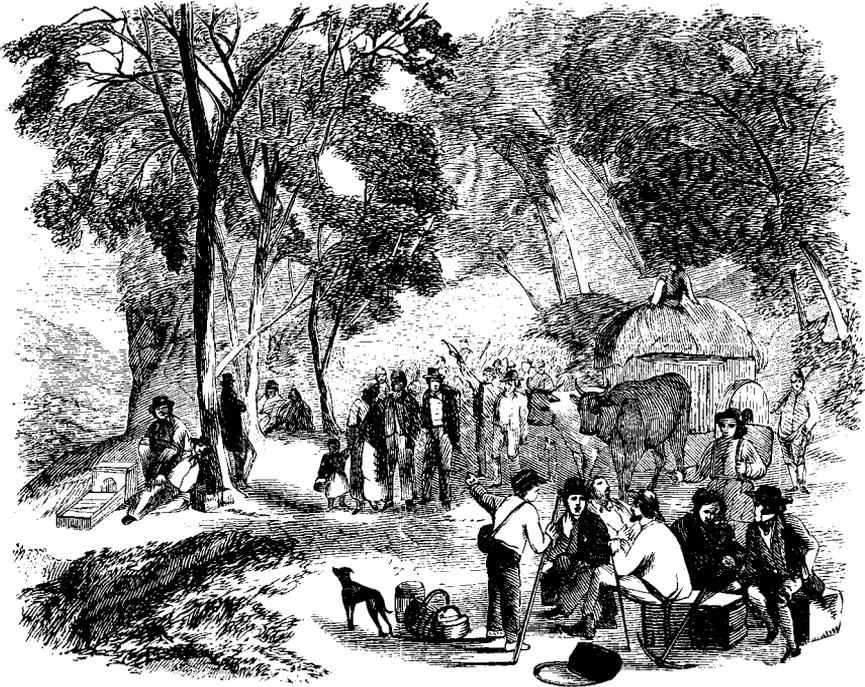
But the Hour and the Man were at hand. Among those persons whom the gold-fields of California had attracted from Sydney, was Edward Hargraves. Emigrants from the penal colony were not in the best odor in the new State; the severe code of Judge Lynch began to be applied to them, sometimes by way of precaution rather than of punishment, with very uncomfortable stringency; and hints which admitted of no misunderstanding were given that their presence could very well be dispensed with. Mr. Hargraves seems to have been an honest and honorable man, and we are not informed whether or no the suspicious place from whence he came had any thing to do with his want of success—for unsuccessful he was. He returned to Sydney with little gold, but with some valuable experience; and immediately began a series of explorations at home.

On the 3d of April, 1851, he made a communication to Government, stating that, as the result of two months' search, he had discovered valuable deposits of gold, which he offered to make public for a consideration. To this offer an answer was returned similar to that given to the communication of Mr. Smith, three years before. Mr. Hargraves, wiser than that gentleman, accepted the

Early in May the discovery began to be bruited abroad, and by the 19th of that month hundreds of persons were digging at Summerhill Creek, to which they gave the name of Ophir. Three days after this, the Government issued a proclamation claiming as the property of the Crown all gold found in its natural place of deposit, whether on public or private lands; forbidding all persons to dig or search for gold on Crown lands, without previously procuring a license; and settling the amount of the "Royalty" to be paid by those obtaining gold on their own lands.

By the first of June the current had set strongly toward the gold diggings. Sydney assumed a new aspect. Blue and red woolen shirts and California hats became the show-goods in the fashionable streets; from the stock of cradles displayed for sale, a stranger would gain an alarming impression as to the sudden increase of the infantile population of the colony. Waterproof tents, quicksilver for amalgamating gold soil, preserved provisions, spring-carts for the diggings, cradles and prospecting-pans, became the leading features of newspaper advertisements. The booksellers found their trade limited to "Digger's Hand-books" and "Gold-digger's Guides." Conversation took a golden turn: "Have you been to the diggings?" "Are you going?" "Have your servants gone yet?" were the standing questions. The sudden intrusion of gold, disturbed society as much as the obtrusion of the igneous gold-bearing quartz had long ago disturbed the quiet aqueous rocks. The man inured to toil, for a time at least, was the equal of any one. Tradesmen, mechanics, and servants, who a week before had stood cap in hand before their employers and masters, now "flashed their independence" in their faces. Every body who could go to the mines prepared to do so. The rugged defiles of the Blue Mountains were crowded with drays and ox-carts, piled with stores and mining utensils, and escorted by long lines of travelers on horseback or a-foot, all in search of the new Ophir.

It was soon discovered that gold-mining was no child's play. The work was of the hardest a man can perform, the fare of the roughest, and



GOING TO THE DIGGINGS

the company with whom the miner found himself none of the most select. To dwell in tents was hardly as poetic as it had seemed when contemplated at a distance. Nuggets were like "angels' visits, few and far between." Rocking the cradle was quite a different thing from the

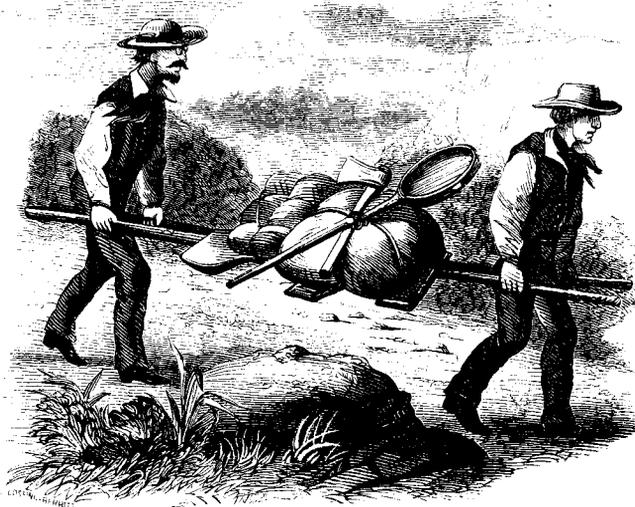


DINNER AT THE DIGGINGS.

same interesting performance at home. To breakfast at daybreak in a tent or gynyah crowded with a mass of unwashed human beings in calico shirts, then work till mid-day in the water, snatch at noon a hasty meal of mutton, damper, and Bush tea, without even stopping for ablution, and back to the mines till dark, was something that many had not bargained for. Besides, fortunes were not to be made in a day. Of the thousands at the mines, the Government Commissioner reported that about two-fifths were making five dollars a day; about the same proportion gained from fifty cents to a dollar and a half; and the remainder earned nothing. By the first of July—the Australian mid-winter—a reaction had taken place. The weather grew cold and stormy; the river was flooded, so that no work could be carried on at the “wet-diggings,” and the miners were reduced to the alternative of lying idle, or going prospecting in

its side were two fragments, each of about half the weight, which had apparently originally formed part of it. Like the man who drew an elephant in a lottery, the doctor was at a loss how to dispose of his prize. At last he concluded to break it up, put it in a pair of saddle-bags, and convey it home on horseback, a ride of many hours. As he was compelled to halt at some human habitation for refreshment, he would lift the saddle-bags, with forced indifference, and fling them carelessly over a rail-fence. —“It seems heavy!” some suspicious-looking bystander—perhaps stockman, perhaps bush-ranger—would remark, interrogatively. “Oh yes,” the doctor would answer, endeavoring to allay suspicion by an apparent jest, “full of gold, of course!” When the gigantic nuggets came to be weighed, they were found to contain a little more than a hundred pounds of pure gold, worth, as metal, more than twenty thousand

dollars. But now the thought flashed upon the doctor that, had it remained unbroken, it would have been worth much more as a specimen; what a fortune might have been made by exhibiting it; and the poor practitioner began to look upon himself, and to be looked on by his neighbors, not as the lucky man who had made twenty thousand dollars by a single day's ride, but as the unfortunate individual, who had lost ten times as much by a few blows of a hatchet. But the misfortunes of the lump did not end here. The merchant who bought it had taken his passage with it from Bathurst to Sydney, when he



GOING PROSPECTING.

search of “dry-diggings,” carrying their implements and stores as best they might. Many sold their implements and stores for a trifle, and made their way homeward, pursued by the jeers of the passers-by, and met every where by the taunting question, “Have you sold your cradle?”

Just at this time was found the famous “Hundred-pound Lump,” whose history would furnish materials for a romance. A native in the service of a certain Dr. Kerr, was lounging along, hatchet in hand through a sheep-run where he had walked a hundred times before. His eyes caught something yellow upon the surface of a block of quartz; and a blow with his hatchet revealed a mass of gold. He hastened back to his master, who took horse and rode to the spot. The largest block weighed 75 pounds, and by

was stopped by an officer of Government, who claimed the prize as the property of the Crown—the doctor had not taken out a license to search for gold. The astounded merchant refused to stand and deliver, but it was of no avail; the officer took possession of the prize. Arriving at Sydney it was restored to the poor merchant on condition of his paying a “Royalty” of ten per cent., and an additional percentage for its safe conduct by Government from Bathurst. To avoid all further chance of accidents, it was shipped by its harassed owner for England on the very day of its arrival in Sydney, with strict orders that it should be consigned to the melting-pot immediately on its arrival in England; in order that its identity might be destroyed. And so “*Hic hat de Mahr' ein Ende*,

das ist der Nibelungen Lied"—Here ends the story of the Australian Nibelungen Treasure.

The discoveries of gold in New South Wales were soon thrown into the shade by still more astounding discoveries in the Colony of Victoria, made about six weeks later. We have before us a print of the curious volcanic hill of Buninyong some fifty miles from Melbourne, as it appeared in 1850. A fine sweep of pastoral landscape, shaded here and there by a solitary gum-tree occupies the foreground. Over this a flock of sheep are wandering under the care of a solitary shepherd—sheep and shepherd alike unconscious that they were walking over a golden pavement. In the background the volcanic hill of Buninyong rears its conical head in the distance. Here were the famous diggings of Ballarat—famous for a few weeks, that is, till they were eclipsed by the still more famous ones of Mount Alexander. The deposits here were of richness unexampled. The Governor of the colony once saw eight pounds' weight—two thousand dollars' worth—washed from a couple of pans-full of clay. In a fortnight after the discovery of the Ballarat diggings Melbourne was deserted. The mechanic left his work-bench, the carman his team, the servant his knives and forks, for the diggings. The tradesmen and merchants were forced to follow—for what was the use of their staying when their customers were gone? What an overturn there was! How gold levels distinctions! A flannel shirt, California hat, and unshorn chin became emblems of nobility, and took the front rank every where. A sad case was it for poor helpless mortals who had been accustomed to be waited upon. Governor and Bishop presented a sorry spectacle—the former must groom his own horse, and the latter must black his own shoes. The gouty Judge could get to court only by being wheeled by his own sons—let us hope that these modern Biton and Cleobis will not fail to get their reward. "My good fellow," said a spruce new-comer to a rough looking fellow, "carry this bag, and you shall have a shilling." The other coolly transferred a quid of tobacco from one cheek to the other, as he placed a cow-hide-shod foot on a convenient stone, with the words, "Here my fine lad, tie my shoe and here's a half crown for you." And so on *ad infinitum*. Twenty thousand—thirty thousand—forty thousand diggers were vibrating from Ballarat to Mount Alexander, from Mount Alexander to Bendigo Creek, from Bendigo Creek to Fryar's Creek. All had heard of extraordinary yields—of gold by the pound, of nuggets by the quart, but when the first excitement was over it was seen that few had met with any such luck. One by one the disappointed diggers slunk back to their former posts. The Governor's horse rejoiced in the care of his old groom. The Bishop grew fat and rosy in the performance of his spiritual functions: his ancient groom blacked his shoes once more—for a reasonable advance on his old wages. The dutiful sons of the Judge were released from the task of wheeling that gouty minister of the

law; and at the latest dates society had fallen back much into its ancient routine.

Yet not wholly. Taking one with another, fifty thousand diggers were earning each at the rate of a thousand dollars a year; mechanics commanded two or three dollars a day; and shepherds who were leaving the mines, returned to their pastoral pursuits, their Jews-harps and accordeons, at a salary of one hundred and fifty or two hundred dollars, besides unlimited rations of mutton and damper. One year's experiment of the Australian gold mines has added to the stock of precious metals the amount of twenty millions of dollars; while for the later portions of that time, which may be assumed to present a fair average of the yield for a year to come, the production has been at the rate of fifty millions of dollars a year. Divide this among fifty thousand miners, and make allowance for the increased expense and decreased comfort of living at the mines, and it will present the fair average of what one miner with another may hope to gain. The shrewd and forecasting Yankees, of whom some five thousand have gone there, will exceed the average, while some other classes of emigrants will fall as much below it.

NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE.

BY JOHN S. C. ABBOTT.

THE IMPERIAL THRONE.

THE conspiracy of the French princes for the assassination of Napoleon, roused republican France to increased efforts to consolidate the new government. The execution of the Duke d'Enghien, a prince of the blood-royal, exasperated the feudal monarchs of Europe, and inspired them with additional hostility against the supremacy of the people. The royalists considered Napoleon, with his almost superhuman energy, as the only obstacle to their projects. They were ready, at every hazard, to strike him down. The people of France, profoundly admiring the wisdom and efficiency of his government, were grateful for the harmony which he had restored to the republic, and for the abounding prosperity with which, by his labors, it had been crowned. Immediately, in the legislative bodies, in the streets of Paris, through all the principal towns in the departments, and in the camps distributed along the coasts, all tongues were busy in pleading that the crown should be placed upon that brow, on whose safety reposed the destinies of France. It was declared that experience had abundantly proved that republicanism was not adapted to the genius of the French people; that the object of the revolution was accomplished, in reforming abuses, in abolishing the old feudal system, and in limiting the royal authority; and that now the dignity and the safety of France required that Napoleon should be invested with regal power, that he might thus be on a level with surrounding monarchs.