Addendum.

In sending you this printed copy of my three omitted Papers, (which you will see are so printed as to correspond with the "Transactions N. Z. Institute," and therefore could be bound up with them,) I would inform you, that I have by me 2 other Papers of mine, read here before our Members in 1878,—giving an account of my early explorations on the Ruahine mountain range and my crossing it, in 1845, etc., with especial reference to its Botany. Those Papers were also omitted at that time by the Board at Wellington; although they did offer to publish an abstract of them in the "Transactions."

If you should be pleased with the 3 Papers now printed, and would like to subscribe (say, 3/., or 4/. at most,—those 2 Papers being larger,) for the printing of those 2 Papers on the Ruahine, I will thank you to let me know early: for, if a sufficient number of copies should be subscribed for by the Members of our Society to save me from heavy loss, I will also get those 2 Papers printed,—as a memorial of early times in Hawke's Bay.

WILLIAM COLENSO.

October 27th, 1883.

Three Literary Papers
Read Before the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute, During the Session of 1882:—
I. AND II.—ON NOMENCLATURE.
III.—ON "MACAULAY'S NEW ZEALANDER."
By W. Colenso, F.L.S.,
Member and Honorary Secretary of the Institute.
(Published with the Approval of the Council.)
"So go forth to the world, to the good report and the evil!
Go, little book! thy tale, is it not evil and good?
Go, and if strangers revile, pass quietly by without answer.
—For it is beautiful only to do the thing we are meant for."
"DA SAPIENTI OCCASIONEM ET ADDETUR EI SAPIENTIA."
Ancient Oracle.
Printed at the "Daily Telegraph" Office New Zealand Tennyson Street, Napier. 1883

Paper I.

On Nomenclature.

By W. Colenso, F.L.S.
[Read before the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute, 10th July, 1883.]

—"Never change barbarous names,
For there are names in every nation given from God,
Having unspeakable efficacy."

ZOROAST., Chald. Oracles.

This subject of Nomenclature in its entirety is a broad one possessing many branches, some of them differing widely from others. I have long been desirous of offering a few remarks upon this subject, hoping (or, may I not say, believing?) that such may prove to be of service in time to come.

I shall divide my Paper into two principal heads; viz., the first part, on matters appertaining to the Maori tongue; the second, on certain Colonial alterations and innovations made in the English and other allied languages.
ON MATTERS RELATING TO THE MAORI TONGUE.

1. Of Errors on the part of Foreigners and Colonists, arising from their ignorance of the Maori language; especially of Maori proper names for persons, places, and things.—

That the Maori people had very many highly significant names for things in general, is pretty well known to those who are well acquainted with their language; although, on account of their plainness, some could only be translated into English by an euphemism. Just so it always was with their names for persons and for places. It is not, however, with reference to the meaning, the utility, or the beauty of such Maori names in their estimation, that I am now about to write,—but of the errors of Europeans respecting them; and these I purpose showing in a few instances (some highly ridiculous):—1. In the Orthography:—2. in the Meaning of the words. These two subjects, though distinct enough in English, go always together in the Maori language; because (as I have shown before in a former Paper)


) the two languages differ so widely in their construction. Twenty, or more, orthographical errors may occur in the columns of an English Daily Newspaper, without any one becoming or causing a serious error,—that is, making an entire change in the meaning of the word, the sentence, or the subject; or, even causing the word or words so spelt erroneously to mean anything else, or to be wholly misunderstood; but such is not the case in Maori,—here every orthographical error is more or less of a serious one; and as it is in the writing, so it is in the pronunciation, and, consequently, in the meaning and etymology.

For the present, however, I shall consider these separately: and, first, the erroneous orthography.

This commenced early, in Cook's time, as indeed might have been expected, seeing the Maoris had then no written language; the only marvel with me has ever been, that Cook and his party on the whole managed so well as they did, which must mainly be attributed to their having the Tahitian native Tupaea with them as a quasi Interpreter.

In the large 4to. original edition of Cook's Voyages, Capt. Cook has a few racy and correct remarks on the N. Z. language, highly applicable here; he says,—" It is the genius of the language to put some article before a noun, as we do the or a; the articles used here were generally he or ko: it is also common here to add the word öeia after another word, as an iteration, especially if it is an answer to a question; as we say, yes indeed; to be sure; really; certainly: this sometimes led our gentlemen into the formation of words of an enormous length, judging by the ear only, without being able to refer each sound to its signification. An example will make this perfectly understood:—In the Bay of Islands there is a remarkable one, called by the natives Matuaro. One of our gentlemen having asked a native the name of it, he answered, with the particle, Komatuaro; the gentleman hearing the sound imperfectly, repeated his question, and the Indian repeating his answer, added, #eia, which made the word Komatuaroöeia; and thus it happened that in the log book I found Matuaro transformed into Cumcttiwaroeia: and the same transformation, by the same means, might happen to an English word.

Suppose a native of New Zealand at Hackney Church, to enquire "What Village is this?" the answer might be, "it is Hackney": suppose the question to be repeated with an air of doubt and uncertainty, the answer might be, "it is Hackney indeed," and the New Zealander, if he had the use of letters, would probably record, for the information of his countrymen, that during his residence among us he had visited a village called "Ityshakueindeede."—Voyages, Vol. III., p. 476.

Unfortunately, however, these errors still continue! notwithstanding their settled, plain, written and printed tongue. I will give a few instances taken from the earliest and latest.

Although Capt. Cook was so very unfortunate in his first interviews with the Maoris at Poverty Bay, still he managed to obtain pretty correctly the names of two places there, which he has laid down in his chart,—Taomeroa (Te Oneroa=the long sandy beach), and Tettuamotu (Te Tua Motu—the little island off the N. head). A few days after, in anchoring and watering a little further to the N.,—first at Tegadoo (Te Karu, the headland at Anaura off which his ship anchored "sheltered by the little island "Parkinson's Island," as laid down in the Original Map of the Voyage.

there,") and subsequently at Tolaga Bay,—he seemed to have misapprehended altogether the name of this latter place. How he managed to get hold of, or to misconstrue that word of Tolaga,—has ever been to me a mystery,—and that too, after many enquiries made early on the spot. The nearest and most reasonable approach thereto (seeing Tolaga is given as its Maori name) is Tuaraki=the N.W. wind: (f and g having been often confounded with r and k by Cook;) which wind, the old Maoris said, was blowing strongly at the time of his
Maori word, Ongaonga is pertinaciously stuck to!! Why on earth those settlers, and others, should so choose to write that common two place, though spelled correctly, into note so it had gone on for ages in succession! See a very good Maori letter on this subject translated by should also be borne in mind, that in very many instances the ancestors of the tribe now dwelling in, or owning respecting the derivation of this, and of many other similar and peculiar proper names, and have very frequently words thus compounded, do not yield to my mind a correct Maori meaning, and the old intelligent Maoris (to other known similar instances. In Maori, Kurt pronunciation of an obsolete or little-used word through non-usage during a long lapse of years,—and there are Kuripa; adjective, pango pools among the mountains; which meaning would be highly suitable there for that water, with the Maori Kuripo and universal Polynesian language!) old (like several other peculiarity; as it did not convey to my mind any thought possessing a purely Maori derivation, (although the waded this river at this wild fording-place in 1847, (35 years ago!) and obtained its name I was struck with its name, as it is now transformed by Europeans is pretty nearly nonsense! whereas its proper name of Tahoraiti is A similar error to this last noticed appears likely to be perpetuated in the name of the ford (and newly-erected bridge) across the Ngaruroro river, at a wild spot high up between the two mountain ranges—Te Kaweka and Ruahine. The old and peculiar Maori name of this ford is Kuripapango; which (after running a series of orthographical changes among the settlers, as usual,) has settled down to Kimpapanga. Here, again, you will observe, the terminal vowel is wrong, and this error spoils both the word and its meaning. When I first waded this river at this wild fording-place in 1847, (35 years ago!) and obtained its name I was struck with its peculiarity; as it did not convey to my mind any thought possessing a purely Maori derivation, (although the two words of which it is composed are pure Maori words,)—at all events, I strove hard and for a long time to find out its original meaning, but down to this day I am not satisfied about it. And, I may further say, that one reason is, the name seems to me to be closely allied to a suitable Sandwich Island (Hawaiian) word, or phrase, (like several other old and almost obsolete Maori words,—all tending to show the ancient oneness of this great and universal Polynesian language!) Kuripo,—is a pure Sandwich Island word, meaning, deep dark water, as in pools among the mountains; which meaning would be highly suitable there for that water, with the Maori adjective, pango=black, or blackish, added, to intensify it. Of course, I know, that instead of Kimpo (in the present name) it is Kuripa; that, however, is a slight alteration, which might have occured in the rare pronunciation of an obsolete or little-used word through non-usage during a long lapse of years,—and there are other known similar instances. In Maori, Kurt is a dog, and papango is the little black duck, or teal; these two words thus compounded, do not yield to my mind a correct Maori meaning, and the old intelligent Maoris (to whom I have formerly spoken about it,) have always laughed at it as being far-fetched and incongruous.

I may here mention in a note, that I have often enquired in years gone by of aged priests and chiefs respecting the derivation of this, and of many other similar and peculiar proper names, and have very frequently received the answer,—" It was given by the men of the olden time, and the reason is to us unknown." Here it should also be borne in mind, that in very many instances the ancestors of the tribe now dwelling in, or owning those places, were not those who had originally named them; they had been early killed and exterminated! and so it had gone on for ages in succession! See a very good Maori letter on this subject translated by me.—"Trans. N.Z. Inst.," Vol. XII., p. 97, note, Kuripango—black dog, would have been a better Maori term, but still not satisfactory.

Another curious error (not, however, the first of its kind,) is made in the dividing of the Maori name of the place, though spelled correctly, into two words, each word beginning with a capital letter!—Onga, Onga: and it is pertinaciously stuck to!! Why on earth those settlers, and others, should so choose to write that common Maori word, Ongaonga (=Nettle) I cannot conceive. Is it because of its reduplication? Then, analogically, they
should so write the English words,—mur mur, tar tar, pa pa, do do, &c.,—beginning each fragment also with a capital letter!

Some of the notorious old errors in the Maori names of places around us, I regret to say, still continue, (though many, happily, have been corrected,) as, for instance, the name of the rising township of Kaikoura, erroneously spelled Kaikora (sometimes Kikora), here the difference in the European pronunciation of these two words is not so great to the untrained ear, but the difference in the two Maori words is extreme (as well as in the Maori and true pronunciation of them); besides the commonly used one is simply ridiculous and unmeaning. The old proper name, Kaikoura=(to) eat fresh-water prawns, or, (an) eater of fresh-water prawns,—arose from the fact of that crustaceous shellfish (koura) being formerly found in the little stream there, where the Maoris used to go and catch them for food; whereas Kaikora literally means, to cat sparks of fire!—if indeed it can be said to mean anything at all in Maori.

Another place still nearer Napier,—well-known in its modern history as being notorious in bloodshed and in Law Courts!—is Omarunui, commonly called Omoranui: the first and proper Maori name meaning,—the residence (or cultivation) in old times of a Chief named Marunui=Great Slayer (a common and fitting name for a Maori chief); whereas the second and incorrect word means,—the residence &c. of a chief named Great Cultivation! which, according to Maori customs, was degrading and impossible, and, as in the former case of Kaikora, both wrong and ridiculous.—

Another place not far from the foregoing and nearer Napier, (and close to the present rising township of Taradale,) was called by the Maoris Taipo; this the settlers easily miscalled Taepo,—and then mark the consequence! Taipo, means the night tide, (or, no doubt in this case, from onomatopœia,==the night-sounding surf; as there, although 4 miles from the outer sea-beach, the surf resounds loudly from its curvilinear range of hills on a still night, as I have often heard it,) hence Taipo was, again, a highly suitable natural name. But Taepo, means to visit, or come, by night,—a night visitant,—a spectral thing soon in dreams,—a fancied and feared thing, or hobgoblin, of the night or darkness; and this the settlers generally have construed to mean the Devil!—and, of course, their own orthodox one!!

See a similar European error re "Hades" and Hell, exposed, in "Transactions N.Z. Institute," Vol. XII., p. 122., and note there.—As some who may read this paper may not have access to Vol. XII. "Transactions," I give here the European error alluded to above, in an extract from the said note (omitting, however, from its length the very interesting Maori legend). "A few years ago the Superintendent of the late Auckland Province (Mr. J. Williamson) sought to have an interview with a Maori chief of note on political matters; this, however, the chief would not grant, ending with saying,—'you and I shall never meet until we meet in the reinga." This, of course, was made much of. The dreadful bitterness of expression,—"never until we meet in hell"!—was intensified and dwelt upon shudderingly with much Christian feeling, but all through ignorance on the part of the Christian Europeans. The New Zealander had no such thoughts, and only made use of an old Maori saying; the English having chosen this word (reinga) as the equivalent for hell; a meaning, however, which it does not possess."

Worse still are the many errors concerning the names of two well-known places near Napier; both possessing rather long Maori names, which, while quite easy and mellifluous to the Maoris, and to those few Europeans who well-know their language, are a real pons Asinorum to the many! I could not take on me to repeat or recount the several broken and twisted patois names I have heard given to Kohinurakau and to its adjoining high hill Kahuraanake. Perhaps I had better give pretty fully the meaning of those two names (of places celebrated in the olden time), as such is not only interesting, but will again serve to show how correctly the ancient Maoris often named their localities. 1. Kohinurakau: when I first knew this place it was a delightful spot; a small grove of fine trees (some being pines), a perennial gushing streamlet of delightful water, and very fertile soil,—all in a small open dell or natural terrace near the summit of a very high hill (one of a long range), commanding an extensive view; where, for several years, the Maoris had their cultivations and a small village: Kohinurakau=choice-fat-of-the-woods,—including Maori game,—birds and delicious wood-rats, fruits, and pure water.

With the old Maoris, the fat, or oil, of lands, forests, &c., meant their choicest and plentiful fruits and productions; just as with the ancient Hebrews,—"fat of the land," "fat of fruits," &c.,—Gen, 45, 18; 49. 20. Num. 18. 12. 29. Ps. 81. 1; etc.

—2. Kahuraanake: the name given to this high hill is a most expressive and very peculiar term, being really not a noun, but a sentence including a verb, and meaning.—(It-is)—only-by-it-revealed, shown or made known; or, The only, or pre-eminent, revealer. There are, at least two derivations of this name:—1. The peculiar peaked and isolated broken summits of this big and lofty hill are seen from the N. shore of Hawke's Bay, 60-70 miles distant, as well as from all the intervening country; and towards it the eye of the old Maoris was always directed in steering their canoes in a Southerly direction across the Bay, or in travelling thitherwards from the N.—2. Whenever the summits wore a hood of mist or cloud, it was an unfailing sign of rain and of bad weather
coming on; and so, with the old Maoris, It was the great revealer, or indicator, of the place to which they were
going; and also of the coming weather. A short time ago I received a letter from an old and respectable settler,
in which the name of Kohinurakau was written "Queen Arata"! which for some time, there being no clue in the
letter to its true meaning, puzzled me pretty considerably.

For a long time, and until lately, our Newspapers constantly erred in confusing the names of two important
seaports here on the E. Coast, viz. Turangā (Poverty Bay), and Tauranga (Bay of Plenty); also, in the names of
Waikari (the river between Napier and Mohaka), and Waikare (the name of the lake in the interior of the
County of Wairoa),—and this latter still continues! Some even go so far as to laugh at the difference! But the
etymological meanings of those two names of waters are widely distinct, and, severally, are again very suitable;
Waikari=water running through a deep cut, narrow cliffs, or channel (which that river does); and
Waikare—rough, agitated, or surging water (which that open exposed sheet of water, high up among the
mountains, often is).

A similar error on the part of the Newspapers, and the Settlers generally, was made in the name of the late
principal Maori Chief of these parts,—Te Ha-puhan=the Codfish, (par excellence!) and its common name
throughout New Zealand; this name was by them lowered to Hapuka,—a most unmeaning word in
Maori,—with the further depreciation through the omission of the definite article,—Te. Of course, from the
time of his being so called, here, on this Coast, another name was always used for that fish, viz.

Just so it is, again, respecting a place of anchorage and shelter from southerly gales on the N. side of Table
Cape, its Maori name being Whangawehi=Fearing, or Apprehensive, Bay, or stopping-place, (a very good and
suitable name, indicating its being exposed and open); this, the Colonists, and the Government too, have altered
to Whanganhei! a word that has no good meaning whatever in Maori.

Here I may also briefly notice two modern Maori names of lately settled places near us, and that because of
their ambiguity as those names are now printed and set up; viz. "Tomoana," and "Awatoto." By the Maoris of
these parts, who well know how to pronounce those two names, the orthography though incorrect would be
understood; but any Maori coining from a distance, and not having heard the true pronunciation intended, yet
not shown, would be almost sure to pronounce them wrongly,—and so, perhaps, be laughed at; at all events, if
not set right, he could not know their true Maori pronunciation and therefore their meaning; and this arises from
their not being spelled as a Maori understanding their intended meaning would spell them. Sometimes the
vowels in a Maori word are long, and sometimes short, (as in Latin,) and if such are not distinguished in the
writing, an error in reading is almost sure to be made,—unless, as I said before, the meaning is previously
known to the reader. Thus, Tomoana should be Toomoana; and Awatoto should be Anatootoo; for the meaning of
the word Tomoana (as it is now printed and painted up), is, To enter a cave; whereas, Toomoana means To
be dragged or drawn from the sea; the true and intended meaning here.

As this new township has been named after the present resident Chief and Maori Member in the House of
Representatives—Henare (Henry) Toomoana, and as his eldest brother, lately deceased, Karaitaina (Christian)
Takamaona, was the Maori Member before him, and as both their compound surnames terminate with
moana—Ocean; it might well to give in a note the origin of those names, or the cause of their being conferred
on those two (uterine) brothers; for, like in many other instances, those surnames were not those of the family,
nor their own earliest names.—

Some 50 years back, one of the then principal and powerful Chiefs of this place, Tiakitai, (always miscalled
by the early foreigners "Jacky Ty") went on board of a ship in this Bay; and, the weather changing, he was
earned off in her to Port Jackson and other places; he returned however safely to his home and tribe. Hence the
name of Takamaona=to change, to roam, to go about from place to place by sea, was bestowed on this then
young Chief and relative, in commemoration of that event. Toomoana, was also conferred as a name on the
younger brother, on account of an insult or threat, spoken in the old days of feuds and bloody fightings, (and
but a very short time before that I came here to reside,) in which the speaker threatened to drag up their canoe
with its contents from the sea, and, of course, to seize it, &c. Hence, to keep the insult (which was a gross one)
in remembrance among the sub-tribe, in order to its Afterwards being fully avenged, this name of
Toomoana=Dragged from the sea, was given to the boy. Such changes were common, and cause great trouble
in unravelling their history, legends, &c. (See "Essay on the Maori Races," Transactions N.Z. Inst., Vol. I., §
28 (2); and, Vol. XIV., p. 15, notes.)

In the last edition of the Maori Bible this has been in a measure obviated, by using both long and short
marks over the vowels where required; but this is more for the benefit of the English reader. I have never
known a Maori so to write, but, on the contrary always to use the two vowels together to make the necessary
long sound, which is also done by the other Polynesians. And here I may also remark, that the syllable too (in
the Maori name, and then to give to his own thought his own meaning! "Taourakira Head" (the W. head of Palliser Bay), for the old name full of meaning of Turakrae=Windly Head, (lit. Forcibly-throwing-down-point)—the patois Petoni (near Wellington), for Pitoone=end of the sandy beach,—another suitable and highly significant name:—Wanyanui for Whanganui, &c., &c. In the Middle Island it is still worse! An appropriate well-timed modern example thence, we have at hand in the name of the fine new steamer from Dunedin, which arrived here in our roadstead only yester-day; her patois name (it appears) is Maniapori, (a most incongruous unmeaning compound name or term in Maori, which has been disputed over, and further altered in the Newspapers of the day, to Manipori, Manapori, Manapouri, &c.,) whereas the same—being the name of a large S.E. lake of the South Island, situated far inland among the mountains,—is Mananapore.

It is worthy of remark, that this ancient term, now but very rarely used, was one of those expressive ones spoken by Paikea, when swimming towards land, struggling far off in the Ocean. (Transactions N.Z. Institute, Vol. XIV., p. 20, v. 1.)

=anxious, or apprehensive, heart. No doubt another proof of a highly suitable name once given to that sheet of water, expressive of the feelings of those who might have had to cross it in their small and frail fresh-water canoes, or rafts. Surely if it is deemed right to keep up the ancient Maori name of any place or thing, such should be spelled correctly according to the grammatical rules and construction of the Maori language? Such would prove of no small service hereafter in philological pursuits. For, as I have said before,—"Language adheres to the soil, when the lips which spoke it are resolved into dust. Mountains repeat, and rivers murmur, the voices of nations denationalized or extirpated in their own land."

Essay "On the Maori Races," §51, par. 5; Transactions N.Z. Institute, Vol. I.

But, in order to this being done, care must be taken to transmit the same truly, whether by oral tradition or in writing. Strange thoughts arise at times within me, when I contemplate, oil the one hand, the uncivilised unlettered Maori carefully handing down the names of places and things obtained from his forefathers from time immemorial, without error or change; and, on the other hand, the civilised lettered European, who, while apparently desirous of retaining the same names, neither speaks nor writes them correctly, and, worse still, does not care about doing so! The great Provincial District of Otago still adheres to its erroneously spelled Maori (sic) name; (some, however, here among us, knowing that it is not Maori, might think it derived from the Gaelic!) That is still further outdone by their keeping to the horrid ungrammatical term of "Maori Kaik!" for Kaainga maori. And worst of all, those errors (with many more of a like kind) are taught to our children in the Colonial Schools throughout the land.

A few years back when I held the office of Government Inspector of Schools for this Provincial District, I was frequently sorely puzzled in my School visitations, owing to the erroneous orthography in many places in the Maps and School Geography of New Zealand. Very many Maori names of places I knew to be wrong, and others of places unknown to me I supposed to be so, as they were not given in true Maori, (of course I am referring to the edition of 1871; there may, however, have been subsequent editions with these errors altered.) And this was the more to be regretted, for the outlines and execution of the Maps were very clear and correct; and very much of the information given, (physical, descriptive, and historical—modern,) was of a superior and useful character.

And as I have here just touched upon the Colonial School-Books (Geography of N.Z.) and their Maps in use in our Schools, one other great and glaring error contained therein I feel bound to notice more particularly, and that is the Maori name of the Southern Island. I do this the more especially as its true and proper name was early given correctly by Cook himself. Its old name is Te Wai Pounamu, or Te Moana Pounamu; meaning,—the water in which the Greenstone dwelt. For with them, the Greenstone (their greatest valuable) was a living being, and dwelt in the waters of the S. Island, whence it was obtained by the N. Maoris (through barter) at great expense and trouble, and believed to be only caught at certain seasons, and then only by the powerful use of many prayers, &c.

The old legends respecting it are very interesting, of which more anon.

In our School Books, however, all this is set aside; and we are plainly and unpoetically told, that the S. Island is called in Maori,—"Te Wahi Pounamu, or the place of the Greenstone."

New Zealand Geography, page 3.

This name, however, is not of Maori origin; it is another attempt on the part of the Colonist to correct the Maori name, and then to give to his own thought his own meaning! (supra,—Taipo, &c.)

Some of the errors in Maori nomenclature made by the early Naturalists and Botanists in this Country are
highly amusing if not interesting; the more so because not unfrequently they also give their own safe (sic) deductions therefrom! First, making the mistake themselves in the orthography, &c., and then (secondly and consequently,) giving an erroneous meaning:—A few of them I will here briefly notice,—

The French Naturalist Lesson, (who accompanied Adm. D'Urville in 1826-1829,) gives the Maori names of several plants, a few of them are quite correct; of some, however, it is impossible to know what was originally said by the Maoris to him, or intended by the writer; one, in particular, has often made me to smile,—it is the little seaside plant *Spergularia marina*, whose Maori name, Lesson says, is "*Notenoho*"


"This, however is not the name of a plant, but a pure Maori sentence, (given, no doubt in answer to a question,) meaning,—From the sitting or resting-place; *i.e.* (gathered by you) from the spot (where you were) resting, or sitting.

Dr. Dieffenbach, writing of our N. Z. Birds, says,—"the Cormorants have something solemm in their aspect, and are called by the New Zealanders *Kaumau* or the Preacher;" (!)


and, again, in his "Vocabulary," appended, (not, however, wholly of his own collecting!) he has, "*Kaumau*, a Shag; preaching." This arises, (1) from his mistake in the orthography and pronunciation of two words, here by him confounded, which widely differ; *Kanau*, being the common name for the Shag; and *Kauwhau*, to address an assembly, speak formally and lengthily, as the old Maori orators and chiefs; hence, to preach (*moderno*). One might as well say, that the two English words, *Cat*, and *Cant*, were alike, in sound and meaning! (2) but this notion (like very many others in Dieffenbach's work) was not original with him; he had got it from Polack's book on New Zealand, published a few years before; who of course, characteristically adds thereto, and the Doctor, having once got hold of the ludicrous idea, (and not heartily liking the Mission-body,) evolved, German-like! the added "solemminess of the Shag's aspect," from the depths of his own mind!

Dieffenbach also, (*passim,*), delights in reduplicating common names of birds, &c.,—*e.g.* the *Kiwi* (*Apteryx* sps.,) is with him *Kiwi Kiwi*; the *Ruric* (*owl*), is *Rurururu*; the *Weka* (*wood-hen*), is *Wekaweka*; the *Paraoa* (*sperm whale*), is *Paraparaua*, &c., &c. Errors of this kind however were very common with most early foreign visitors, as I myself have often heard them used. The worst was, that the younger Maoris (always apt imitators, especially in the olden time,) not unfrequently copied from their visitors, especially if such were of some note, and hence those errors became perpetuated.

In the List of Maori names of Plants appended to Sir J. D. Hooker's "Hand-Book N. Z. Flora," there are several errors; some, no doubt, arising from the writers jotting down the Maori name they had just heard, according to their own foreign notion of writing it,—forgetting, that no Maori name or word, ever ends with a consonant.

I have often been struck some 40 years ago with the close phonetic rendering of many Maori names of Birds, Fishes, &c., by the two Forster's (father and son) who accompanied Cook on his second Voyage to N. Zealand, and with the large amount of patient toil they must have experienced in taking them down; albeit their orthography, at first sight, a-bounding in harsh double consonants, looks very barbarous, and is anything but tempting: also, with those of Lesson (already mentioned) and other Naturalists belonging to the French Discovery Expeditions of 50-60 years ago. Of course their orthography varies much from the far simpler one adopted in rendering the Maori tongue into writing; still it is such that I could have beneficially used in my early enquiries among the Maoris, which is more than can be said of many (so-called) Maori names more recently written, above referred to. A few of those old Maori names of Birds I will give here from Forster, as a curiosity. It will be seen that he, in many instances, adds the indefinite article (*he=a*) to the name of the Bird, and uses *g* and *gh*, hard for *k*.

I will select one, *Toumatou*, because its pseudo- Maori name has been unfortunately made into a specific botanical one for the plant, by its describer M. Raoul,—*Discaria Toumatou*. Now this, I am sorry to say, is worse than rubbish! The correct Maori name of this plant is *Tuma-takuru*

This plant was originally discovered by myself in 1838, and again in 1841, at Poverty Bay; and sent by me to Sir W. Hooker in 1842, who published it, with its Maori name, &c., in the "London Journal of Botany," Vol. III., p. 17, in January, 1844; it was also published by myself in the "Tasmanian Journal of Natural Science," Vol. II. p. 232, in 1843.

=the demon-smiter, or striker of faces; which name, from its thorny structure and dense habit of growth, is very expressive, particularly to a Maori of the olden time—almost naked? *Toumatou*, however, is not a Maori word at all, and scarcely even a grammatical phrase; and if translated can only mean, thine-our,—or thy-we,—or *albm-anus-tuus*! But one of the grossest errors in that List, is the (pseudo) Maori name of a small plant said to be obtained by the Rev. R. Taylor from the interior, and given in full by him; Taylor calls it, "*Te-pua-o-te-reinga*";

Loc. cit., p. 768.
and he translates it by "The flower of Hades (or hell)"! [This, however, was nothing new for Mr. Taylor, his book abounds in such!] I have made many enquiries after this plant (partly at the pressing request of Sir J. D. Hooker,) which seems to be scarce, or, more likely, local and overlooked,—being but a small leafless parasite on the roots of trees in the forests. Very likely the Maoris who were with Taylor on that occasion, gave it the name of "Pua reinga,"

Loc. cit., p. 255.

from noting his eagerness to get it, (which Taylor amplified into Te pua o te reinga! adding thereto his own mis-translation). Now Pua reinga, as given by them, means,—A (or the) flower eagerly laid hold of, grasped, sought after, or desired: just as in the common Maori term "Wahine reinga";—a (or the) woman eagerly followed, sought, &c. No such idea as "the flower of Hades,"—as we understand that term,—was ever associated by any Maori with that, or any other flower. The error, or strange jumble of ideas wholly foreign to the little plant, was evolved from Taylor's mind.

See a simple European error re "Hades" exposed, in "Trans. N.Z. Inst.," Vol. XII, p. 122, note there; and, note, p. 6 of this paper.

We meet again, in his book, with a conceit very like this, which it may be well briefly to quote, as one will serve to illustrate the other: he says,—"A small fish is also found in the Rotoaira Lake, and in the streams which gush out of the sides of Tongariro, called the fish of Hades, and is of a buff colour and spotted like a Leopard's skin," &c., (loc. cit., p. 499.) That there is such a little fish to be found there in that small lake, I well know, having dined on them, and it is delicious eating. It is called by the Maoris, Koaro, and is only found in that lake in the summer season. The Maoris say, that it comes out of the watery recesses of the neighbouring mountain Tongariro, whose waters feed that lake at its immediate base. But here, as before, the calling it a "fish of Hades,"—because, forsooth! the summit of Tongariro is an active crater—a burning mountain,—is not Maori at all, but is wholly a foreign fancy! another strange aberrant one of Mr. Taylor's; with such, however, his book abounds.

A notable instance of a similar strange and far-fetched notion arising from the same root ignorance of the true meaning of the Maori term or name, (accompanied with the dissonant English idea in the mind of the writer, or speaker, with whom "the wish was also father to the thought,")—I find in the last volume of the "Transactions N.Z. Institute," (XIII., p. 440,—where it is recorded, that at a meeting of the Auckland Branch,—a Mr. Bates greatly interested them in informing them, that in the Maori tongue, "Wai meant water, roto meant lake, motu meant an island, and puhe a hill," &c., &c.; and then the President, Dr. Purchas, in the chair, said,—"The derivation of some of the Maori names was very interesting. Rangitoto, signified "red" or "bloody" heaven, which pointed clearly to a period when the Volcano was in active operation. The word ranga was usually connected with Volcanic appearances," &c., &c.

Here, as I take it, in the President's remarks (as well as in what followed), is an extra large amount of error,—or, rather, several errors!—

- I doubt if ever any Maori so understood, or so used the word, or words, Rangi toto; the whole conception or idea is utterly foreign!
- There are several hills known to me scattered throughout New Zealand, bearing this name, besides others, islets in the surrounding seas, which are not volcanic; but they are all rough and peaked, and more or less craggy at top, and are isolated, and generally higher than their neighbours;—e.g. four, at least, in the neighbouring county of Waipawa,—one near Tamumu, one near Takapau, one at Kairakau, and one near Black-head; one at the Mahia the N. side of Hawke's Bay; another in North Taupo; two in the country N. of Auckland; one at Wairarapa; and the Rangitoto islets in Cook's Straits.
- The word "toto" has other meanings besides blood; one of which is, to ooze forth (as from minute leaks, and from pores of skin, rind, &c.), to trickle down; another is, to arise in the heart or soul, to rise up within, to gush as strong feelings,—e.g. "Katalii ha toto ake te aroha o te ngakau!"=Then the heart-felt love arose, or, gushed upwards.
- With the ancient Maoris all blood was not only of a red colour.
- The word toto was not commonly used by the old Maoris for red-colour,—for which they had several proper names according to its hue; they rarely ever used "toto" at all in that way save figuratively.—
- A red sky was never termed Rangitoto by the Maoris; they have several proper names for it, according to the time of the day, its peculiar appearance, and the intensity of its red colour.

Having made those observations by way of preliminary, I would further state, that, out of several archaic meanings pertaining to this word or phrase known to me, I should select this that follows, as being what an ancient thoughtful Maori might probably assign as originating that word or phrase; although there are others:—

With the primitive Maoris, Rangi (=Sky) was a personal being, their common Great Father. In their highly figurative early Myths, the Dew (To-mai-rangi=Drawn-downwards-from-the-sky) was his affectionate tears, dropping on his ever-parted wife Papa (=the Earth) beneath; and it was but a step in the same direction with
them to conceive, that when he lovingly descended, seeking and grieving, and came nearer to his lost spouse, the jagged rocky hilltops, which they often saw separating the low clouds, and trickling with wet, were so through his blood; thus those ragged stony-crested hills bore the common name of Rangitoto,—or, the causing the blood of Rangi to ooze, or trickle down. Moreover the ancient name of the blue sky was Kikorangi—the flesh of Rangi.

See "Trans. N. Z. Inst.," Vol. XIV., p. 67, note. Here, also, the peculiar name of the pink-flesh Kumara—Wairtta-a-ratigi, and its derivation, should be borne in mind.—"Trans. N. Z. I.," XIV., p. 54, note. And of this opinion it may be further said, that it is in agreement with their old tapu or sacred customs on meeting after separation,—crying largely with many tears, and cutting themselves to cause the blood to ooze forth and to trickle down.

Moreover, in support and further illustration of what I have just stated, I will here give an extract (translated) from an ancient East Coast version of the Creation and Beginning of all things, (written many years ago by an intelligent Maori tokunga—priest, or skilled man):—

—"After the separation of the husband and his wife, Rangi and Papa, (Sky and Land,) Rangi=Sky, the husband was (fixed) at a great distance off (from her); then the loving heart of Rangi began to work strongly (ngau—bite) towards Papa, and just so did the feelings of Papa work towards her separated husband; and they were continually affectionately lamenting their separation and each other’s absence. The lamentations of Rangi above descends in his copious falling tears, namely, mists, heavy rain, showers, dew, and thick wet hazy clouds; these are given down by him as refreshment (kai) to her; while the usual rains are also sent down to moisten and comfort and feed Papa and her numerous children (trees and plants) growing on her hack, which she always maternally carries without feeling the heavy load."

For the present I make no remark on that other grave error; that "the word ranga was usually connected with volcanic appearances"; [which, however, I have yet to learn!]—only this, If it were so, what connection is there between ranga and rangi? Neither on what immediately follows, just as erroneous. I can only regret that such information (sic) respecting the ancient Maoris should ever have been admitted within a volume of the "Transactions of the N. Z. Institute," although not among the "Transactions" proper.

At the same time I would observe, that the study of ancient Maori names of places, plants, and animals,—with, in many instances, their metaphorical meanings, is deeply interesting, and philologically useful; but it is a difficult one, and should only be prosecuted by a person very well skilled in the general Maori language, including old tribal or District dialects, (and that not merely colloquially,) as well as in their History, both legendary and real, and who, also, CAN THINK IN MAORI,—i.e. after the old Maori manner,—otherwise he would be sure to make a mess of it; for, as Schiller remarks,—"Against stupidity even the gods fight in vain."

Having shown the error arising from the mistake made in the etymology of the name of one of our noted hills, I may also briefly mention another, and a similar case. It is well known that one of the high mountains in the N. Island, and the only active volcano in N. Zealand, is called by the Maoris Tongariro. On this, the Rev. R. Taylor having brought forward a few extracts from "Mariner's Tonga Isles," respecting the natives of Tonga, and having summed them up, says,—"the identity of the Tonga natives with those of New Zealand is evident," (!) and then he goes on, characteristically, to state, as a clincher,—"Tonga is the name given by the Maoris to the S. wind, the highest (sic) mountain is also honoured with the same, being called tongariro. Tonga riro simply means, Tonga which has left or departed from its old position in the Tonga islands, and gone to the South."

"New Zealand and its inhabitants," p. 390. Moreover this idea is taken from Lang's strange book, "On the origin of the Polynesian nation," p. 67, (London, 1834,)—though there it is carried further and is still worse!—but then Lang knew nothing of the Maoris.

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Was such a far-fetched and utterly incongruous idea as this ever before hatched? It is far more likely that the said mountain got its name from the snow often deposited by the S. wind on it, (by a figure of metonymy, so common with the Maori,)—tonga being also commonly used by them for biting cold, hence for snow,—the cause for the effect; and then, owing to the heat arising from the crater, the fallen snow remained but a very short time on the cone or peak, and thus became riro=gone! So different, in this respect, from the neighbouring and higher crest, on which the snow permanently remains during many months of the year; which crest also bears the highly appropriate name of Para-te-tai-tonga=Dirt (or dregs) from the Southern Sea. (N.B. The term tonga is here again used.)

2. Of pure Maori names, and of their derivation, early given by the Maoris themselves to introduced European novels.

This of itself is a highly interesting theme, as showing their genius for Nomenclature, and apt and fertile invention. Many of those names were highly expressive, particularly to the Maori people; and were most strongly shown, in (1) fitting compound words; (2) in names of things utterly different, yet resembling in form,
or in their use, and so affording the idea and the name; and (3) in onomatopoeia. Enough might easily be brought forward to fill a pretty large paper; I will, however, give a few pregnant examples, as many of them are now become obsolete, or gone out of use, for the horrid unmeaning *patois*, or gibberish broken-English!

And first, of that article on which their whole heart and soul was early set,—a gun. This was named, in its entirety, a *pu*=hom the hollow cylindrical shape of its barrel; *pu* being their Maori name for the hollow and long stalks of large reeds, and for their long cylindrical wooden horns or trumpets. A musquet, and a flint and steel gun, were called a *Ngutu-parera*, (*angl.* Duck's-bill,) from the shape of its steel; a double-barrelled gun, was called, a *puwaharua*=gun with two mouths; the barrel,=*Kamaka* (N.), and *powhatu* (S.),—common Maori names for stone (they not having metals); the stock,=*rapa*,—from its flatness, &c.,—this being the Maori name for the blade of a paddle, the thin flat carved part of the upright stern of a war-canoe, &c.; the lock,=*Kati*, and *Katipu,—this word being used for a catch, fastener, latch, &c.; to be at half-cock,=*Kati-tu,—standing catch; for whole cock,=*Kati-pupuhi,—firing-off catch; cock down,=*moe,—at rest (lit. sleeping); to cock,=*Keu,—to fix, make ready; the ramrod was called, *Okaoka,—a reduplication from oka*, any long sharp pointed instrument, as a fine dagger; to stab, &c.

2. Of a ship,—*Kaipuke*: seeing so much of error has long been prevalent and held, respecting the origin of this word, I shall give as briefly as I may, my opinion concerning it; which I have only arrived at after a great deal of toilsome research and study, extending over a very long period. A ship was early named at the N. of the N. Island *Kaipuke* (and *Puke*, poetical), but at the S. of the same Island it was called,—*moutere tawhiti*=island (from) afar, and *moutere*=floating isle, it was also called, *Pahi*; this latter word is the Tahitian term for a large canoe, ship, &c.,

It is also the term for a ship in the Hervey Islands, by dropping the *h*, (not used there,)—*pai for pahi*.

and it might have been obtained by the Southern Maoris from the Tahitian Tupaea who accompanied Cook on his first voyage to New Zealand,—or from Cook and his European party themselves, as they would be sure to use that (with them) known and accustomed term. A ship was also called *pora*, (especially by the Ngaitahu tribe on the E. Coast of the S. Island,) which name was very likely given to it on account of the flatness of the cieblings below decks, as *pora* in the Maori tongue is the proper name for a flat-roofed house; also for a foreigner, &c.

In writing on Polynesian nomenclature I may observe, that *Pora (Pola* is also the term in the Sandwich Islands for the high platform seat for chiefs between a double canoe:—in Fiji it is the name given to a war-canoe from another land (*Bola*):—in Samoa, *Pola* is the name for plaited matting of cocoa-nut leaves, used to shut in a house:—also, as a verb, to carry flat on such a piece of matting—as a cooked pig, &c. [Here we have again in another form the Maori idea of flatness (*supra*); with the Maoris, also, a coarse kind of platted matting for floors, &c., is culled *pora.*) In the Tonga isles the same word (*bola*) is used for the leaf of the cocoa-nut platted for thatching and other purposes; and (*bolavaka*) for a similar covering for canoes,—which, I suppose, is extended horizontally over them, as was formerly the case in N.Z. I mention all this briefly, as showing the oneness of idea, root, or family connection existing between the several languages.

Now, whence is this somewhat strange name of *Kaipuke* derived? Observe: (1) the word itself, though pure Maori, is not that of any other thing;—(2) the term is a compound one, *kai and puke*;—(3) this particle, *kai*, is in extensive use, and has very many meanings; one is, that when prefixed to any word—noun or verb—it denotes the acting, or the possessing that peculiar power, faculty, or thing, indicated by the word to which it is joined,—and that fully, entirely, or intensively,—*e.g.*—

- *mahi* = work, labour; *kai-mahi,—worker, labourer.*
- *hanga* = to make, build; *kai-hanga* = maker, builder.
- *hoe* = a paddle, to paddle; *kai-hoe* = paddler.
- *ririr* = anger, to be angry; *kai-riri* = an enemy.
- *maeae* = foot; *kai-maeae* = footstep.
- *kahia* = strong, strength; *kai-kaha* = a very strong man.
- *tohutohu* = to point out, direct; *kai-tohutohu* = a, director, overseer, manager.
- *wawao* = to mediate; *kai-mamao* = a mediator.
- *whakamarie* = to console, to make quiet; *kai-mhakamarie* = a, a consoler, a nurse.

—Another, and a very old meaning of *kai*, as a noun, is moveable property, possessions, goods, treasures, chattels,—valuables in the estimation of the ancient Maori.

(4) The word *puke* has also several meanings, but all derived from one root:—1. a hill;—2. a heavy hillow, or high surge at sea:—3. a great and sudden flood, or rise of waters in the rivers, (often *nai puke*, note this word,);—4. (fig.) for a chief;—5. for any great obstruction, moral or physical.

In the very old legend of the killing of the monstrous Saurian, *Hotupuku*, it is related, that when the enormous creature emerged from its cave, the rousing cry was,—"Ano! me he pukepuke nhenua!"—Verily! it was like a hill of earth I (N.B. It was not considered sufficient to say,—*puke*, or *pukepuke*,=hill, only; but,
pukepuhe nhenua=hill of earth.)

See Transactions N. Z Institute, Vol. XI., p. 87, for this strange and complete legend translated by me.

Further, it is to be borne in mind, that in order to render any word in Maori doubly emphatic,—whether adjective, or noun following in construction,—such word is used out of its common position in the sentence, and instead of following the noun, is placed before it:—e.g.—

- **nui pai**,—exceedingly great good:
- **nui kino**,=exceedingly great evil:
- **nui tohora**,—a very large whale:
- **nui tara**,—&fish with remarkable spiny fins:
- **nui tangata**,=a great multitude:
- **nai puke**,—a. great hill of water;—a flood.

—So that **kai puke** may well have been intended emphatically to mean,—a floating hill possessing valuables,—property of all kinds.

And here I may also add, that at the Sandwich Islands (and other places in the Pacific), a ship is called a **motu**—island, (not unlike **puke**=hill, the main idea being the same,) through its being taken when first seen by those Islanders for an island. The old Maoris also had plenty of stories about floating and voyaging islands,—e.g. Motutere in the Taupo lake.

Having thus given pretty exhaustively what I believe to be the true origin of the word **Kaipuke**—skip, (which has long been a *vexata quœstio*,) I shall not enter on her various parts, for generally they bore the same names as the corresponding ones in their own big built canoes; a few only of the additions I shall notice.—

A man-of-war=**k.**

K. here throughout, moans **kaipuke**.

**nhathvai**, or **k. nhai purepo**,—lit. fighting ship, or ship possessing cannon:—

A merchantman=**k. kawe taonga**,—lit. ship carrying goods:—

A whaler=**k. patu, or nero tohora**,—lit. a. ship for killing, or harpooning, whales:

A passenger vessel=**k. eke, or k. kane tangata**,—lit. a ship taking on board, or carrying men:—

All sailing ships, in contradistinction to steamers,—**k. maori**, See "Trans. N.Z. I.," Vol. X. p. 151, for examples of this use of the word.

—lit. common, or usual ship:—

A 3-master=**k. rakau-toru** (N.), **h. rena-toru** (S.),—lit. a ship (with) 3 trees, or poles;—a ship (with) 3 heights, or high poles, understood:—

Standing yards=**kurupae**,—lit. cross-beams of a large house, platform, &c.:—

A figure-head=**ihu nhakapakoko**,—lit. nose, or beak, having a carved image:—

Outer stern and taffrail=**paremata**, from **pare**, an ornamental peak, frontlet, border, for the face, and **mata** the full front of the face:—

Upper deck=**paparunga**,—lit. upper boards:—

Shrouds and ratlines=**arakirunga**, or **arupikikirunga**,—lit. (the) climbing-way-aloft:—

To sound with the lead,=**nhakataatutu**,—lit. to make touch the bottom (and) stand; a most expressive and fitting word.

3. Of common working-tools,—which, as Cook and others truly said, they prized beyond everything! most of the common ones, as the axe, hammer, chisel, auger, gimlet, awl, knife, large spike nail, small nails, &c., took the names of their own similar stone and bone implements; a few others however obtained some curious and striking names as—

An adze=**kapu**,—lit. palm of the hand, sole of the foot, &c., so named from its curvature.

A small axe, hatchet, and tomahawk, **panekeneke**,—lit. strike-and-keep-moving-by-small-degrees!—a good expressive name, indicative of their manner of using it in the woods, scrub, &c., clearing before them; formerly no Maori of any rank travelled or moved about without one strung to his wrist; of this little useful instrument they were very fond.

A saw, and also a file=**kani**,—lit. to cut stone by friction, rubbing to and fro; as they cut their Greenstone, &c.

A plane=**narn**,—lit. to scrape, cut, &c., give a smooth surface to;—as with obsidian, a sharp shell, &c.

A pinchers=**kuku**,—lit. the big mussel shell-fish.

A grindstone, hone, &c.,=**hoanga**. the common name of their own sharpening stones, of which they had several kinds; the common grindstone very often took the additional term of **huri**=to revolve.

A pick, pickaxe=**kerinhenua**,—lit. earth digger.

A hoe=**karaone**,—lit. to tear, roughen, pare the ground.

A spade=**puka, kaheru, karehu, hapara**, &c.; this useful instrument bore several names, according to the District and sub-dialects, but its general one at the N. was **puka**. At first and for a few years this name to me
was a puzzler, for I could not find out why the spade had obtained this peculiar name, (which was also the name
given by the Maoris to the cultivated cabbage,) I knew of nothing Maori that also bore it. At last I heard from
an old intelligent priest, that there was a tree bearing a large leaf named *puka*, and thence their name for the
spade (and cabbage)! For a long time I diligently sought this plant, offering rewards for it, no one, however, had
seen it; at length I found one (in 1836), in a corner of Whangaruru Bay (S.);—its leaves were large, 12-20
inches long, and 8-9 inches broad, oblong, plain, entire, and stout, with a long thick stem.


I never saw another plant; its home was said to be on the Poor Knight's Islets, a small group in the sea just
opposite. I suspect *hapara* to be the Maori attempt at pronouncing the word shovel

4. Of articles of food.—

The Potatoe bore several names, both what may be termed *general,—*each one extending throughout a
large district, as, *unhi, parareka, kapaana, rinai, taena, &c.;—*and *particular,—*i.e. of each variety or sort, of
which they had a great number, many being of their own raising. *Unhi,* is also the name of other edible Maori
roots, sometimes with a short inseparable affix, as *unhipere—Gas-trodia Cunninghamii, nuhikaho=*the yam,
&c. *Parareka=*sweet mealy (substance), is a good Maori meaning name for the tubers of this plant; but all their
many names for them had highly significant meanings.

Maize,=*Kopakipaki,—*from a verb to wrap up, to envelope; from its large spathaceous bracts of fruit leaves,
closely clasping the fruit.

Bread,=*Taro, from the large Taro root (Caladium esculentum)* their bread.

Biscuit,=*Taro pakeke,—*lit. hard taro.

Turnip,=*Korau (N.), the name of the tree-fern (Cyatliea medullaris), whose large white pith or heart is
eaten, which also the large white root of the turnip resembles in substance when cooked; at the South the name
for this wild Turnip was *rearea=*greens, from its growing quickly with its large edible leaves and succulent
flowering stems; *rearea* being the reduplication of the verb *rea*, to grow as vegetables, to spring.

5. Sundries.—

A Horse,=*Kararehe-or Kuri-naha-tangata,—*lit. the man-carrying-quadruped.

Sheep,=*Pirikahu, from their fleece, like a garment to which all things stuck.*

The Horn of a sheep, cow, &c.,=*Taringa pihi (N.),—*lit. budding ear; also, (S.), *Maire=hard-wood.*

Iron pot for cooking=*Kohua,—*so called from their own small circular earth-ovens. (Here it may be noted,
that by most early European residents, not knowing this, it has been stated, that the term arose from the phrase
"Go-ashore." (!))

A Looking-glass,=*Whakaata,—*from the verb causing a shadow, reflection, likeness: formerly the Chiefs
used certain sacred pools near their homes for this purpose, which bore the same name.

Book, Paper,—*Pukapuka,—*the Maori name of the large white-leaved shrub, *Brachyglottis repanda.* [Here
it may be observed, that the name of this shrub is pure Maori, being the reduplication and consequent lessening
of the word *Puka* (the large-leaved tree, *supra*): I mention this, as by many it has been asserted, that this name
was first given to the shrub by the Maoris from the English word *book,—*which, however, was not the case.]

Spectacles,=*Titoko-kanohi, and Karu-wha,—*lit. eye-upraiser (as by the sprit (titoko) of a canoe sail), and
four-eyes.

Common green-black glass Bottle,=*Pounamu, (their greenstone), from its colour, hardness, fracture, &c.

White Glass,=*Hauhunga,—*lit. thin ice.

The wild Radish plant=*Whakaruruwhau,—*lit. causing a break-wind, or shelter; for which purpose and its
quick growth, they commonly used it about their huts at the North.

A Frenchman=*Wini, from their own manner of saying *Oui, Yes.*

I regret to say, that this pure and ingenious Maori nomenclature did not last very long, it gradually died
away, partly through the carelessness and the ignorance of the foreign settlers, and partly through the clear
capacious memory of the Maori by which they were enabled to remember the *patois* names of common things,
&c. as used by the early settlers and visitors, and in doing so not un-frequently escaped more or less of
ill-words. Moreover the Maoris in the earliest days of the Colony, and for some time previous, were very prone
to abandon pure Maori among themselves for the incorrect broken Maori of the settlers; for as the Maoris had
considered them, *at first, as being a superior race,* they largely took up their errors in common talk and
pronunciation as well as in other matters; and had it not been for their obtaining a written language through the
Church-of-England Missionaries, and also had books printed in correct Maori by them, the Maori language
would have soon become irretrievably lost;—even as it is at present the loss is very great among themselves,
more than most Maori scholars are aware, and it is daily becoming more contracted and corrupt.

**PAPER II. (in continuation.)**
3. Of the unmeaning gibberish, or broken-English morels and phrases, now used by the Government and by the Colonists in their higher transactions with the Maoris.

Although this is a very important branch of my subject, and very much might be said, I shall not dwell long upon it. You will notice, that I have purposely omitted referring to the common colloquial patois too often in use between Colonists and the Maoris, which I not infrequently hear in passing by them in our streets; the marvel is, how they manage to understand each other.

It is well-known that the Maori people are great talkers among themselves; indeed, formerly they had in every pa (town) their large nhare-korero=house of assembly, where they would often spend their nights (and days too, in wet or cold weather, or on the arrival of visitors,) talking and debating. They also excelled in minute description of everything new they had seen. Now the thought has often occurred to me,—would an intelligent Maori who had gone on board of Cook's ship,—or one who had in later times visited England,—be able on his return to his people to describe clearly what he had seen? and that, of course, in pure Maori words, as his people at home knew no other language; and I have felt sure that he both could and would do so. Indeed, we have a pretty good proof of this at hand, in those celebrated letters written from Australia a few years ago by Major Ropata, (a leading chief of the Ngatiporou tribe at the East Cape,) who accompanied Sir Donald McLean thither. Those letters, in which he gave a running account of the many novelties he had seen there, were very long and interesting, and were published at the time in the Government Maori Serial (Waka Maori)—I read them with delight. The copious, fluent, flexible, and euphonious Maori language, would make any description of that kind very easy to them. Such being the case why is it that so many new words and phrases in broken-English are constantly being thrust forward in official Maori documents and papers as if they were proper Maori words? Very sure I am of three things respecting such words and phrases:—1. they are not understood by the bulk of the Maori people, if clearly by any among them:—2. they are not required:—and—3. the use of them is causing the sad deterioration of the noble Maori language. When a Gazette or a Proclamation, a new Act or an Advertisement, or perhaps a long Official letter, printed or written in "Official" Maori, reaches a chief, or a Maori Village, the same is read over and over by the Maoris; and, at last, some one among them explains as well as he can each of those barbarous patois words and phrases to the people.—and, of course, with many ekings out of his own! But why not have printed or written the same in simple and plain Maori?

It is positively refreshing to turn from such barbarism to notice what they have done in the Sandwich Islands—the little Kingdom of Hawaii. There, all such proper names of new things, including legal matters, Officers of Government, etc., are in the pure Hawaiian tongue; which, though very copious is not so to such an extent as the Maori, partly owing to its possessing only 12 letters. This, as I view it, arose from that Government being purely aboriginal, having had good skilled Officers (and Interpreters when required) from the beginning, who both well-knew and sought to keep up their Native tongue; while here, the contrary has been too often the case. But it is not only the broken-English Words and phrases that I see good reason to complain of, the very sentences themselves, while consisting of (say) Maori words, are so long, so involved, so utterly opposed to Maori idiom, (I might almost say Maori syntax) that I myself can rarely understand or find out their meaning; indeed I cannot clearly do it, if the same is a translation of some legal or official document, without I also have that document in English to refer to. I am told, that this is mainly the fault of the Lawyers and others, who will have their legal and official papers (abounding in long involved obsolete and tautological phraseology) literally translated, line by line, or sentence by sentence,—utterly regardless of the so-called translation being understood I or having any connected or plain meaning!! Neither is that all! for, as if it must be so, to have "Confusion more confounded," often in the Maori Gazettes and other Official and legal Papers, the old Roman numerals (c.d.l.v.x.) are used, (though not to be found in the Maori alphabet, and therefore not by them understood)—and, in addition thereto, other strange letters of the English alphabet,—merely for the purpose of marking Government Surveyors' blocks and that, too, when purposely surveying and marking off the land of the Maoris!

Part II.

ON CERTAIN COLONIAL ALTERATIONS AND INNOVATIONS MADE IN THE ENGLISH AND OTHER WESTERN LANGUAGES.

Of Modern Colonial changes in Nomenclature arising from innovations on old-established principles and rules in the English and the learned languages.

In this, the last part of my subject, I would particularly bear in mind the ancient maxim which as a motto I have prefixed to this paper. A celebrated British Botanist,—who might truly be styled the Father of English
Botany, and who was for many years the President of the Linnaean Society (London),

It is not generally known, that Sir J. E. Smith purchased the whole of the Museum, Library, and Papers of Linnaeus, and made a present of them to the Linnaean Society, London.

Sir J. E. Smith, says,—"It is generally agreed among mankind that names of countries, places, or things, sanctioned by general use should be sacred:—nor is it allowable to alter such names even for the better ";


and I think that you will also agree with him in that remark; and further, that old established rules and principles concerning Nomenclature in general, which are firmly upheld and followed at home in the Mother Country, and among the nations of Scientific Europe, should also be adhered to in a young Colony; at all events such should not be lightly laid aside. Just the same indeed, if not more so, as the good established Customs, &c., of the Old Country; and such, if I mistake not, was the practice of the Romans in founding their numerous colonies.

(1) Foremost among such (as I am inclined to view it) are the "names of places" in new countries given to them by their first Discoverers; more especially when (as Sir J. E. Smith says,) such have been also "sanctioned by general use," then, all such "should be sacred." Unfortunately however this very proper rule is not now observed here among us in its integrity; and although up to the present the alterations have been but slight, yet, as "the thin end of the wedge" has been inserted, I fear, unless a firm and early stand is made against it, that it will soon become of wider application and grow rapidly worse.—

Standing prominently towards us among those alterations is the name of our own Bay, Province, County, and Provincial District; which, instead of "Hawke's Bay,"—the name publicly given to it by its illustrious Discoverer,—who sailed round its shores, and entered its name in his log, so printed it in his Voyages and Engraved it in his Maps,—is everywhere in the scientific Colonial Publications (as the "Transactions of the N.Z. Institute," School Geography and Maps,) altered to Hawke Bay;

And in the School Book the children are expressly told, that "Capt. Cook named it Hawke Bay." (p. 76.) and "Cook's Strait" is altered to "Cook Strait"! Apart from every other consideration, one would have thought that the utter ridiculousness of this last-mentioned alteration would have been quite sufficient to prevent it being made or even attempted; [Cook strait! Cook crooked!!!] especially as in a few other cases the authors of these alterations seem to have seen the impropriety of such changes, and so left them unaltered,—as in "Cook's Tooth," (the conical peak at Porangahau, although merely a local and settler's name,) this they have not altered to "Cook Tooth"! and so "Young Nick's Head," in Poverty Bay, this remains unaltered. The name of the celebrated "Cook's Well" in Tolaga Bay, would certainly be shorn of a large portion of its pristine glory and charm, and at the same time convey a widely different meaning to both ear and eye, if barbarously altered to "Cook Well"! although such an alteration would be wholly in keeping with, and not a whit more ridiculous than, Cook Strait!

Other notable places in New Zealand, named by Cook and other celebrated early Navigators and so laid down in the Government and in all Maps, have all been altered in the same manner;—as Queen Charlotte's Sound, Tasman's Bay, Solander's Islands, D'Urville's Island, Lord Auckland's Islands, Lord Howe's Island, Campbell's Island, Macquarie's Island, Stewart's Island, &c.

It is satisfactory however to know, that both our Colonial and Home Governments, and the European, American, and Australian Scientific works, in which New Zealand and her outlying islands are prominently mentioned have not adopted it.

Fortunately our conspicuous nearer islets on this E. Coast,—as Bare Island, Portland Island, White Island, Flat Island, the Mayor, &c.,—were not named after any person; and therefore their names were not given to them in the possessive case by their Discoverer, according to the well-established and ancient custom; and we also know why they were so named; Bare Island, "on account of its desolate appearance," and White Island, owing to its whiteness (as when first seen through a fog,—or, more likely, the vapours, and steam and smoke arising from its burning craters,—of which, however, Cook knew nothing). But supposing that two of those Islands had been named by Capt. Cook after some officers in his ship, whose names where White and Bare, (as the neighbouring islets in Tolaga Bay, Sporing's, and Parkinson's were named,) and were now altered, according to this new-fangled mode,—who could ever know why they were so named? as the great distinguishing difference would have been eliminated. To me there is great disagreement between White Island and White's Island, White Bay and White's Bay,

Where the Cook's Strait cable is landed on the S. side.

Bare Island and Bare's Island, Flat Island, and Flat's Island, Green Island and Green's Island, Low Island and Low's Island, &c.;—and more,—that great and correct difference is plainly shown at first sight, even to a tyro in geography or voyaging.

In my opinion, the alteration in the name of our Bay partakes much of the dubious or ambiguous character I have just mentioned; for as "Hawke's Bay," a stranger would know it at a glance or on first hearing that it was named after some person of that name; but as "Hawke Bay," he would be led to suppose that it got this name
from its Hawks; especially if he happened to know of the organized destruction of that bird carried on here so ruthlessly during late years, (and that notwithstanding the unphonetic e at the end of the word,)—for such is also the rule with Seamen and Navigators, e.g. Whale Bay, Fish Bay, Seal Bay, Duck Cove, Cormorant Cove, Gull Rock, Gannet Island, &c., &c.

All over the known world from the earliest times, such rule, of Nomenclature has been invariably followed by the Navigators and Discoverers of all civilized Nations; the Maps of all parts of the World, and particularly the Sea-charts, have ever abounded with such names; and their number is daily increasing. In the latest Scientific Voyages the same old rule has been observed; indeed in very many instances it could not well be otherwise, for to alter those personal names in their bestowal (after the manner that similar ones have been pragmatically altered here in New Zealand) would render them ridiculous.

Moreover I feel pretty certain, that our neighbouring Australian Colonies would never allow of any such liberty being taken with some of their principal and long-established names, as Queensland, King George's Sound, &c. Here, too, in this last name, (as I have before observed with reference to Cook Strait, Cook Well, &c.,) there would be a most awkward and ambiguous play upon words; for King George's Sound having been named after our present Queen's grandfather George III.,—who, in his latter years, was afflicted at intervals with insanity,—the altered name might (and it no doubt would by some) be attributed to the improved state of his mind, as opposed to that of being unsound or madness!

Following this new rule out to its logical conclusion, we should also drop the terminal s, and call our Hawke's Bay Churches—St. John Church, St. Paul Church, St. Mary Church, St. Andrew Church, &c., &c.; but here, perhaps, it may be said,—"Oh! but those buildings are to be exempt because they were dedicated to certain persons." "True," I would reply, "but so were our Bays, and Isles, and Straits, and Sounds, and Capes; these were all publicly dedicated to bear the names of persons given to them; which names are also likely to continue theirs, long after those given to many of our wooden buildings are forgotten, and their present sites occupied by other names."

And here I may call your attention to an additional fact, that the names of a few towns both N. and S. of us are still retained in the possessive case by those modern Innovators, after the good old-established custom,—as St. Bathan's, St. Andrew's, &c. Of course it would sound strangely and ambiguously to an English ear, to say (for instance), "I am going to St. Andrew"! but why a town should retain the terminal s, and not a bay or an island, a cape or a strait, is beyond my comprehension, and smacks of pedantry.—

Therefore, on these seven following grounds, I am opposed to this modern homespun alteration, viz.—

- Long established and world-wide custom.
- Honour and Memory of the Discoverer and Namer: also, of the Person whose Name was bestowed.
- Desecration.
- So printed in all European and American Books, and so laid down in all Maps and Charts.
- Grammatically.
- Euphony.
- Clearness of Meaning,—at first sight or hearing.

And I both hope and venture to believe, that such a strange new and unauthoritative attempt to alter our old and prized National Nomenclature will neither be sanctioned nor perpetuated in the Colony. Since writing the last paragraph I find, that the settlers at Glendermid in the Province of Otago, have actually petitioned Parliament to grant them the restoration of the old and original name of their place Sawyer's Bay, which it appears had been taken away from that locality; and Parliament has properly granted the prayer of their petition.

But far above all others in this Colony, the Settlers of Hawke's Bay (and the Members of the Hawke's Bay Institute) should see to their District and Institutions ever retaining its original name in its entirety. For of all the more modern Provinces, Districts, and Counties, into which this Colony has been cut up and named,—HAWKE'S BAY is the only one that bears the name given to it by its illustrious discoverer Capt. Cook; who, also, had sailed leisurely around its shores and had anchored within it.

(2) The disuse of a capital letter in the specific name of a plant or animal, when the same is named after any person.

The rule for invariably using a capital letter when a species is named after any Botanist, or person, is both an old and a good one. All our great Botanical and Zoological Masters and predecessors, from Linnæus downwards, have ever observed it, and laid down strict rules for the carrying it out. And not only so, but also in the case of the specific name being derived from any other genus which it resembles, or with which it was formerly classed, (as Symphyogyna Hymenophyllum, Polypodium Grammitidis,)—or from the name of the place

"But names derived from particular countries or districts are liable to much exception, few plants being sufficiently local to justify their use." (Sir J. E. Smith, 1. c., p. 191.)
where it was originally found, (as *Gnaphalium Keriense*, *Lecidea Domingensis*, *Hymenophyllum Tunbridgeense*.)—or being the common vulgar name of it, (as *Podocarpus Totara*, *Nesodaphne Tana*). Sir J. E. Smith says,—"In such a case the specific name stands as a substantive retaining its own gender and termination, and must begin with a capital letter; which last circumstance should be particularly observed if a species is called after any botanist, &c." (loc. cit., p. 191.) Dr. Lindley, and Sir W. Hooker have also laid down the same rule; indeed all European botanists have ever followed it, and that not only in the past generation but also in all their modern works; *e.g.*—Sir J. Hooker's *Antarctic, New Zealand, and Tasmanian Floras,* and Hand-Book *N. Z. Flora;* Sir W. Hooker's *Species Filicum;* Baker's *Synopsis Filicum;* in the latest complete work to hand, Bentham's *Flora Australiensis;* and in all the Linnaean Society's Transactions. Indeed the rule is, and has ever been, so universal, that I never remember once seeing its omission in any scientific work, whether in Latin, English, French, German, &c. I regret, however, to say, that its constant omission is to be found in our Colonial printed works including the "Transactions of the N. Z. Institute,"—although in this last it was not in the earliest volumes.

I have said, above, it is a *good* rule;—that is, a useful one, a help and aid, and the cause of being a great saving of time in running over an index for a species so named, especially if the genus is a large one, (as I practically know,) for the eye catches the capital letter immediately;—and then it is also a great help in another way, viz., that a naturalist (old or young) knows *at once* that the specific name is derived from the proper name of some person or place, and therefore its meaning, however strange or uncouth, is not to be sought for in any Greek or Latin Dictionary.

(3) Having said thus much respecting the modern Colonial practice followed in the beginning of some new specific names, I would also make a remark on their endings: all those so named here in the Colony by their several describes bear the termination of the genitive singular,—*ii;* now this, according to the good old rules is also incorrect,—in part at least. (*a.*) If a plant or animal is so specifically named after its discoverer, then such a practice is (so far) correct; but (*b.*) if after only a describer or writer on it, then the termination should be a single *i*; but (*c.*) if the specific name is only given in compliment (as it very often is), it should be rendered in an adjective form, with the terminations,—*anus,-a,-um.*

I may add, in a note, that I have always endeavoured to follow this rule, which has also been closely observed in the *Flora N. Z.* and by others: *e.g.* *Hymenophyllum Frank-liniarum,* *Aspleuium Hookerianum,* *Clematis Parkitsoniana,* &c.—

(4) Another remark I would also make under this head is,—on the great benefit to science arising from the giving of *suitable* generic and specific names.—

I have said both generic and specific,—but perhaps it is more with the latter that we at present have to do. Nevertheless it is well worthy of notice, or rather of some study, to consider the thoughtful well-chosen generic names given by their early discoverers to many of our New Zealand plants. By way of example I will mention a few of them, and as they are usually compounded of two Greek words I will also give their meanings in English, for the benefit of the juvenile portion of my audience. And you will see, that their names are generally highly descriptive of the appearance, use, or property of the plant itself; much indeed after the common names at Home of many of our own British plants, derived from our forefathers.

- *Aciphylla* = needle-pointed-leaf.
- *Astelia* = without-stem-or-trunk: (as this plant is, perched, like the big nests of crows, high up on the branches of tall trees).
- *Alsuosmia* = sweet-odour-of-forests: (from its fragrant flowers).
- *Brachyglottis* = short-throat (flower).
- *Carpodetus* = ringed-fruit.
- *Coprosma* = stinking-smell (which the whole plant has).
- *Crapedia* = tassel-formed (flower).
- *Dicera* = two-horned (from its anther).
- *Dichondra* = two-grains (from its seeds).
- *Drimys* = pungent, biting, to the taste; which this plant wholly is.
- *Geniostoma* = woolly, or bearded, mouth (its flower within).
- *Leptospermum* = slender-seed.
- *Melicytus* = honey-in-cavities (in its anthers).
- *Metrosideros* = iron-heart (from its hard wood).
- *Microtis* = little-ears (from shape of its many small flowers).
- *Phormium* = the ancient name of a plant used in platting and weaving: our N. Z. Flax.
- *Rhipogonum* = jointed-whip-lash (the Supplejack).
- *Thelymitra* = hooded-lady (from its flower).

Sir J. E. Smith observes very truly,—"Nomenclature is no less essential a branch of methodical science
than characteristic definitions; for, unless some fixed laws, or, in other words, good sense and perspicuity be attended to in this department, great confusion and uncertainty must ensue." And again:—"Excellent Greek or Latin names are such as indicate some striking peculiarity in the genus; as Glycyrrhiza, Amaranthus, Helianthus, Hemerocallis, &c.;

In English thus:—Sweet-root (Liquorice), Everlasting-flower, Sun-flower, Beauty-of-a-day (Day-lily). such as mark the botanical character of the genus, when they can be obtained for a nondescript plant, are peculiarly desirable. - - - The generic name being fixed, the specific one is next to be considered; these should be formed on similar principles to the generic ones." (loc. cit., pp. 186-190.) Linneus, also, lays down as a rule, that,—"Genuine specific distinctions constitute the perfection of natural science." And when this is also further shown, either wholly or in part, in the appropriate specific name, much information is obtained at the first glance, and the gain is great indeed! Some of our New Zealand plants bear truly delightful specific names, so full of true meaning, given them by their original describers: as, Phormium tenax (tough-tying-up P.), Dichondra repens (creeping D.), Areca sapida (good-tasted A.), Urtica ferox (fierce-stinging U.), Aciphylla squarrosa (sticking-out-all-round A.), Cyathea medullaris (marrow-hearted C.), Cyathea dealbata (white, or silvery-leaved C.), Pteris esculenta (edible P.), Pteris scaberula (roughish P.), Asplenium bulbiferum (little-bulb-bearing A.), Myrtus bullata (blistered-leaf M.), Melicope ternata (three-lobed-leaf M.), Melicytus ramiflorus (branch-flower-bearing M.), Leptospermum scoparium (broom-like L.), Parietaria debilis (weak P.), Trichomanes reniforme (kidney-shaped T.), Hymenophyllum nitens (shining H.), Hymenophyllum dilatatum (broad-and-flat H.), &c. And here I may further observe, speaking from experience, that such genuinely descriptive names were of no small service to me, when in my novitiate in N. Z. (nearly 50 years ago,) among a little known and new Flora, and with very few scientific books concerning them and those few written in Latin. Such highly suitable names are trebly pleasing, (if I may so speak,)—to the working botanist, to the tyro, to the scholar, and to the outside general lover of Nature; and to all four pleasing alike,—as really communicating some knowledge of the plant through its name.

Here I may be permitted to relate a keen observation bearing on this particular point which I once heard from the late Bishop of New Zealand, Dr. Selwyn, in 1845; the Bishop had been looking over my MS. list of the then known N. Z. plants, (which I had compiled out of the botanical works of several authors, with my own few additions,)—his object being to obtain the names of some of the more noted (timber trees especially) for his Church Almanac,—when his eye caught Phormium tenax, Urtica ferox, and Pteris esculenta. "Now this," said the Bishop, reading those names,—"this is what I like to see; this is easily understood, and is serviceable; were such a rule as this more observed by Botanists, the science would escape the opprobrium of being termed 'A dry List of hard Names'"

(5) I would yet offer a few remarks on what I cannot but consider another somewhat objectionable mode, which I fear is growing among us:—viz. the adopting of barbarous words for new genera and species; and, also, the too frequent giving of the proper names of persons to new species. Here, however, I would clearly state, in limine,—that it is the undoubted right of the describer of any new species to give it what name he may please; nevertheless, there are certain good old rules respecting this which have generally been adhered to by Botanists (masters in the Science), and which I cannot but think it would be well to bear in mind.—"Moribus antiquis stat Roma."

The old established scientific canons of Linnaeus hold good here also:—Sir J. E. Smith, Dr. Lindley, Sir W. Hooker, and many others with them, our Botanical Masters and Fathers, have assiduously taught and upheld them. Linnaeus says,—"Generic names that express the essential character or habit of a plant are the best of all." (can. 28.) "Generic names derived from barbarous languages ought on no account to be admitted." (can. 7.) "No generic names can be admitted, except such as are derived from either the Greek or Latin languages." (can. 16.) But here, on these two canons, 7 and 16, Dr. Lindley remarks,—"That it is far better to convert the names by which plants are known in countries called barbarous, into scientific generic names, by adding a Latin termination to them. The advantage of this practice to travellers is known to be very great, as it puts them in possession of a certain part of the language of the country in which the plants are found."—And with him I fully agree; but then the barbarous (or, say, Maori) name so given to the plant, must be the real distinctive and well-known name of that particular plant. What I object to, is the using of any other barbarous name,—or the mis-spelling of the proper barbarous name, and so making it ludicrous or worse!

See page 12 for an example in Discaria Tounatou.

or the using of the barbarous name of a class or family,—for a genus or particular species.

And then the so frequently bestowing the proper name of any and every person who may happen to stumble on, or obtain, or merely send, a plant or a shell, to some one of our many modern Botanists and Naturalists: almost every other new thing now-a-days is thus named! Of course it is an easy and a pleasing mode of business, both to the describer and to the finder; but it is scarcely the legitimate, or the wise, one. I have already, some five years ago, called your attention to the very different mode pursued by the early and real
Botanists who visited New Zealand. They were skilled men, who had served their apprenticeship (so to speak) to the business, and they upheld the useful and scientific Linnean canons in their integrity. Hundreds of new plants were named by the two Forsters (father and son), Banks, Cook, Solander, Sparmann, and others, in this and in other lands during their long voyages of discovery, yet a very small number (less than 3 per cent.) bore in their specific names those of their finders, or their friends. Even the name of that devoted lover of Botany, Sydney Parkinson,—Sir Joseph Banks' skilled botanical artist, who drew so many of their flowers and fruits, and that too so wonderfully well, and coloured from Nature,—his name was throughout omitted!


and so was also the name of their scientific collaborator Dr. Sparmann.

Another of the Linnean canons runs thus:—"Names ought not to be misapplied to gaining the goodwill or favour of saints, or persons celebrated in other Sciences; they are the only reward that the Botanist can expect, and are Intended for him Alone." (can. 21.) And Sir J. E. Smith observes,—"In all ages it has been customary to dedicate certain plants to the honour of distinguished persons. The scientific botanists of modern times have adopted the same mode of preserving the memory of benefactors to their science; and though the honour may have been sometimes extended too far, that is no argument for its total abrogation." And then referring to a genus which had been named Bonapartea, he says,—"this can possibly be admitted only in honour of the divorced Empress, and not of her former consort, who had no botanical pretensions."

Written, too, at a time when Napoleon I. was in all his glory! How different now!! (loc cit., p. 188.) But even beyond this the careless naming of species is now carried; hence so many new species of late years found in New Zealand, bear the strange and barbarous specific names of—maori, maoriana, maoricum, maoricus, maoriella, maorinus, maorinum, &c., &c. And to these, I think, should be also added, the following,—dunediensis, rakaikensis, temukensis, hkwitense, otagensis, manitoto, &c., &c. The late President of the Linnean Society very truly and discreetly remarks (on this particular portion of my subject):—"Names which express the local situations of different species are excellent, such as Melampyrum arvense, pratense, nemo-rosurn, and sylvaticum, Carex arenaria, uliginosa and sylvatica, which seems to be ubiquitous, Hypnum Sandnicliense, and one or two others.

Not a few of those modern names so readily bestowed, serve painfully to remind me of what many of our Surveyors and Gold and Gum Diggers, and other pioneers in the forest and wild, have often accidentally done,—given trivial unmeaning ludicrous and uncouth names to halting stations and camping-places, little deeming that such would remain; which afterwards, however, became the common name of the place! to the disgust of those who followed and settled there. But in these cases, happily, such names, thoughtlessly given, both can be and are altered; this, however, can not be done in the naming of any plant or other natural species, and therefore more care should be taken by the describer in the naming it.

As I was one of those who, in the House of Representatives in 1861, spoke and gave my vote in support of a sum of money being granted for the compiling and printing of the "Hand-Book of the New Zealand Flora," (at a time, too, when the Colony was both poor and at war)—and as I also assisted the eminent author Sir J. D. Hooker in his arduous task of publishing it,—I may be permitted to observe,—that while its publication has been of service and done good to this young colony, it has (like all other good things) not been unmixed with evil; for through it some in New Zealand have set themselves up for Botanists!—And, as may readily be supposed, our Cryptogamic Flora in particular—the chief botanical glory of New Zealand!—has suffered the most in its nomenclature, and that in the pleasing Order of Ferns, those universal favourites! The other great natural Cryptogamic Orders—Musi, Hepaticœ, Lichencs, Fungi, and Algae, have hitherto escaped; being, fortunately, far too difficult a study, and Too Unfruitful of Pay! Some, no doubt, think it a very easy matter to name our N. Z. Ferns,—especially if provided with the "Hand-Book" and with Baker's "Synopsis Filicum." I have seen several collections of Ferns, made both N. and S. of us, and not a few prettily and fancifully got up for sale by professed Fern-collectors, (though too often composed of bits and scraps,) with printed labels, &c., &c., but I have never yet seen one such manufactured col- lection correctly named throughout; even the very names of the Ferns are often mis-spelt on the printed labels!

It should not be forgotten, that the useful "Hand-Book" is only a kind of Clavis, or Key, to New Zealand
plants then known, (1864,) and to larger botanical works in which they were more fully described. Sir J. D. Hooker warns his readers, and that frequently, against attempting great and new things, without, at all events, much study of those larger works and microscopical research, and a careful comparison of species with species,—these of New Zealand with those of foreign countries. For my own part I have long firmly believed with Mr. John Smith, one of our best living Pteridologists, (who was for more than 40 years the Curator of the Garden Ferns at Kew under Sir W. J. Hooker,—in the absolute necessity of examining and comparing the living Ferns themselves in their various stages of growth, and not merely dried herbarium specimens; which are too often mere scraps or portions of fronds, or, not unfrequently, selected without judgement.

A remark of Mr. J. Smith's bearing on this may be hero properly adduced and usefully studied; he says, (in writing on the latest general work on Ferns, the "Synopsis Filicum" above mentioned,—"As might be expected from a new writer on Ferns, many changes have been made in the nomenclature and synonyms, as given in the "Species Filicum," (the immediately preceding and larger work by Sir W. J. Hooker,)—"and, judging from Mr. Baker's view, it would appear that many plants originally described as species, which successive authors have acknowledged to be distinct, are, nevertheless, in many cases regarded as synonyms; thus Ferns long accepted by previous pteridologists cease to be so. When I say long accepted, I go upon the evidence of Link, Kunze, Schott, Mettenius, and myself, who have had for many years under their observation living examples of species all well recognised as being different from one another by some important characters seen only in the living state; but Mr. Baker, with herbarium specimens, makes no scruple of lumping many of such under one specific name. For instance, under Polypodium lycopodioides, there are no less than twenty-two synonyms, and under P. brasiliensis eighteen. These examples are additional proof of what has been already said of the confusion of the nomenclature of Ferns.-----Notwithstanding, there can be no doubt but that the "Species Filicum" and "Synopsis" are highly valuable to students of Ferns, possessing herbaria or cultivated collections, as also to travellers abroad."—Historia Filicum, by J. Smith, 1875; pp. 58, 59.

In conclusion, I cannot do better than once more to quote from that great and good English Botanist—the Father of English Botany—Sir J. E. Smith:—

"We are no longer in the infancy of Science, in which its utility, not having been proved, might be doubted, nor is it for this that I contend. I have often alluded to its benefits as a mental exercise, nor can any study exceed in raising curiosity, gratifying a taste for beauty and ingenuity of contrivance, or sharpening the powers of discrimination. What then can be better adapted for young persons? The chief use of a great part of our education is no other than what I have just mentioned. The languages and the mathematics, however valuable in themselves when acquired, are even more so as they train the youthful mind to thought and observation."

"To those whose minds and understandings are already formed, this study may be recommended, independently of all other considerations, as a rich source of innocent pleasure. Some people are ever inquiring "what is the use" of any particular plant, by which they mean "what food or physic, or what materials for the painter or dyer does it afford?" They look on a beautiful flowery meadow with admiration, only in proportion as it affords nauseous drugs or salves. Others consider a botanist with respect only as he may be able to teach them profitable improvement in tanning, or dyeing, by which they may quickly grow rich, and be then perhaps no longer of any use to mankind or themselves. They would permit their children to study Botany, only because it might possibly lead to professorships, or other lucrative preferment."

"These views are not blameable, but they are not the sole end of human existence. Is it not desirable to call the soul from the feverish agitation of worldly pursuits, to the contemplation of Divine Wisdom in the beautiful economy of Nature? Is it not a privilege to walk with God in the garden of Creation, and hold converse with his Providence? If such elevated feelings do not lead to the study of Nature, it cannot far be pursued without rewarding the student by exciting them."

Rousseau, a great judge of the human heart and observer of human manners, has remarked, that "when science is transplanted from the mountains and woods into cities and worldly society, it loses its genuine charms, and becomes a source of envy, jealousy and rivalship." This is still more true if it be cultivated as a mere source of emolument. But the man who loves botany for its own sake knows no such feelings, nor is he dependent for happiness on situations or scenes that favour their growth. He would find himself neither solitary nor desolate, had he no other companion than a "mountain daisy," that "modest crimson-tipped flower," so sweetly sung by one of Nature's own poets. The humblest weed or moss will ever afford him something to admire. Introduce him to the magnificence of a tropical forest, the sweetly sung by one of Nature's own poets. The humblest weed or moss will ever afford him something to admire. Introduce him to the magnificence of a tropical forest, the

"Play round the head, but come not near the heart."

I have made this long and pleasing extract from the talented and loving Author's preface to the 6th edition of his "Introduction to Botany,"—published nearly 60 years back, (which was also, subsequently, after his
decease, republished with very high approval by the late Sir W. J. Hooker,—and I have clone so for two chief reasons:—(1) for the benefit of those who may hear (or read) this paper, particularly the rising generation:—(2) to show the men of the closing half of this restless never-contented money-hungering century, what a great and good Englishman (not a cleric) once thought and wrote of common earthly riches!

**Paper III.**

**A Few Remarks on the Hackneyed Quotation of "Macaulay's New Zealander."**

By W. Colenso, F.L.S.

[Read before the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute, 12th June, 1882.]

For some considerable time I have been desirous of bringing this subject before you,—New Zealand being now our Country and our home; and should have certainly done so during past Winter Sessions of our Institute, but for two reasons:—(1) that I had already written pretty fully about it, some 15 years ago in the "New Zealande," Auckland paper; and (2) that I had hoped the quoting of it would die out, or that, at all events, some modern authors and writers and public speakers (especially here in New Zealand) would just give themselves the trouble to enquire whether Macaulay was really the author of that saying,—whether the simile originated with him.

I should however, honestly confess, that I am again reminded (as it were) to bring this subject before you, through my having lately read Professor Mutton's opening Address for 1882, given at the Canterbury College, University of New Zealand, in which Professor Hutton says,—"As individuals have a limited period of existence, so also must it be with nations. This is the leading idea in Lord Macaulay's celebrated New Zealander sitting on the ruins of London Bridge."

My task on this occasion will be a comparatively easy one, through my having several years ago thoroughly worked the subject out; (and, as I have said, published it in one of our first-class Colonial Newspapers;) I purpose showing, 1.—that the "idea" (to use Professor Hutton's term) is of (at least) twofold origin,—1. general; 2. particular; and 2.—that both were used by authors who preceded Macaulay; whose works, without doubt, Macaulay must have seen and even read; and that from one or more of them Macaulay gathered the striking and famed similes, more than once used by him in his Works.

The radical idea seems to have been rather a favourite one with Macaulay, as I find he has used it on several occasions; three of them I will quote from his Works written at different periods of his life,—viz., in 1824, in 1829, and in 1845,—a period extending over 16 years.

Lord Macaulay was born in 1800, died in 1859.

His predilection for it may, however, (in part, at least,) be owing to the great noise which it made in the daily literary world at the time of its first appearing in his writings (in 1824), for we read in the preface to his Miscellaneous Writings, that "the passage in question was at one time the subject of allusion, two or three times a week, in speeches and leading articles." And yet it does not appear that any one at that time, or, as far as I know, since, has brought forward the originator.

The first of those three passages (and the one I have just particularly alluded to,) occurs in Macaulay's Review of Mitford's History of Greece, (written in 1824,) where, writing of "the gift of Athens to man," (he goes on to say,)—"although her freedom and her power have for more than twenty centuries been annihilated, her intellectual Empire is imperishable. And when those who have rivalled her greatness shall have shared her fate; when civilization and knowledge shall have fixed their abode in distant continents; when the sceptre shall have passed away from England; when, perhaps, travellers from distant regions shall in vain labour to decipher on some mouldering pedestal the name of our proudest chief; shall hear savage hymns chaunted to some misshapen idol over the ruined dome of our proudest temple; and shall see a single naked fisherman wash his nets in the river of the ten thousand masts; her influence and her glory will still survive—fresh in eternal youth,—immortal."

Here we have the idea in its inchoate, more general and less defined state; (but of this, too, anon).

The second occurs in his Review of Mill's Essay on Government, (written in 1829,) here Macaulay says:—"The civilised part of the world has now nothing to fear from the hostility of savage nations.—But is it possible that in the bosom of civilization itself may be engendered the malady which shall destroy it?—Is it possible that, in two or three hundred years, a few lean half-naked fishermen, may divide with owls and foxes
the ruins of the greatest European cities,—may wash their nets amidst the relics of her gigantic docks, and build their huts out of the capitals of her stately cathedrals."—

Here, also, we have the same idea, but still inceptive, still in the rough.

The third is the more particular, the worked-up and finished simile of the artistic New Zealander, of which the literary world has heard so much. This occurs in his Review of Ranke's History of the Popes, (written in 1840),—where Macaulay, writing of the Roman-Catholic Church, says,—"She (the Roman-Catholic Church) may still exist in undiminished vigour, when some traveller from New Zealand shall, in the midst of a vast solitude, take his stand on a broken arch of London Bridge to sketch the rains of St. Pauls."—

I have found this simile, or idea,—both in its rough and in its more finished state,—in no less than five authors of note who preceded Macaulay; four of whom are English, and one French.

The first is Horace Walpole, the eminent virtuoso of "Strawberry Hill" notoriety, and the author of the celebrated "Letters." In a published letter of Walpole's to Mason, written in 1744, he says,—"At last some curious traveller from Lima, will visit England, and give a description of the ruins of St. Paul's, like the Editions of Baalbec and Palmyra." [Here it may be noticed, that Macauley wrote a slashing trenchant Review of Walpole's Letters, in 1833.]

The second is by the equally celebrated Frenchman Volney,—who travelled in the East (Egypt and Syria) in 1784, and wrote his able work, called the Ruins, or a Survey of the Revolutions of Empires; therein he gives us his "Meditations," written at the time, while musing among the ruins of those, famed and great ancient cities. And he goes on to say:—

—"What are become of so many productions of the hand of man? Where are those ramparts of Nineveh, those walls of Babylon, those palaces of Perse-polis, those temples of Balbec and of Jerusalem? Where are those fleets of Tyre, those dock-yards of Arad, those workshops of Sidon, and that multitude of mariners, pilots, merchants, and soldiers? Where those husbandmen, those harvests, that picture of animated nature, of which the Earth seemed proud? Alas! I have traversed this desolate country, I have visited the places that were the theatre of so much splendour, and I have beheld nothing but solitude and desertion!—Thus reflecting, that if the places before me had once exhibited this animated picture; who, said I to myself, can assure me that the present desolation will not one day be the lot of our own country? Who knows but that hereafter some traveller like myself will sit down upon the banks of the Seine, the Thames, or the Zuyder Zee, where now, in the tumult of enjoyment, the heart and the eyes are too slow to take in the multitude of sensations; who knows but he will sit down solitary amid silent ruins, and weep a people inurned, and their greatness changed into an empty name? "—

The third is by one of our British poets, Henry Kirke White;

H. K. White, born 1785; died, 1806.

who, in his poem entitled Time, says:—

"Where now is Britain? where her laurell'd names,
Her palaces and halls? Dash'd in the dust.
—Oe'r her marts,
Her crowded ports, brood Silence; and the cry
Of the lone curlew, and the pensive dash
Of distant billows, breaks alone the void.
Even as the savage sits upon the stone
That marks where stood her capitals, and hears
The bittern booming in the weeds, he shrinks
From the dismaying solitude."—

The fourth is by another of our celebrated British poets, Shelley,

Shelley, born, 1792; died (drowned), 1823.

(though not written this time in rhyme but in good English prose,)—in his Dedication to Peter Bell, Shelley says:—

—"In the firm expectation, that when London shall be an habitation of bitterns, when St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey shall stand, shapeless and nameless ruins in the midst of an unpeopled marsh; and when the piers of Waterloo Bridge shall become the nuclei of islets of reeds and osiers, and cast the jagged shadows of their broken arches on the solitary stream, some Transatlantic commentator will be weighing in the scales of some new and now unimagined system of criticism the respective merits of the Bells and the Fudges, and their historians."—

The fifth, and last, and strongest of all, (though doubtlessly written much earlier in time than those two last
quoted,)—the one in particular wherein the very term of New Zealander is used;—is to be found in the able
preface to the English 4 to edition of La Billardiere's celebrated Voyage to these seas in search of the
unfortunate La Perouze; undertaken in 1791-1794; and a translation of the Work published in London in 1800.

More properly, this French Expedition of two frigates (Recherche and Esperance), was commanded by
General D'Entrecasteaux; M. J. J. Labillardiere being the Naturalist on board, who wrote the account of the
Voyage.

And as this work (the large 4 to edition, containing the Translator's preface,) is scarce and little known, and
probably but few if any copies here among us, I shall take the liberty of quoting the more largely from it;
especially as some of the words used therein, and that more than 80 years ago, seem to be already (in part) on
the way to their fulfilment, and, therefore, will prove to us, Colonists, very interesting. The writer says:—

"Having mentioned Providence, a word not very common in some of our modern Voyages, we are tempted
to add a consideration which has often occurred to our minds, in contemplating the probable issue of that zeal
for discovering and corresponding with distant regions, which has long animated the maritime powers of
Europe. Without obstricting our own sentiments on the reader, we may be permitted to ask,—whether
appearances do not justify a conjecture, that the Great Arbiter of the destinies of nations may render that zeal
subservient to the moral and intellectual, not to say the religious, improvement, and the consequent happiness,
of our whole species? or, whether, as has hitherto generally happened, the advantages of civilisation may not,
in the progress of events, be transferred to the European, who have but too little prized them, to those
remote countries which they have been so diligently exploring? If so, the period may arrive, when New Zealand
may produce her Lockes, her Newtons, and her Montesqueius; and when great nations in the immediate region
of New Holland, may send their navigators, philosophers, and antiquaries, to contemplate the ruins of ancient
London and Paris, and to trace the languid remains of the arts and sciences in this quarter of the globe. Who
can tell, whether the rudiments of some great future empire may not already exist at Botany Bay? "—

A few more observations and I close.

First, then, I would remind you, that the writings of all those Authors from whom I have just quoted, must
certainly have been well-known to Lord Macaulay, for they were among the chiepest and most notable Books of
his early days; and that he was an extensive reader his works clearly show.

Second, that this last work I have quoted from, the French Voyage in search of the unfortunate La Perouze,
was one that made a great noise throughout Europe. Not merely on account of the mysterious loss of La
Perouze and his ships, and the great amount of interest it had excited; (following, too, so closely as it did, the
death of the French navigator Marion and 28 of his crew at the Bay of Islands, and the killing of a whole boat's
crew of 10 men belonging to Capt. Furneaux's ship,—which was Capt. Cook's consort-vessel on his second
voyage to New Zealand;) but also owing to this very voyage of La Billardiere being the next great Expedition
fitted out by the French Government to these seas after Capt. Cook's latest discoveries.

Hence, like those other Voyages to the South Seas and to New Zealand in particular of our celebrated
English navigator Cook, the great French Voyage (including that of La Perouze as far as it was known) was a
new and fresh work of surpassing interest to all Europe.

The narrative of the Voyage is excellently well written, it gives a pleasing account of their interview with the
New Zealanders at North Cape; and of their sojourn among the hospitable Tasmanians, (indeed, it contains
the best account that I know, of an early visit to that unfortunate race!)—it contains many plates of new and
interesting objects; and it abounds in discoveries in many branches of Natural Science, particularly in Botany.
Several of our New Zealand plants bear the honoured name of this early intrepid Naturalist. He discovered and
described the Blue Gum tree (Eucalyptus globulus), with other species of that genus. His name is also
perpetuated in his large work on the Botany of New Holland, or Australia, then an unknown Country to Europe
and the civilized world, (Nova Hollandiae Plantarum Specimen, 2 vols. 4 to.)
especially to Englishmen and the young of Macaulay's juvenile years;—much what some of us (elders) may
remember as to how thoroughly we enjoyed the Voyages of Capt. Cook;—and therefore must also have been
seen and read by Macaulay; and such being the case, it was impossible for him to overlook or forget the very
striking simile of the New Zealander.

In conclusion, I may say, that in the letter I wrote to the Auckland Paper, above alluded to, I had also
mentioned my belief in the many plagiarisms of Lord Macaulay, as shown in not a few instances in his
Works,—patent to the close and large reader; and of which I firmly believe this idea culminating in the
travelling New Zealander, to be one. But, after all, it is difficult to say of a learned and comprehensive reader,
having also a capacious memory,—what really constitutes a plagiarism. Be this as it may, one thing I think I
have pretty clearly shown in this my paper, that that simile of the New Zealander visiting London, and
sketching and meditating among her ruins, did not originate with Lord Macaulay; and, therefore, should not be
continually quoted as his.

Printed at the "Daily Telegraph" Office, Tennyson Street, Napier.
The Companies Act, 1882.

Company Limited by Shares.

Memorandum of Association of the Dunedin City and Suburban Tramways Company, Limited.

1. The name of the Company is the DUNEDIN CITY AND SUBURBAN TRAMWAYS COMPANY, LIMITED.
2. The registered office of the Company is to be established in Dunedin, in the Provinicial District of Otago, in New Zealand.
3. The objects for which the Company is established are:—
   • To purchase or otherwise acquire the Tramways now being worked and maintained by David Proudfoot, and which have been laid by him, in, through, over, and along certain streets, roads, and places in the City of Dunedin and the Suburbs and surrounding Districts, pursuant to the provisions of the "Tramways Act, 1872," together with the rights and privileges, land, live and dead stock, chattels, and effects granted to or used by him in connection therewith, or in any way belonging thereto, and the omnibuses now being worked and maintained by the said David Proudfoot, together with the goodwill of the said David Proudfoot in his businesses of a Tramway and Omnibus Proprietor, and for that purpose to adopt and carry into effect, either with or without modification, an agreement dated the sixth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, and also a further agreement endorsed thereon, dated the thirtieth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, both made between the said David Proudfoot of the one part, and William Isaac, as Trustee for and on behalf of the Company, of the other part, which agreements have, for the purpose of identification, been endorsed with the signatures of the subscribers hereto.
   • To carry on, maintain, and work the said Tramways in the same manner as the same have been heretofore worked by the said David Proudfoot, or in such other manner as may be deemed expedient, and also to make, equip, work, and maintain all such other Tramways in the City of Dunedin and the Suburbs and surrounding Districts, as under any deed granting any rights or privileges to the said David Proudfoot it is expressly provided shall be or may be made, equipped, worked, and maintained by the said David Proudfoot, but which Tramways have not yet been made, equipped, or worked by him, and also to make equip, work, and maintain all such other Tramways in the City of Dunedin and the Suburbs and surrounding Districts, or elsewhere in the Colony of New Zealand as may from time to time be determined upon, pursuant to and under the provisions of "The Tramways Act, 1872," or any amendment or re-enactment thereof.
   • To run omnibuses and vans in connection with, or independently of, any tramways belonging to or worked by the Company; and generally to carry on the business of a Tramway and Omnibus Proprietor and Carrier of passengers and goods.
   • To manufacture, buy, sell, and deal in tramway carriages and omnibuses, and other chattels and things used or which may at any time hereafter be used in the making, maintenance, equipment, and working of tramways and omnibuses.
   • To enter into contracts with any person or company as to interchange of traffic, running powers, or otherwise, which this Company may think calculated to develop its business.
   • To apply for, and obtain, under the provisions of "The Tramways Act, 1872," or any amendment or re-enact- ment thereof, all Orders in Council which may be requisite for authorising the construction of any new lines of tramway; and with that object to obtain the consent of any local authority having jurisdiction within the meaning of the said Act thereto; and generally to enter into such arrangements with such local authority for the right of user of any streets, roads, or places, within the jurisdiction of such local authority, and all other incidental rights and privileges, upon such terms and conditions as the Company shall deem advisable.
• To apply for, and obtain a renewal of any right of user, and all other incidental rights and privileges which already have been, or may at any time hereafter be, granted for the purpose of any tramway line, or for, or in respect of any road, street, or place, in, through, over, or along which such tramway line may now, or at any time hereafter, be worked or maintained, from the local authority having jurisdiction in the matter, within the meaning of "The Tramways Act, 1872," or any amendment or re-enactment thereof, upon such terms and conditions as the Company shall deem advisable.

• To make and maintain along the line of or in connection with any tramways belonging to or worked by the Company, electric and other telegraphs or telephones, or any other apparatus for transmitting sound, and to confer upon any company or person the right to make any telegraph, telephone, or other apparatus which the Company is hereby authorised to make.

• To purchase, take on lease, or in exchange, hire, or otherwise acquire any real and personal property, and any rights or privileges which the Company may think necessary or convenient for the purpose of its business; and in particular, any lands, buildings, easements, plant, machinery, carriages, omnibuses, horses, locomotives, and other stock-in-trade.

• To borrow or raise money by the issue of or upon bonds, debentures, bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other obligations or securities of the Company, or by mortgage or charge of all or any part of the property of the Company (both present and future), and of its uncalled capital for the time being, or in such other manner as the Company shall think fit.

• To purchase, or otherwise acquire and undertake, all or any part of the business, property, and liabilities of any other company, or of any person or partnership, carrying on any business which this Company is authorised to carry on.

• To promote any other Company for the purpose of acquiring all or any part of the property and liabilities of this Company, and to take, or otherwise acquire and hold, shares in any such Company, and to guarantee the payment of any debentures or other securities issued by any such Company.

• To make, accept, indorse, and execute, promissory notes bills of exchange, and other negotiable instruments.

• To construct, maintain, and alter any buildings or works necessary or convenient for the purposes of the Company.

• To invest the moneys of the Company, not immediately required, upon such securities as may from time to time be determined.

• To apply for, obtain, and acquire, any waste lands of the Crown, which, pursuant to the Tramways Act, 1872, or any amendment or re-enactment thereof, shall hereafter by any Legislative enactment be set apart as a grant for the encouragement of the construction of tramways, and also to purchase or otherwise acquire any other lands whatsoever which the Company may deem advisable so to do, although the same may not be required for the purposes of its business.

• To found on any of the lands of the Company towns or villages, with all necessary roads, streets, or other accessories, and to cause all such surveys to be made as may be requisite for that purpose.

• To sell, improve, manage, develop, lease, mortgage, dispose of, or otherwise deal with, all or any part of the property of the Company.

• To do and perform all such acts and things, execute such powers, enter into such agreements and arrangements, and acquire such rights and privileges as by the Tramways Act, 1872, or any amendment or re-enactment thereof are now, or may hereafter be, authorised to be done, performed, executed, entered into, and acquired.

• Generally to do all such things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects, or any of them.

4. The liability of the Members is limited.

5. The Capital of the Company is L100,000, divided into 100,000 shares of L1 each.

We, the several persons whose names and addresses are subscribed, are desirous of being formed into a Company in pursuance of this Memorandum of Association, and we respectively agree to take the number of shares in the capital of the Company set opposite our respective names.

Dated the twenty-second day of February, 1883.

Witness to the above signatures.

William A. Stout,

Preliminary.

1. The regulations contained in the Table marked A in the first Schedule to the Companies Act, 1882, shall not apply to the Company.

2. In these presents, unless there be something in the subject or context inconsistent therewith—
   "The Office" means the registered office for the time being of the Company.
   "The Register" means the register of members to be kept pursuant to Section 35 of the Companies Act, 1882.
   "Month" means calendar month.
   "In Writing" means written or printed, or partly written and partly printed.
   Words importing the singular only include the plural number, and vice versâ.
   Words importing the masculine gender include the feminine gender.
   Words importing persons include corporations.

3. The Directors shall forthwith adopt, on behalf of the Company, an agreement dated the sixth day of November, 1882, and also a further agreement dated the ninth day of December, 1882, both mentioned in the Memorandum of Association, and shall carry the same into effect, with full power, nevertheless, at any time and from time to time, to agree to any modifications in the terms thereof which they shall think fit.

4. The Directors shall not employ the funds of the Company or any part thereof in the purchase of shares of the Company.

5. The business of the Company may be commenced as soon after the incorporation of the Company as the Directors in their absolute discretion shall think fit, and notwithstanding that part only of the shares may have been taken.

6. The shares shall be under the control of the Directors, who may allot or otherwise dispose of the same to such persons on such terms and conditions, and at such times as the Directors think fit.

7. The Company may make arrangements, upon the issue of shares, for a difference between the holders of such shares in the amount of calls to be paid, and the time of payment of such calls.

8. If by the conditions of allotment of any shares, the whole or part of the amount thereof shall be payable by instalments, every such instalment shall, when due, be paid to the Company by the holder of the share.

9. The joint holders of a share shall be severally as well as jointly liable for the payment of all instalments and calls due in respect of such share.

10. In case of the death of any one or more of the joint holders of any share or stock, the survivors shall be the only persons recognised by the Company as having any title to or interest in such shares or stock.

Certificates.

11. The certificates of title to shares or stock shall be issued under the seal of the Company, and signed in such manner as the Directors shall prescribe.

12. Every Member shall be entitled to one certificate for all the shares or stock registered in his name, or to several certificates each for a part of such shares or stock. Every certificate of shares shall specify the number of the share in respect of which it is issued, and the amount paid up thereon.

13. If any certificate be worn out or defaced, then upon production thereto to the Directors, they may order the same to be cancelled, and may issue a new certificate in lieu thereof; and if any certificate be lost or destroyed, then upon proof thereof to the satisfaction of the Directors, or in default of proof on such indemnity as the Directors deem adequate being given, a new certificate in lieu thereof shall be given to the party entitled to such lost or destroyed certificate.

14. The sum of two shillings and sixpence, or such smaller sum as the Directors may determine shall be
paid to the Company for every certificate issued.

15. The certificates of shares or stock registered in the names of two or more persons shall be delivered to the person first named on the register in respect thereof.

Calls.

16. The Directors may from time to time make such calls as they think fit upon the members in respect of all moneys unpaid on the shares held by them and not by the conditions of allotment thereof made payable at fixed times, and each Member shall pay the amount of every call so made on him to the persons and at the time and place appointed by the Directors. A call may be made payable either in one sum or by two or more instalments.

17. A call shall be deemed to have been made at the time when the resolution of the Directors authorising such call was passed.

18. One month's notice at the least of any call shall be given, specifying the time and place of payment, and to whom such call shall be paid.

19. If the sum payable in respect of any call or instalment is not paid on or before the day appointed for payment thereof, the holder for the time being of the share in respect of which the call shall have been made or the instalments shall be due, shall pay interest for the same at the rate of £10 per cent, per annum from the day appointed for payment thereof to the time of the actual payment. But the Directors may, where they think fit remit altogether or in part any sum becoming payable for interest under this clause.

20. The Directors may receive from any member willing to advance the same, and upon such terms and conditions as they think fit, all or any part of the moneys due upon the shares held by such member beyond the sums paid up or payable thereon, and in particular such money may be received upon the terms that interest shall be paid thereon irrespective of profits, and that the Company may repay the same or any part thereof when the Directors think fit.

21. The Company may pay dividends in proportion to the amounts called and paid up on each share in cases where a larger amount is paid up on some shares than on others.

Transfer of Shares or Stock.

22. Shares and stock shall be transferable subject to the following provisions:—The instrument of transfer shall be executed both by the transferor and the transferee, and the transferor shall be deemed to remain the holder of such shares or stock until the name of the transferee is entered in the register in respect thereof.

23. The instrument of transfer of any share shall be in the following form, or as near thereto as circumstances will admit—

I, A B, of______, in consideration of the sum of______pounds, paid to me by C D, of______do hereby transfer to the said C D, the share (or shares) numbered______standing in my name in the Books of The Dunedin City and Suburban Tramways Company, Limited, to hold unto the said C D, his executors, administrators, and assigns, subject to the several conditions on which I hold the same at the time of the execution hereof, and I, the said C D, do hereby agree to take the said share (or shares) subject to the same conditions.

As witness our hands the______clay of

24. The Directors may decline to register any transfer of shares or stock upon which the Company has a lien, and in the case of shares not fully paid up, may refuse to register or transfer to a transferee of whom they do not approve.

25. No transfer of shares or stock shall be made to an infant or person of unsound mind, nor, except under "The Married Women's Property Protection Act, 1880," to a married woman.

26. Every instrument of transfer shall be delivered to the Company for registration accompanied by the certificate of the share or stock to be transferred, and such other evidence as the Directors may require to prove the title of the transferor or his right to transfer the shares or stock.

27. All instruments of transfer which shall be registered shall be retained by the Company, but any instrument of transfer which the Directors may decline to register shall be returned to the person depositing the same.

28. A fee, not exceeding two shillings and sixpence, may be charged for each transfer, and shall, if required by the Directors, be paid before the registration thereof. The transfer books may be closed during such time as the Directors think fit, not exceeding in the whole thirty days in each year.

Transmission of Shares or Stock.
29. The executors or administrators of a deceased Member (not being one of several joint holders) shall be the only persons recognised by the Company as having any title to the shares or stock registered in the name of such Member.

30. Any parent or guardian of any infant Member, or any committee of a lunatic Member, or any person becoming entitled to shares or stock in consequence of the death of any Member or of the marriage of any female Member, or in any other way than by transfer, upon producing such evidence that he sustains the character in respect of which he proposes to act under this clause, or of his title as the Directors think sufficient, may; with the consent of the Directors, be registered himself as a Member in respect of such shares or stock, or, subject to the regulations as to transfer hereinbefore contained, may transfer the same to some other person.

Share Warrants to Bearer.

31. The Company, with respect to fully paid-up shares or stock, may issue warrants (hereinafter called "share warrants,"") stating that the bearer is entitled to the shares or stock herein specified, and may provide by coupons or otherwise for the payment of future dividends on the shares or stock included in such warrants.

32. The Directors may determine, and from time to time vary, the conditions upon which share warrants shall be issued, and in particular upon which a new share warrant or coupon will be issued in the place of one worn out, defaced, lost, or destroyed, upon which dividends will be payable, and upon which the bearer of a share warrant shall be entitled to attend and vote at General Meetings, and upon which a share warrant may be surrendered, and the name of the holder entered in the register in respect of the share or stock therein specified. Subject to such conditions and to these presents, the bearer of a share warrant shall be a Member to the full extent. The bearer of a share warrant shall be subject to such conditions whether made before or after the issue of such warrant.

Forfeiture of Shares.

33. If any Member fail to pay any call or instalment on or before the time appointed for the payment of the same the Directors may at any time thereafter during such time as the call or instalment remains unpaid, serve a notice on such Member, requiring him to pay the same; together with any interest that may have accrued, and all expenses that may have been incurred by the Company by reason of such non-payment.

34. The notice shall name a day (not being less than fourteen days from the date of the notice) and a place or places on and at which such call or instalment and such interest and expenses as aforesaid are to be paid. The notice shall also state that in the event of non-payment at or before the time, and at the place appointed, the shares in respect of which the call was made, or instalment is payable, will be liable to be forfeited.

35. If the requisitions of any such notice as aforesaid are not complied with, any shares in respect of which such notice has been given may, at any time thereafter before payment of all calls, or instalments, interest, and expenses due in respect thereof, be forfeited by a resolution of the Directors to that effect.

36. Any share so forfeited shall be deemed to be the property of the Company; and the Directors may sell, re-allot, or otherwise dispose of the same in such manner as they think fit.

37. Any Member whose shares have been forfeited shall, notwithstanding, be liable to pay, and shall forthwith pay to the Company all calls, instalments, interest, and expenses owing upon or in respect of such shares at the time of the forfeiture, together with interest thereon from the time of forfeiture, until payment at the rate of £10 per cent, per annum; and the Directors shall enforce the payment of such moneys or any part thereof, if they think fit, but not otherwise.

Lien.

38. The Company shall have a first and paramount lien upon all the shares and stock registered in the name of each Member (whether solely or jointly with others) for his debts, liabilities and engagements, solely, or jointly with any other person, to or with the Company, whether the period for the payment, fulfilment or discharge thereof shall have actually arrived or not.

39. For the purpose of enforcing such lien the Directors may sell the shares or stock subject thereto without any notice to [unclear: and] consent by the holder of such shares or stock or any other person; but no sale shall be made unless and until default [unclear: be] made in the payment, fulfilment, or discharge of such [unclear: debit] liabilities, or engagements.

40. The net proceeds of any such sale shall be applied in [unclear: or] towards satisfaction of the debts, liabilities, or engagements, and the residue (if any) paid to such Member or his execution administrators or assigns.
Certificate on Sale of Shares.

41. Where any shares or stock have been sold in purported exercise of the powers given by Clauses 36 and 39 hereof respectively, and a certificate of title under the seal of the Company has been issued to the purchaser, such certificate shall be conclusive evidence that the sale has been duly made, and the validity thereof shall not be impeached by the former holder of the shares or stock; and the remedy of any Member or person aggrieved by such sale shall be in damages only, and against the Company exclusively.

Conversion of Shares into Stock.

42. The Company (in General Meeting) may convert any paid-up shares into stock. When any shares have been converted into stock, the several holders of such stock may thenceforth transfer their respective interests therein, or any part of such interests, in the manner and subject to the regulations herein-before provided: Provided always that the Directors may from time to time, if they think fit, fix the minimum amount of stock transferable, and direct that fractions of a pound shall not be dealt with, but with power at their discretion to waive such rules in any particular case.

43. The several holders of stock shall be entitled to participate in the dividends and profits of the Company according to the amount of their respective interests in such stock; and such interests shall, in proportion to the amount thereof, confer on the holders thereof respectively the same privileges and advantages for the purpose of voting at meetings of the Company, and for other purposes, as would have been conferred by shares of equal amount in the capital of the Company, but so that none of such privileges or advantages, except the participation in the dividends and profits of the Company, shall be conferred by any such aliquot part of Consolidated Stock as would not, if existing in shares, have conferred such privileges or advantages.

Increase of Capital and Preference Shares.

44. The Company may from time to time increase the capital by the creation of new shares of such amount as may be deemed expedient.

45. The new shares, and also any shares in the original capital for the time being unissued, may be issued upon such terms and conditions, and with such rights and privileges annexed thereto, as the Directors shall determine, and in particular such shares may be issued with a preferential or qualified right to dividends and in the distribution of assets of the Company, and with a special or without any right of voting.

46. The Company may before the issue of any new shares determine that the same, or any of them, shall be offered in the first instance to all the then members in proportion to the amount of the capital held by them, or make any other provisions as to the issue and allotment of the new shares, but in default of any such determination, or so far as the same shall not extend, the new shares shall be subject to Clause 6 hereof.

47. Except so far as otherwise provided by the conditions of issue or by these presents, any capital raised by the creation of new shares shall be considered part of the original capital, and shall be subject to the provisions herein contained with reference to the payment of calls and instalments, transfer and transmission, forfeiture, lien, surrender, and otherwise.

Reduction of Capital Consolidation, and Subdivision of Shares.

48. The Company may from time to time reduce its capital, and may by consolidation or subdivision divide the capital or any part thereof into shares of larger or smaller nominal amount.

49. The Company may cancel any shares which have not been taken or agreed to be taken by any person.

50. The Directors may, with the sanction of a General Meeting, accept from any member, on such terms and condition as shall be agreed, a surrender of his shares or stock or any [unclear: pay] thereof.

Borrowing Powers.

51. The Directors shall have full power to do everything necessary or requisite to be done to carry out and give effect [unclear: to] the said agreements mentioned in the memorandum of association in so far as the same relate to the payment to David Proudfoot therein named, of the purchase money therein mentioned, and [unclear: the] giving security for the payment thereof, or of any part thereof as therein provided.

52. The Directors may from time to time, at their [unclear: discretions] borrow from the Directors or other persons any sum or sums [unclear: of] money for the purposes of the Company, but so that the [unclear:
money] at any one time owing shall not, without the sanction of a General Meeting, exceed the nominal amount of the capital. [unclear: The] Directors may raise or secure the repayment of such moneys [unclear: in] such manner and upon such terms and conditions in all [unclear: respected] as they think fit, and in particular by the issue of debentures [unclear: on] bonds of the Company, or by the creation of debenture stock, [unclear: on] by making, drawing, accepting, or indorsing on behalf of the Company any promissory notes or bills of exchange, or giving [unclear: on] issuing any other security of the Company, or by mortgage [unclear: on] charge of all or any part of the property (both present [unclear: and] future) of the Company and of its uncalled capital for the [unclear: time] being.

53. Every debenture or other instrument for securing the payment of money issued by the Company may be so framed that the moneys thereby secured shall be assignable free from any equities between the Company and the person to whom the [unclear: same] may be issued. Any debentures, bonds, or other [unclear: instruments] or securities may be issued at a discount, premium or otherwise and with any special privileges as to redemption, [unclear: surrender] drawings, allotment of shares or otherwise.

54. The Directors shall cause a proper register to be kept [unclear: in] accordance with Section 78 of the Companies Act, 1882, of [unclear: all] mortgages and charges specially affecting the property of the Company.

55. If any uncalled capital of the Company is included [unclear: in] or charged by any mortgage or other security the Directors may delegate to any person as Trustee for the person in whose favour such mortgage or security is executed, the power to make calls on the Members in respect of such uncalled capital, and to sue in the name of the Company or otherwise for the recovery of moneys becoming due in respect of calls so made, and to give valid receipts for such moneys; and the powers so delegated shall subsist, during the continuance of the mortgage or security, notwithstanding any change of Directors, and shall be assignable.

General Meetings.

56. The first General Meetings shall be held at such time, not being more than four months after the registration of the Memorandum of Association of the Company, and at such place as the Directors may determine. This meeting shall be called the Statutory Meeting.

57. Subsequent General Meetings shall be held at such time and place as may be prescribed by the Company in General Meeting, and if no other time or place is prescribed, a General Meeting shall be held in the month of January in every year, at such time and place as may be determined by the Directors.

58. The General Meetings mentioned in the last preceding clauses shall be called Ordinary General Meetings, all other meetings of this Company shall be called Extraordinary General Meetings.

59. The Directors may, whenever they think fit, and they shall upon a requisition made in writing by Members holding in the aggregate not less than 5000 shares, convene an Extraordinary Meeting.

60. Any such requisition shall specify the objects of the meeting required and shall be signed by the members making the same, and shall be deposited at the office.

61. In case the Directors, for fourteen days after such deposit, fail to convene an Extraordinary Meeting, to be held within twenty-eight days after such deposit, the requisitionists or any other members holding the like proportion of the capital may themselves convene a meeting, but no such requisition shall remain in force for more than two calendar months from the time when the same shall be deposited at the office.

62. Seven clear days' notice at the least specifying the place, day and hour of meeting, and in case of an Extraordinary Meeting, the purpose for which it is to be held shall be given, either by advertisement or by notice sent by post, or otherwise served as hereinafter provided. Whenever any meeting [unclear: is] adjourned for twenty-one days or more, at least five days' [unclear: notice] of the place and hour of meeting of such adjourned Meeting shall be given in like manner.

63. The accidental omission to give any such notice to any of the Members shall not invalidate any resolution passed at any such meeting.

Proceedings at General Meetings.

64. The business of any Ordinary Meeting shall be to [unclear: receive] and consider the statement of income and expenditure, the balance-sheet, the ordinary reports of the Directors and [unclear: Auditors,] to elect Directors and other officers in the place of those [unclear: retiring] by rotation, to declare dividends, and to transact any other business which under these presents ought to be transacted [unclear: at] any Ordinary Meeting. All other business shall be [unclear: deemed] special, and shall be transacted at an Extraordinary Meeting.

65. Five Members personally present shall be a quorum [unclear: for a] General Meeting for the choice of a chairman, the declaration [unclear: of] a dividend, and the adjournment of a meeting. For all other purposes the
quorum for a General Meeting shall be ten [unclear: members] personally present, holding or representing by proxy not less than 2000 shares. No business shall be transacted at any General Meeting unless the requisite quorum be present at the commencement of the business.

66. The Chairman of the Directors shall be entitled to take the chair at every General Meeting, or if there be no chairman or if at any Meeting he shall not be present within [unclear: fifteen] minutes after the time appointed for holding such meeting, [unclear: the] Directors present, or if they decline, the Members present shall choose a Director as chairman, and if no Director be present, [unclear: on] all the Directors present decline to preside, then the Member present shall choose one of their number to be Chairman.

67. If within half-an-hour from the time appointed for the meeting a quorum is not present, the meeting, if convened [unclear: upon] such requisition as aforesaid, shall be dissolved; but in any [unclear: other] case it shall stand adjourned to the same day in the next week at the same time and place; and if at such Adjourned Meeting [unclear: of] quorum is not present, those Members who are present shall [unclear: be] a quorum, and may transact the business for which the meeting was called.

68. Every motion submitted to a meeting shall [unclear: unless] decided unanimously) be decided in the first instance by a [unclear: short] of hands; and in the case of an equality of votes, the Chairman shall both on show of hands and at the poll have a casting vote in addition to the vote or votes to which he may be entitled as a Member.

69. At any General Meeting (unless a poll is demanded by at least five Members, or by a Member or Members holding or representing by proxy or entitled to vote in respect of at least one-fifth part of the capital represented at the meeting) a declaration by the Chairman that a resolution has been carried, or carried by a particular majority, or lost or not carried by a particular majority, and an entry to that effect entered in the book of proceedings of the Company, shall be conclusive evidence of the fact without proof of the number or proportion of the votes recorded in favour of or against such resolution.

70. If a poll is demanded as aforesaid, it shall be taken in such manner and at such time and place, and either immediately or after an interval or adjournment (not exceeding seven days), as the Chairman of the meeting directs; and the result of the poll shall be deemed to be the resolution of the meeting at which the poll was demanded.

71. The Chairman of a General Meeting may, with the consent of the meeting, adjourn the same from time to time and from place to place, but no business shall be transacted at any adjourned meeting other than the business left unfinished at the meeting from which the adjournment took place. The demand of a poll shall not prevent the continuance of a meeting for the transaction of any business other than the question on which a poll has been demanded.

**Votes of Members.**

72. Every Member shall have one vote for every share held by him up to ten, and he shall have an additional vote for every ten shares beyond the first ten up to one thousand, and an additional vote for every one hundred shares beyond the first thousand up to five thousand, and an additional vote for every five hundred shares beyond the first five thousand up to twenty thousand, but no member shall have any right of voting in respect of more than 20,000 shares.

73. Any parent, guardian, or other person entitled under clause 30 hereof, to transfer any shares or stock, may vote at any General Meeting in respect thereof, in the same manner as if [unclear: he] were the registered holder of such shares or stock, provided that forty-eight hours at least before the time of holding the meeting at which he proposes to vote, he shall satisfy the Directors of his right to transfer such shares or stock, or that the Directors shall previously to such meeting have admitted his right to vote thereat in respect of such shares or stock.

74. If there be joint holders of any share or stock, the Member whose name stands first on the register, and no other shall be entitled to vote in respect of such shares or stock, [unclear: be] the other or others of the joint holders shall be entitled [unclear: to be] present at any General Meeting.

75. No poll shall be demanded on the election of a Chairman of a meeting, or upon any question of adjournment.

76. Members may appear and vote at meetings, either personally or by proxy, or by their attorneys, duly appointed [unclear: under] power of attorney. The instrument appointing a proxy, and [unclear: every] power of attorney, or a verified copy thereof, shall be deposited [unclear: of] the office of the Company not less than forty-eight hours before the time for holding the meeting at which the person name therein proposes to vote, and every attorney may appoint a [unclear: proudfoot] for the Member he represents.

77. The instrument appointing a proxy shall be in [unclear: writing] under the hand of the appointor, or, if such appointor is a [unclear: un] poration, under its common seal, and shall be attested by one more witnesses.
No person shall be appointed a proxy who not a member of the Company and qualified to vote, and no [unclear: instrument] appointing a proxy shall be valid after the [unclear: expiration] of twelve months from the date of its execution.

78. A vote given in accordance with the terms of an [unclear: instrument] of proxy shall be valid, notwithstanding the previous [unclear: de] of the principal or revocation of the appointment, unless [unclear: not] in writing of the death or revocation shall have been the office of the Company twenty-four hours at the least [unclear: before] the meeting.

79. Holders of share warrants shall not be entitled to [unclear: by] proxy in respect of the shares or stock included in [unclear: any] warrants.

80. The instruments of proxy for a specified meeting shall be in the form or to the effect following:—

"The Dunedin City and Suburban Tramways Company, Limited."

"I, of__________, being a Member of the Dunedin City and Suburban Tramways Company, Limited, hereby appoint__________of__________, (or, failing him,__________of__________, failing__________him,__________of__________) as my proxy, to vote for me and on my behalf at the Ordinary (or Extraordinary, as the case may be) General Meeting of the Company, to be held on the______day of______, and at any adjournment thereof (or at any meeting that may be held in the year______).

As witness my hand, this______day of
Signed by the said______in the presence of

81. No Member shall be entitled to be present or to vote on any question, either personally or by proxy, or as proxy for another Member at any General Meeting, or upon a poll, or be reckoned in a quorum, whilst any call or other sum shall be due and payable to the Company in respect of any of the shares of such Member.

82. Any resolution passed by the Directors, notice whereof shall be given to the Members in the manner in which notices are hereinafter directed to be given, and which shall within one month after it shall have so passed, be ratified and confirmed in writing by Members entitled in the aggregate to three-fifths of the votes, shall be as valid and effectual as a resolution of a General Meeting, but this clause shall not apply to a resolution for winding up the Company, or to a resolution passed in respect of any matter which by statute or these presents ought to be dealt with by special or extraordinary resolution.

Directors.

83. The number of Directors shall not be less than seven or more than nine. The following persons shall be the first Directors:—WILLIAM JAMES MUDIE LARNACH, ROBERT ARTHUR LAWSON, HENDERSON LAW, EDWARD BOWES CARGILL, WILLIAM ISAAC, HENRY JOHN WALTER, WILLIAM BALDWIN, DONALD STRONACH, AND DAVID PROUDFOOT, and they shall hold office until the first Ordinary General Meeting in the year 1884.

84. The qualification of a Director shall be the holding of shares or stock in the Company of the nominal value of £500. A Director may act before acquiring his qualification.

85. A Director may resign upon giving one month's notice in writing to the Board of Directors, and such resignation shall take effect upon the expiration of such notice.

86. As remuneration for his services, each Director shall be paid out of the Company's funds the sum of one guinea for each meeting of the Directors at which he shall attend.

87. The continuing Directors may act and their proceedings shall be valid notwithstanding any vacancy in their body so long as there remain three Directors duly qualified to act.

88. The office of Director shall be vacated:—

• If he become or be adjudicated bankrupt, or [unclear: execute] any assignment for the benefit of or compound with [unclear: his] creditors.
• If he be found a lunatic or become of [unclear: unsound] mind.
• If he shall absent himself from the meetings of the Directors during a period of three calendar months without special leave of absence from the Directors.
• If he ceases to hold the required amount of [unclear: shares] or stock to qualify him for office, or does not acquire [unclear: the] same within three months from his appointment or [unclear: election] to office.

89. No Director, or intended Director, shall be [unclear: disqualified] by his office from contracting with the Company either as [unclear: vendor] or otherwise, nor shall any such contract or any contract [unclear: on] arrangement entered into by or on behalf of the Company [unclear: with] any company, corporation, or partnership of, or in which any Director shall be a member or otherwise interested, be avoided nor shall any Director so contracting, or being such member, [unclear: or] so interested, be liable to account to the Company.
for any [unclear: profit] realized by any such contract or arrangement by reason only [unclear: of] such Director holding that office, or of the fiduciary [unclear: relation] thereby established; but no such Director shall vote in respect [unclear: of] any such contract or arrangement, and he shall be bound to dis- close the nature of his interest therein at the Meeting of the Directors at which the contract or arrangement is resolved, or if his interest then exists, or, in any other case, at the first meeting of the Directors after the acquisition of his interest.

**Rotation of Directors.**

90. At the Ordinary General Meeting to be held in the year 1884, and at every succeeding Ordinary General Meeting one-third of the Directors, or if their number is not a multiple of three, then the number nearest to, but not exceeding one-third shall retire from office.

91. The one-third, or other nearest number, to retire at the Ordinary Meeting to be held in the year 1884, shall, unless the Directors agree among themselves, be determined by ballot. In every subsequent year the one-third or other nearest number who have been longest in office, since the last election or appointment, shall retire As between two or more Directors who have been in office for the like period the Director to retire shall in default of agreement between them be selected by ballot.

92. A retiring Director shall be eligible for re-election.

93. The Company at any General Meeting at which any Directors retire in manner aforesaid, shall fill up the vacated offices by electing a like number of persons to be Directors.

94. If at any General Meeting at which an election of Directors ought to take place, the places of the retiring Directors are not filled up, the retiring Directors or such of them as have not had their places filled up, shall continue in office until the Ordinary Meeting in the next year, and so on from year to year until their places are filled up, unless it shall be determined at such General meeting to reduce the number of Directors. A Director retiring by rotation at any General Meeting shall be deemed to continue in office until the close of the meeting.

95. The Company in General Meeting may from time to time increase or reduce the number of Directors, and alter their qualifications, and may also determine in what rotation such increased or reduced number is to go out of office.

96. The Company may by special resolution remove any Director before the expiration of his period of office, and appoint another person in his stead, and the person so appointed shall hold office during such time only as the Director in whose place he is appointed would have held the same if he had not been removed.

97. Any casual vacancy occurring among the Directors may be filled up by the Directors, but any person so chosen shall retain his office so long only as the vacating Director would have retained the same if no vacancy had occurred.

98. No person not being a retiring Director shall, [unclear: unless] recommended by the Directors for election, be eligible [unclear: as a] Director at any General Meeting, unless he or some other Member intending to propose him has, at least seven clear days before the meeting, left at the office of the Company a notice in writing under his hand, signifying his candidature for the office or [unclear: the] intention of some Member to propose him.

**Managing Director.**

99. The Directors may from time to time appoint one of [unclear: their] body to be Managing Director of the Company, either for a fixed term or without any limitation as to the period for which he is to hold such office, and may subject to any contract between him and the Company from time to time remove or dismiss him from office and appoint another in his place.

100. A Managing Director shall not, while he continues [unclear: to] hold that office, be subject to retire by rotation, and he shall not be taken into account in determining the rotation or retirement of Directors, but (subject to the provisions of any contract between him and the Company) he shall be subject to the same provision as to resignation and removal as the other Directors of the Company, and if he cease to hold the office of Director from any cause, shall ipso facto and immediately cease to be a Managing Director.

101. The remuneration of a Managing Director shall [unclear: from] some time to time be fixed by the Directors, and may be by way [unclear: of] salary or commission or participation in profits, or by any or [unclear: all] of those modes, and either in addition to or substitution for any remuneration to which he may be entitled as a Director.

102. The Directors may from time to time entrust to [unclear: and] confer upon a Managing Director for the time being such of the powers exercisable under these presents by the Directors as [unclear: they] may think fit, and may confer such powers for such time, and [unclear: to] be exercised for such objects and
purposes and upon such [unclear: term] and conditions and with such restrictions as they think [unclear: expedited] and may from time to time revoke, withdraw, alter or vary all [unclear: of] any of such powers.

Proceedings of Directors.

103. The Directors may meet together for the despatch of business, adjourn, and otherwise regulate their Meetings as they think fit, and may determine the quorum necessary for the transaction of business, and, until otherwise determined, three Directors shall be a quorum. A Director may, and the Secretary upon the request of a Director shall at any time summon a meeting of the Directors.

104. Questions arising at any Meeting of Directors shall be decided by a majority of votes, and, in case of an equality of votes, the Chairman shall have a second or casting vote.

105. The Directors may elect a Chairman of their Meetings, and may determine the period for which he is to hold office, but if no such Chairman is elected, or if at any meeting the Chairman is not present at the time appointed for holding the same, the Directors present shall choose some one of their number to be Chairman of such Meeting.

106. A meeting of Directors, at which a quorum is present, shall be competent to exercise all or any of the authorities, powers and discretions by or under these presents vested in or exercisable by the Directors generally.

107. The Directors may delegate any of their powers to committees consisting of such Member or Members of their body as they think fit. Any Committee so formed shall, in the exercise of the powers so delegated, conform to any regulations that may from time to time be imposed on it by the Directors.

108. The meetings and proceedings of any such Committee, consisting of two or more Members, shall be governed by the provisions herein contained for regulating the Meeting and proceedings of Directors so far as the same are applicable thereto, and are not superseded by the express terms of the appointment of the Committee.

109. All acts done at any Meeting of the Directors, or of a Committee of Directors, or by any person acting as a Director, shall notwithstanding that it shall afterwards be discovered that there was some defect in the appointment of such Directors or persons acting as aforesaid, or that they or any of them were disqualified, be as valid as if every such person had been duly appointed and was qualified to be a Director.

110. A resolution in writing, signed by all the Directors shall be as valid and effectual as if it had been passed at a Meeting of the Directors duly called and constituted.

111. A Director may hold any other office under the Company in conjunction with his office of Director.

Powers of Directors.

112. The management of the business and the control of the Company shall be vested in the Directors who, in addition to the powers and authorities by these presents expressly conferred upon them, may exercise all such powers and do all such acts and things as may be exercised or done by the Company and are not hereby or by Statute expressly directed or required to be exercised or done by the Company in General Meeting, but subject nevertheless to such regulations not being inconsistent with these presents as may from time to time be made by extraordinary resolution of the Company, but no regulation shall invalidate any prior act of the Directors which would have been valid if such regulation had not been made.

113. Without prejudice to the general powers conferred by the last preceding clause and to the other powers and authorities conferred as aforesaid, it is hereby expressly declared that the Directors shall be entrusted with the following powers:—

- They may pay all or any of the costs, charges, and expenses preliminary and incidental to the promotion, formation, establishment, and registration of the Company.
- They may purchase or otherwise acquire for the Company any property, rights, or privileges which the Company is authorised to acquire at such price and generally on such terms and conditions as they may think fit.
- They may at their discretion pay for any property or rights acquired by, or services rendered to the Company, either wholly or partially, in cash or in shares, bonds, debentures, or other securities of the Company, and any such shares may be issued either as fully paid up or with such amount credited as paid up thereon as may be agreed upon and any such bonds debentures or other securities may be either specifically charged upon all or any part of the: property of the Company and its uncalled capital, or not [unclear: see] charged.
- They may secure the fulfilment of any contracts [unclear: on] engagements entered into by the Company, by mortgage [unclear: on] charge of all or any of the property of the Company (including its unpaid
capital for the time being), or in such other manner as they may think fit.

• They may appoint and at their discretion remove or suspend such managers, secretaries, officers, clerks, agents, and servants for permanent, temporary, or special services as they may from time to time think fit and may invest them with such powers as they may think expedient, and may determine their duties, and fix their salaries or emoluments and may require security in such instances and to such amount as they think fit.

• They may attach to any shares to be issued as the consideration or part of the consideration for any contract with or property acquired by the Company such conditions as to transfer thereof as they think fit.

• They may appoint any person or persons to accept and hold in trust for the Company any property belonging to the Company, or in which it is interested, and may execute and do all such deeds and things as may be requisite to vest the same in such person or persons.

• They may execute, in the name and on behalf of the Company, such mortgages, charges, and other securities on the Company's property (present and future), including its uncalled capital, as they think fit, in favour of any Director or Directors of the Company who may incur, or be about to incur, any personal liability, whether as principal or surety, for the benefit of the Company, and any such instrument may contain a power of sale, and such other powers, covenants, and provisions, as may be agreed on.

• They may institute, conduct, defend, compound, or abandon any legal proceedings by and against the Company or its officers, or otherwise concerning the affairs of the Company, and also may compound and allow time for payment or satisfaction of any debts due, and of any claims or demands by or against the Company.

• They may refer any claims or demands by or against the Company to arbitration, and observe and perform the awards.

• They may make and give receipts, releases, and other discharges for money payable to the Company, and for the claims and demands of the Company.

• They may act on behalf of the Company in all matters relating to bankrupts and insolvents.

• They may invest any of the moneys of the Company not immediately required for the purposes thereof, upon such securities and in such manner as they may think fit, and they may from time to time vary or realize such investments.

• They may give any officer or other person employed by the Company, a commission on the profits of any particular business or transaction, or a share in the general profits of the Company, and such interest, commission, or share of profits shall be treated as part of the working expenses of the Company.

• They may before recommending any dividend set aside out of the profits of the Company, such sum as they think proper, as a reserve fund, to meet contingencies, or for equalizing dividends, or for repairing, improving, and maintaining any of the property of the Company, and for such other purposes as the Directors shall in their absolute discretion think conducive to the interests of the Company, and they may invest the several sums so set aside upon such investments as they think fit, and from time to time vary or realize such investments.

• They may from time to time make, vary, and repeal bye-laws for the regulation of the business of the Company, its officers and servants, or the Members of the Company, or any section thereof.

• They may enter into all such negotiations and contracts, and rescind and vary all such contracts, and execute and do all such acts, deeds, and things in the name and on behalf of the Company as they may consider expedient for, or in relation to any of the matters aforesaid or otherwise for the purposes of the Company.

Dividends.

114. The Directors may with the sanction of the Company in General Meeting declare a dividend to be paid to the Members, according to their rights and interests in the profits.

115. No larger Dividend shall be declared than is recommended by the Directors, but the Company in General Meeting may declare a smaller dividend.

116. No dividend shall be payable except out of the profits arising from the business of the Company. The declaration of the Directors as to the amount of the profits of the Company shall be conclusive.

117. The Directors may from time to time pay to the Members on account of the next forthcoming dividend such interim dividends as in their judgment the position of the Company justifies.

118. The Directors may deduct from the dividends payable to any Member all such sums of money as may be due and payable by him to the Company, on account of calls, instalments, or otherwise.

119. The Directors may retain the dividends payable upon registered shares or stock, in respect to which
any person is, under clause 30 hereof, entitled to become a Member, or which any person under that clause is
titled to transfer, until such person shall become a Member in respect of such share or stock, or shall duly
transfer the same.

120. Any General Meeting declaring a dividend may resolve that the same or any part thereof shall be
applied in paying up pro tanto, the capital uncalled upon the shares held by the Member to whom the same
would otherwise be payable, and the Directors shall give effect to such resolution accordingly; but any Member
whose shares are fully paid up shall be entitled to be paid his proportion of the dividend in cash.

121. A transfer of shares or stock shall not pass the right to any dividend declared thereon before the
registration of the transfer.

122. In case several persons are registered as joint holders of any shares or stock, any one of such persons
may give effectual receipts for all dividends and payments on account of dividends in respect of such share or
stock.

123. Notice of the declaration of any dividend, whether interim or otherwise, shall be given to the Members
in manner hereinafter provided.

124. The Company shall not be responsible for the loss of any cheque, dividend warrant, or post-office
order which shall be sent by post upon the request of any Member in respect of dividends.

125. All dividends unclaimed for one year after having been declared, may be invested or otherwise made
use of by the Directors for the benefit of the Company until claimed. And all dividends unclaimed for five years
after having been declared may be forfeited by the Directors for the benefit of the Company. No dividend shall
bear interest as against the Company.

**Accounts.**

126. The Directors shall cause true accounts to be kept of the sums of money received and expended by the
Company, and all matters in respect of which such receipt and expenditure takes place, and of the assets,
credits, and liabilities of the Company.

127. The books of account shall be kept at the Office of the Company, or at such other place or places as
the Directors think fit.

128. The Directors shall from time to time determine whether and to what extent, and at what times and
places, and under what conditions or regulations the accounts and books of the Company or any of them shall
be open to the inspection of the Members; and no Members shall have any right of inspecting any account or
book or document of the Company except as conferred by Statute or authorised by the Directors, or by a
resolution of the Company in General Meeting.

129. At the Ordinary Meeting in every year the Directors shall lay before the Company a statement of the
income and expenditure and a balance-sheet containing a summary of the property and liabilities of the
Company made up to the date not more than three months before the meeting from the time when the last
preceding statement and balance-sheet were made, or in the case of the first statement and balance-sheet from
the incorporation of the Company.

130. Every such statement shall be accompanied by a report of the Directors as to the state and conditions
of the Company and as to the amount which they recommend to be paid out of the profits by way of dividends
or bonus to the Members, and the amount (if any) which they propose to carry to the reserve fund, according to
the provisions in that behalf hereinbefore contained and the statement, report, and balance-sheet shall be signed
by two Directors, and countersigned by the Secretary.

131. A printed copy of such balance-sheet and report shall seven days previous to the meeting, be served on
the registered holders of shares and stock in the manner in which notices [unclear: are] hereinafter directed to
be served.

**Audit.**

132. Once at least in every year the accounts of the Company shall be examined, and the correctness of the
statements and balance-sheet ascertained by one or more auditor or auditors.

133. The first Auditor or Auditors shall be appointed by the Directors; subsequent Auditors shall be
appointed by the Company at the Ordinary Meeting in each year. The remuneration of the Auditors shall be
fixed by the Company in General Meeting. Any Auditor quitting office shall be eligible for re election.

134. If one Auditor only is appointed, all the provisions herein contained relating to Auditors shall apply to
him.

135. The Auditors may be members of the Company, but no person shall be eligible as an Auditor who is
interested otherwise than as a Member of the Company in any transactions thereof, and no Director or other
136. If any casual vacancy occurs in the office of Auditors the Directors shall forthwith fill up the same.

137. The Auditors shall be supplied with copies of the statement of accounts and balance-sheet intended to be laid before the Company in General Meeting, seven days at least before the Meeting to which the same are to be submitted, and it shall be their duty to examine the same with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto, and to report to the Company in General Meeting thereon.

138. The Auditors shall at all reasonable times have access to the books and accounts of the Company, and they may in relation thereto examine the Directors or other officers of the Company.

139. Every account of the Directors, when audited and approved by a General Meeting, shall be conclusive, except as regards any error discovered therein within three months next after the approval thereof. Whenever any such error is discovered within that period, the accounts shall forthwith be corrected, and thenceforth shall be conclusive.

**Notices.**

140. A notice may be served by the Company upon any Member whose registered place of address is in the Colony of New Zealand, either personally, or by sending it through the post in a prepaid letter addressed to such Member at his registered place of address.

141. A Member whose registered place of address is not in the Colony of New Zealand shall from time to time notify in writing to the Company some place in the said Colony to be called his address for service, and any notice may be served by the Company upon such Member by sending it through the post in a prepaid letter addressed to him at his address for services. Until such notification shall have been given, the Office of the Company shall be deemed to be the address for service of such Member.

142. The holder of a share warrant shall not be entitled in respect thereof to a notice of any General Meeting of the Company.

143. Any notice required to be given by the Company to the Members or any of them, and not expressly provided for by these presents, shall be sufficiently given by advertisement, and any notice required to be, or which may be given by advertisement, shall be advertised once in two Dunedin daily newspapers.

144. All notices with respect to shares or stock standing in the names of joint holders, shall be given to whichever of such persons is named first in the register, and notice so given shall be sufficient notice to all the holders of such shares or stock.

145. Any notice sent by post shall be deemed to have been served at the time when the letter containing the same would be delivered in the ordinary course of post, and in proving such service it shall be sufficient to prove that the letter containing the notice was properly addressed and put into the post-office.

146. Any person who by operation of law, transfer, or other means whatsoever shall become entitled to any share or stock shall be bound by every notice in respect of such share or stock which previously to his name and address being entered in the register shall be duly given to the person from whom he derives title to such share or stock.

147. Any notice or document delivered or sent by post to or left at the registered address of any Member in pursuance of these presents, shall notwithstanding such Member be then deceased, and whether or not the Company have notice of his decease, be deemed to have been duly served in respect of any registered shares or stock, whether held solely or jointly with some other persons by such Member until some other persons be registered in his stead as the holder or joint holder thereof, and such service shall for all purposes of these presents be deemed a sufficient service of such notice or document on his or her heirs, executors, or administrators, and all persons (if any) jointly interested with him or her in any such share or stock.

148. Where a given number of days' notice or notice extending over any other period is required to be given, the day of service and the day upon which such notice will expire, shall not be included in such number of days or other period.

**Winding Up.**

149. In case the Company shall be wound up the surplus assets shall be applied in the first place in repaying money called up in the winding up; secondly, in repaying *pari passu*, the residue of the paid-up capital; and thirdly, the balance shall be divided among the contributories, *pari passu*, in proportion to the nominal amount of the capital in respect whereof they are contributories. But the provisions contained in this clause shall be without prejudice to the rights of the holders of shares issued under special conditions.

150. If the Company shall be wound up the liquidators whether voluntary or official may, with the sanction of an extraordinary resolution, divide among the contributories in specie any part of the assets of the Company,
and may with the like sanction vest any part of the assets of the Company in trustees, upon such trusts for the benefit of the contributories as the liquidators with the like sanction shall think fit.

151. If at any time the liquidators of the Company shall make any sale or enter into any arrangement pursuant to Section 222 of the Companies Act, 1882, a dissentient Member within [unclear: the] meaning of that section shall not have the rights thereby [unclear: given] to him, but instead thereof he may, by notice in [unclear: written] addressed to the liquidators and left at the Office not later [unclear: the] fourteen days after the date of the meeting at which the [unclear: special] resolution authorising such sale or arrangement was [unclear: passed] require the liquidators to sell the share, stock, or other [unclear: benefitary] which under the said sale or arrangement he would otherwise have been entitled, and to pay the net proceeds over to him, [unclear: any] such sale and payment shall be made accordingly. Such [unclear: land] mentioned sale may be made in such manner as the [unclear: liquidate] think fit,

Arbitration.

152. Whenever any difference arises between the Company on the one hand and any of the Members, their [unclear: executor] administrators or assigns on the other hand, touching [unclear: the] true intent or construction or the incidents or [unclear: consequence] of these presents or of the statute or touching anything then or thereafter done, executed, omitted or suffered [unclear: in] pursuance of these presents or of the statute, or touching any breach or alleged breach of these presents, or any [unclear: claim] on account of any such breach or alleged breach or otherwise relating to the premises or to these presents or to the [unclear: status] or to any of the affairs of the Company every such [unclear: difference] shall be referred to the decision of an arbitrator, to be [unclear: appointed] by the parties in difference, or if they cannot agree upon a [unclear: single] arbitrator to the decision of two arbitrators, of whom one shall be appointed by each of the parties in difference, or an umpire [unclear: to] be appointed by the two arbitrators.

153. The costs of and incident to any such reference shall be in the discretion of the arbitrator, arbitrators, or umpire [unclear: not] respectively, who may determine the amount thereof or direct [unclear: the] same to be taxed as between Solicitor and client or otherwise and may award by whom and to whom and in what manner the same shall be borne and paid.

154. The submission to arbitration shall be subject to the provisions of the Supreme Court Practice and Procedure [unclear: Amendment] Act, 1866, or any then subsisting statutory modification thereof, and shall be made a rule or order of the Supreme [unclear: Court] of New Zealand upon the application of either party, and such party may instruct counsel to consent thereto for the other parties.

Names, Addresses, and Descriptions of Subscribers.

- Donald Stronach, Merchant, Dunedin.
- Henry John Walter, Hotelkeeper, Dunedin.
- William Gage, Landbroker, Dunedin.
- Alexander Robert Livingston, Stationer, Dunedin.
- Basil Sievwright, Solicitor, Dunedin.

Dated the twenty-second day of February, 1883.
Witness to the above signatures.
William A. Stout,


The Dunedin Review.
No. V.
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Contents:
Walker's Life of Chalmers.—II.

His walk, and "stout, thick-set figure," clearly indicated the man—an honest man, who had "a capacity to excel in many things." He was not unlike Luther in personal appearance. On the 25th May, 1809, Chalmers delivered his maiden speech in the General Assembly. Henceforth he became a marked man. He pled for the augmentation of the stipends of the clergy. Worth must be backed up with social importance in order to command esteem. He began to realise the full significance of life, after having been laid up with sickness, and, in 1809, he declared:—"strip human life of its connection with a higher sense of existence, and it is the illusion of an instant, an unceasing farce, a series of visions and projects and convulsive efforts which terminate in nothing." He began to study Pascal's "Thoughts on Religion." This is his estimate of him:—"A man of the richest endowments, and whose youth was signalised by his profound and original speculations in mathematical science, but who could stop short in the brilliant career of discovery, who could resign all the splendours of literary reputation, who could renounce without a sigh all the distinctions which are conferred upon genius, and resolve to devote every talent and every hour to the defence and illustration of the gospel. This is superior to all Greek and all Roman name." Affliction brought on reflection, and this again raised Religion from a secondary to a primary concern in his estimation. Wilberforce's "Practical View of Christianity" opened his spiritual eye. He saw the futility of the covenant of works, and the all-importance of that of grace. He realised the evil of sin and of ungodliness, and felt that man cannot obtain salvation through his own righteousness, but that it must flow entirely from God's grace. "In the system of Do this and live no peace, and even no true and worthy obedience, can ever be attained. It is Believe on the Lord Jesus Christ and thou shalt be saved. When this belief enters the heart, joy and confidence come along with it. The righteousness which we try to work out for ourselves eludes our grasp, and never can a soul arrive at true or permanent rest in the pursuit of this object. The righteousness which, by faith, we put on, secures our acceptance with God, and secures our interest in his promises, and gives us a part in those sanctifying influences by which we are enabled to do with aid from on high what we never can do without it. We look to God in a new light: we see him as a reconciled Father: that love to him which terror scares away re-enters the heart, and, with a new principle and a new power, we become new creatures in Jesus Christ our Lord." At this time he began to write an introduction to an edition of Baxter's "Call to the Unconverted." He now found ample labours in his own parish, and preached out to sinners salvation as God's free gift, which they ought to accept most promptly and gratefully. In Kilmany manse he composed a series of sermons which subsequently electrified Glasgow, London, and Edinburgh. He also contributed largely to the Encyclopaedia, the Instructor, the Eclectic Review, &c. But he saw the utter incompatibility of the two offices of minister and professor, and denounced such a conjunction in the Church of Scotland. After twelve years spent in the pastoral seclusion of Kilmany, Chalmers removed to Glasgow, where he literally mesmerised the city with his eloquence. His eloquence "was not learning, it was not art; it was the untaught and the unencumbered incantation of genius, the mightiest engine of which the world can boast." His parish had a population of ten thousand souls, for whose welfare he laboured zealously in a variety of ways. He was again translated to a still larger parish. In St. John's parish he practically carried out his theory of Pauperism which "could never be effectually met by means of a poor law or a system of legal assessment. Pauperism hitherto had cost £1400 a year. Chalmers met its real requirements by a voluntary offering of £280. The work was done much more satisfactorily than under legal assessment." He started schools and missions and revolutionised his parish. After nine years of Herculean labours in Glasgow, he accepted the Moral Philosophy Chair in St. Andrew's. He got a public dinner before his departure. Three hundred and forty gentlemen attended the banquet. On the 9th November, 1823, when he was just 43 years of age, he delivered his grand valedictory sermon. Chalmers infused life into the veins of his old alms mater. "Moral philosophy is not theology, but it stands at the entrance of it, and so of all human sciences is the most capable of being turned into an instrument either for guiding right, or for most grievously perverting the minds of those who are to be the religious teachers of the age."

The Otago University is a fresh illustration of this. The Synod stands condemned for its support of a pernicious system of teaching. He dwelt more upon the moral than on the purely metaphysical portion of his subject. In fact morals are not taught in the Scottish universities. It is all metaphysical disquisition—which is supposed to be an answer to the scepticism of Hume and others. Chalmers clearly pointed to Natural Theology and to Revelation to solve problems which Moral Philosophy could not do. "It suggested doubts which it could
London subscribed £5000 in aid of the Scottish Church extension movement. Curious he did not foresee the whirlwind of enthusiasm which was probably never exceeded in the history of eloquence. As a consequence drowned in the applause, the audience rising from their seats and breaking out into tumultuous approbation. of the speaker, long ere the close of some of his finest passages was reached, the voice of the lecturer was impression made was profound. Five hundred of those present were Peers and Members of Parliament. The audience was select, and the elevation of Principal Lee to the Chair of the Assembly. That strife alienated the chiefest friends. Chalmers bitterly opposed the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and Catholic Emancipation. He put "no trust in artificial props, which do not rest on a foundation of indisputable justice." He held the conviction "that there was no guarantee for the permanence and prosperity of his own Church but such as was to be found in her honestly and efficiently discharging her proper functions." His speech on Catholic Emancipation elicited the sympathetic admiration of Lord Jeffrey. "Never had eloquence produced a greater effect upon a popular assembly; more had never been done by the oratory of Demosthenes, Cicero, Burke, or Sheridan." The orator said—" Give me the circulation of the Bible, and with this mighty engine I will overthrow the tyranny of Antichrist, and establish the fair and original form of Christianity on its ruins." Never theless, Chalmers opposed the Reform Bill. The mob broke his windows in 1831, because he did not illuminate. He published at this time his "Treatise on Political Economy." His conclusions were not in harmony with popular beliefs. He taught "that the real amelioration of any nation's condition depends not on the possession of political privileges but on the intelligence and moral excellence of its people."

Chalmers in 1827 was elected Professor of Theology in the University of Edinburgh, and on the 6th of November, 1828, he delivered his inaugural lecture. He was now at the core of Caledonia, enthroned "as a king in the broad realms of theological science." In his hands, "Christianity was not a mere framework of dry bones, but a living force. His own soul was on fire; and whatever he felt himself he made his audiences feel." This was the dawn of religious awakening in pulpits and congregations all over Scotland He was offered a year or two later the West Church, Greenock, "the most lucrative living in the Church." It was worth £1000 a year, just double his professional salary; but he declined the offer, from "a firm conviction of the superior importance of a theological chair to any church whatever, along with the rooted preference for the professional over the ministerial life."

Chalmers, like all men of genius, exercised an enormous sway over the minds of men. He was a king of men, possessed of those "qualities which cause men to be reverenced and followed." He heartily supported the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and Catholic Emancipation. He put "no trust in artificial props, which do not rest on a foundation of indisputable justice." He held the conviction "that there was no guarantee for the permanence and prosperity of his own Church but such as was to be found in her honestly and efficiently discharging her proper functions." His speech on Catholic Emancipation elicited the sympathetic admiration of Lord Jeffrey. "Never had eloquence produced a greater effect upon a popular assembly; more had never been done by the oratory of Demosthenes, Cicero, Burke, or Sheridan." The orator said—" Give me the circulation of the Bible, and with this mighty engine I will overthrow the tyranny of Antichrist, and establish the fair and original form of Christianity on its ruins." Never theless, Chalmers opposed the Reform Bill. The mob broke his windows in 1831, because he did not illuminate. He published at this time his "Treatise on Political Economy." His conclusions were not in harmony with popular beliefs. He taught "that the real amelioration of any nation's condition depends not on the possession of political privileges but on the intelligence and moral excellence of its people."

Chalmers had no sympathy with the vagaries of Campbell of Row, Edward Irving, and Principal Scott. Those heretics were expelled from the Church, and allowed to follow their own sweet and wayward ways. In 1832 Chalmers was chosen Moderator of the Scottish Assembly. He became the recognised leader of the evangelical parly, and laboured to modify or sweep away patronage. Dr. Cook, however, headed the Moderates and triumphed. In 1834, Lord Moncrieff carried the veto Law. It was merely a compromise to conservatism. Patronage is now, after years of strife and debate, abolished. Chalmers took the lead in Church extension; and, in 1834, after being repulsed by Government, he appealed to the people, and the result was a sum of £300,000. "Within seven years 220 new churches were added to the Establishment." In 1834 he was elected Fellow and Vice-president of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and a corresponding member of the Royal Institute of France. In 1835 Oxford conferred upon him the degree of LL.D. He was greeted with extraordinary enthusiasm in Oxford Theatre. He loved England and the English Church, and visited all its cathedrals; he venerated the universities, and was hospitably entertained by the English literati. In 1836 Chalmers bitterly opposed the elevation of Principal Lee to the Chair of the Assembly. That strife alienated the chiefest friends. Chalmers delivered a course of lectures in London on Church Establishment, and in support of the English Church, against the attacks of dissenters and the advocates of disestablishment. The audience was select, and the impression made was profound. Five hundred of those present were Peers and Members of Parliament. The inspired lecturer put his audience in a state of temporary madness. "Carried away by the impassioned utterance of the speaker, long ere the close of some of his finest passages was reached, the voice of the lecturer was drowned in the applause, the audience rising from their seats and breaking out into tumultuous approbation." He electrified "the most brilliant audiences that ever assembled in Britain," and they actually raised "a whirlwind of enthusiasm which was probably never exceeded in the history of eloquence." As a consequence London subscribed £5000 in aid of the Scottish Church extension movement. Curious he did not foresee the
coming storm, especially as "a month or two before, the Court of Session had pronounced a judgment in the famous Auchterarder case." He was probably of opinion, "that a firm resistance on the part of the Church would prevent any serious attempt being made on its inherent independence." In 1838 he went to Paris and sojourned in Normandy. He visited Guisot, the Institute, the Due de Broglie at whose chateau he met Madame de Stael. Here he was shown Diodati's translation of his sermons. The duchess officiated at family prayers—which wore simple—a chapter of Scripture and the Lord's Prayer. In 1839 he threw his energies into the conflict between Church and State. He would have a Free Church, in a Free State. The Auchterarder case set the flames of discord in a blaze. The Rev. Mr. Young had only two signatures to his call, and yet the Supreme Courts of Edinburgh and London insisted upon his induction! The Veto Act was overridden. The case of Lethendy followed. The Presbytery were beaten, and an obnoxious pastor was ordained. Then came on the notorious case of Marnock, and the servile Presbytery of Strathbogie. The assembly deposed them, and the State hesitated to go to extremities. Chalmers and his party would not concede to the State a control in purely spiritual as well as temporal matters. Reform in the Church he fought for, but stood aloof from aid in the State. No compromise on the question of spiritual independence. In face of the Court of Session, Chalmers went to Strathbogie and preached in the interdicted parishes.

In 1842 Chalmers urged "the putting forth of a formal and final Claim of Rights," on the question of spiritual independence. Here he drew the line of demarcation of the civil and the ecclesiastical tribunals. Chalmers all along held that "the least violation of spiritual independence in return for a State endowment was enough to convert a Church Establishment into a moral nuisance." Two years before the Disruption, "he addressed himself to the consideration of what steps could be taken to carry on evangelical work without any help from the State. He despaired of a Free Established Church. He wished to spread abroad "that education of principle which would prove the only counteractive, not to irreligion only, but to vice and anarchy and socialism, and the whole tribe of those moral and political disorders which were in busy fermentation all over the land."

In 1843, on the 18th of May, the conflict of ten years culminated in the Disruption. Dr Chalmers headed the exodus of ministers to the Canon Mills. Dr. Cumming of London advised the Government to be firm, and predicted "that less than one hundred will cover the whole secession." Now nearly five hundred ministers vacated their churches, manses, and glebes. In 1853, Sir James Graham openly "regretted his share in bringing about the Disruption. He regarded it "as the saddest event in his life, that he should have had any hand in that most fatal act." Lord Jeffrey said "I am proud of my country. There is not another country upon earth where such a deed could have been done." The Assembly of a Free Church in a Free State was an imposing spectacle, "with consciences disburdened and casting themselves without care and with all the confidence of children on the providence of that God who never forsakes the families of the faithful." Dr Chalmers was unanimously elected Moderator.

Three thousand souls rose up and sung the noble words—

"O send thy light forth and thy truth;
Let them be guides to me."

It is recorded that "a sudden burst of sunlight filled the building, and recalled to many present the text from which the Moderator had preached six months before: "Unto the up right light shall arise in the darkness." The genius of Chalmers was equal to the occasion. "There was a financial report ready to be submitted to the Assembly. 687 associations for the collection of funds for the support of the ministry had been already organised. 239 of these had actually sent £17,000 to the general treasury," Chalmers was not a Utopian. There are now—thanks to the sustentation fund of Dr. Chalmers—over one thousand congregations, with annual fund of £176,000. With enthusiasm, Chalmers possessed practical sagacity. In rooms in George Street, the New College was opened in November, under the presiding of Chalmers, assisted by Drs. Welsh, Cunningham, and Black. Divinity, Church history, Apologetics, and Biblical criticism were taught, ab initio. Other chairs soon followed.

Drs Duncan and Fleming were appointed to teach Hebrew and National History. Messrs. Macdougal, Fraser and Miller taught Metaphysics, Moral Philosophy, and Classics. The last four chairs, in due course, were abolished, and two of their occupants were transferred to the University of Edinburgh—Fraser is still alive, in Hamilton's chair. From all quarters of Christendom Chalmers received expressions of sympathy. In the Assembly of 1845, Merle D'Aubigne, Frederic Monod, and Kuntze of Berlin appeared as deputies from their respective churches. D'Aubigne says, that when Chalmers, who introduced the deputies, appeared, "the whole audience rose, shouted, clapped their hands, and waved hats and handkerchiefs." The result of all this was the formation of the Evangelical Alliance. Chalmers taught that "the surest road to right-thinking was right doing. Let us be one in well-doing; and this, wherever there is real sincerity and right good earnest, will prove the high road to being one in sentiment. How Chalmers himself transformed the West Port is a matter of history. This shows what a good and great man can accomplish in the reclamation of the fallen and degraded masses. In
1879, the West Port Church had a membership of 1100 souls.

On the 7th of May, 1847, he went up to London to give evidence before a Committee of Inquiry regarding the conduct of heritors who refused to grant sites for churches. He became acquainted with Sir Charles Lyell, and the Bishop of Gloucester on this occasion, and visited Carlyle. Carlyle approved of his territorial system, and, pronounced a "eulogy on direct thinking to the utter disparagement of those subjective philosophers who are constantly thinking upon thinking."

On the 30th of May, in his own manse at Morningside, he died. He was clearly an instrument of God "to roll back the tide of irreligion." Like Paul, he was converted to God. What might have been the consequence, had he turned his talents against Christianity? It is fearful to contemplate a Chalmers throwing all his energies, bodily and mental, against the Church of Christ. "We should have seen him taking the lead at congresses, discussing the origin of matter, or fighting, as if the welfare of the world depended on it, for some knotty point connected with the obliquity of the Ecliptic. The relation of a mind like his to Christianity could not be always that of indifference or neutrality. If he had not been moved to come over to its side, he might have been led to lift up his hand against it, and so to the hostile forces of the present day might have been added the element of a soul, which, whether for good or for evil, would be always influential."

So much for Walker's life of Thomas Chalmers.

Religion in the Palace.

Here is a nice little book of eight sermons, preached before the Queen. Two of these discourses were delivered at the parish church of Crathie, and six of them were given in Balmoral Castle. The author of these sermons is the Rev. A. A. Campbell, minister of Crathie. These sermons are, indeed, sweet and simple—sensible and suggestive—seasonable and significant.

The first sermon, on "The burdens of life, social and solitary," sets forth in clear light one of the many apparent contradictions which constitute the glories of the Bible. While I we are enjoined to bear "one another's burdens," it is equally encumbent upon "every man to bear his own burden."

Sympathy is really a beautiful thing, and Adam Smith makes it the foundation of morals; but nevertheless every man has actually to bear (a) the burden of affliction, (b) the burden of responsibility, the burden of sin, &c.

The silly freethinker—the infidel,—the fanatic take up isolated texts and dwell upon one side of a truth, and thus pervert the oracles of Reason as well as of Revelation. "A fanatic is just a man who sees only a small part of the truth, who gets a hold of that part, and carries it to an extreme—to such an extreme that it becomes to him at last the whole truth, and be degenerates into error."

Sermon—the second—on "The Father's House," evinces the exceeding tenderness of Christ. "There are those who think lightly of the religion of Christ—there are those who disbelieve and reject it; but it seems to me that so long as it can give such an answer as this to men in the deepest need, so long as it meets and satisfies as it does the most anxious questionings that can fill a human breast, so long will it keep its hold upon the heart of humanity. We cannot afford to give it up. Give us something better. Tell us whither else to turn in those hours when the heart must receive some answer or break."

In the hour of death and of sorrow hear the words of tenderest sympathy and of sweetest promise and helpful consolation—"Let not your heart be troubled; ye believe in God, believe also in me." Christ goes on to give his sorrowing disciples a really sufficient "reason why the heart, troubled at the thought of separation, may rise above its troubles." There is nothing more lovely in man or woman than faith, trust, love, and confidence. "In my Father's house are many mansions." Why, then, if you really believe my words, are you so inconsolable? "Faith in the words, and faith in Him who spoke them, will leave no room for trouble—no room, at least, for that element of hopelessness which gives to the trouble of the stricken heart its sharpest sting." After this touch of tenderness, Christ adds, parenthetically, "If it were not so, I would have told you." Do you think, for one moment, that I could have deceived you? "If there were no Father's house, no room there, no hope beyond this life—nothing before you but death and the grave, and blackness or blankness for ever—it would have been told you. Dear as you are to me, the truth is dearer still, and you should have known it, no matter what the cost. Christ could not have been false, even to save a heart from breaking; and if He who dared not, who could not, lie, tells us in the most calm, most direct, most unmistakeable way that the Father's house is there, and that, to that house an entrance shall be ministered abundantly unto all God's children, we need surely have no difficulty in accepting His words."

Our Divine Redeemer gives even additional consolation to the disciples and also to all believers, when he says,—"I go to prepare a place for you. And if I go and prepare a place for you, I will come again, and receive you unto myself; that where I am, there ye may be also." Did ever bridegroom salute the bride with words of deeper tenderness. Hard must be the heart that cannot respond to these singularly pathetical words' of
consolation. To be with the object of our love, is not that happiness; but to be with Christ himself, is not that heaven itself for his disciples? "This was all the heaven they asked. To be with Christ was, to them, the fulness of joy. Apart from Him, heaven itself would not be heaven." The Religion of Christ pours the healing balm of hope into the downcast soul of man. In the hour of death it upholds the believer, and, at the gate of the cemetery the friends and relatives of the deceased are really consoled when they hear the good minister reciting these sweet and doubly re-assuring words of our blessed Saviour—"I am the resurrection and the life; he that believeth in Me, though he were dead, yet shall he live: and whosoever liveth and believeth in Me shall never die."

Sermon—the third—on The uses of adversity, is a beautiful exposition of the great truth that "man is born into trouble." The existence of the trouble and affliction is the direct consequence of sin: and really the mystery of sin and of suffering, and the indissoluble connection between the two are not so great and dark and insoluble as Divines and Metaphysicians make them out to be. Doubtless they are, like many other things, surrounded with mystery; but Revelation assures us that all things work together for good to the children of God. "To all in trouble would I say, begin not with the thought of your troubles, but begin with the thought of your Heavenly Father's love. Looking up to Him, and clinging to Him, your heart will cut the knot which the intellect cannot unravel." Leaving the mysterious side of suffering, "which we can only get over by a firm faith in God's love, it is also true that, taking things as we find them in the world, affliction has its clear use, and that it works for great ends, and these ends good." This is sufficiently inculcated in the preacher's text "No chastening for the present seemeth to be joyous, but grievous; nevertheless afterward it yieldeth the peacable fruit of righteousness unto them who are exercised thereby."

Mr. Campbell adduces various uses of adversity in the course of his discourse. First, it "prevents too entire a resting on the world, and the things of the world." Again, affliction, trial, adversity, are calculated to draw us nearer to God."By such trials we are brought to feel nothing but God only "can satisfy the cravings of our spirits and fill the void of our hearts." Afflictions and sorrows, disappointments and bereavements teach us the salutary lesson that "there is no profit under the sun." Furthermore, adversity is "a true test of our faith." It is easy in the sunshine of prosperity to believe in God; but "to cling to God, and to follow Him where He leads, be the shadows ever so deep, or the path ever so full of thorns," is not such an easy matter. The believer comes out of his sufferings, like gold out of the furnace, purified from dross, and he will shine, like a polished diamond, in his native effulgence of grace and goodness. Adversity is a school of discipline to develop within us "what is highest and best;" without it we cannot be perfect.

Self-Renunciation is the theme of the fourth sermon. It is, in these stupid times of ours, much needed. The text is one of the profoundest utterances of Christ, "He that findeth his life shall lose it; and he that loseth his life for my sake shall find it." Mr Campbell opens his discourse upon these words in a singularly felicitous way—"There are some of Christ's sayings which strike us as being the very perfection of concentrated expression. The words may be few, but around them gathers a meaning which seems ever to grow the more we think upon them. Just as through the narrowest chink the most splendid prospect may be obtained, so often through one little saying of Christ's we obtain views of truth which are unlimited; or limited only as our view of the boundless ocean is limited—by our inability to take in more of the glorious prospect." The text sums up the life of Christ. It "contains the deepest principle of his kingdom—the law of every true life—the only law by which we can attain to his true self."

This saying of Christ is far a-head of the world's wisdom; it is pregnant with an undeveloped ocean of meaning. It is apparently contradictory and sounds paradoxical. Here is, indeed, a glorious paradox—and is not Genius itself a paradox?—"Gain through loss, a higher blessing through the sacrifice of a lower." The great law of Christ's kingdom is self-sacrifice. Even the world instinctively acknowledges the grand principle that the truest gain is through loss, the truest greatness through sacrifice. To seek self, to save self, comes naturally to man. To act on this principle is of the spirit of the world; yet there a nothing which the world at heart more thoroughly despises than this self-seeking self-saving spirit." Bad as the world is, it nevertheless "instinctively recognises the greatness of the life of sacrifice." Christ's words are of universal and eternal application. In all things, and in all places and times, "selfishness is fatal to all that is high, noble, and good. It shrivels up the soul as nothing else does. Sin is but another name for set seeking."

The parable of the prodigal son is a practical commentary upon this law. He sought to secure the lower life, and lost the higher. "He thought he was finding his life when he came to his father with the request "Give me the portion of goods that falleth to me." How could he be other than enriched by coming into such possession? But his poverty only began with the moment of his seeming enrichment. He found the life which he sought, but in the very finding of it he lost the life most worth seeking. Nothing is more unselfish than love, yet nothing more enlarges life. In loving we throw self away—we lose ourselves in the object of our love; yet it is not to find ourselves again enlarged, enriched, intensified? The greatest giver is God, who also is the greatest lover; yet who so great in being, so rich in life as He? If ever a life was given away it was the life of Christ. Of many
things he was accused, but never of this, that he manifested a self-seeking, or self-saving spirit, that he made personal comfort, or advantage, or glory, the aim and object of His life. Men have ideals, and they crave for some realisation of them. Was ever ideal of absolute self-renunciation entertained by man that does not find its most perfect fulfilment in Christ. His cross not only ends His life; it represents it—it sums it up. On it He finally gave the life which He had been giving all along. "Without this spirit of self-denial, self-sacrifice, self-surrender, we cannot be really Christians. Christ "furnishes us with the truest motive—for My sake. How much is embraced in these words? for the sake of all that is good, noble, and true." Self-renunciation is clear and only path to happiness. But when will the world come to act practically upon this universal principle of Christ? Whatever men may feel in their hearts, in their outward deportment selfishness appears to be the pole-star of life. Mere wealth is insanely honoured, and magnanimous poverty is openly dispised."

Notwithstanding, "He that findeth his life shall lose it; and he that loseth his life for My sake shall find it."

Sermon the fifth, on "The service of patience," is a masterly moral disquisition. Antiquity chiefly reverenced and rewarded the active instead "of the passivevirtues." Even in modern times, "the meed of praise is apt to go to those whose virtues take the more active form." In all activity there is an element which attracts the notice of the world. There is a bustle and noise attending it which cannot fail to arrest attention. But Christ has a rule for His own followers, as David had for his; yea, the rule is precisely the same. To watchers and fighters, to waiters and workers, Christ says, if not in words, at least by His life, and by the whole spirit of His teaching,—Ye shall part alike. What is Genius but infinite patience? By patience Christ conquered the world. When we are reviled, despoiled of our goods, and daily insulted and injured, while the mean, the vile, and the stupid are rewarded, it may be out of our spoils. Let us possess our souls in patience, by the consideration of Him who gave all and got nothing. Our business is to be "faithful in holding the post assigned to us by our Captain, whether it be one of doing or suffering, of going down to the battle, or tarrying by the stuff." When our faith is beginning to waver, when the clouds of life gather thick, and our light is almost turned into darkness, let us fortify our souls by the remembrance of such characters as Moses, Job, Socrates, and, above all, of Christ, and rest assured that we shall, in due course, receive the crown of glory.

"As his part is that goeth down to the battle, so shall his part be that tarryeth by the stuff: they shall part alike." Patience as well as victory shall inherit the laurel wreath. They also serve who only stand and wait. In times of trials and persecutions, let us always remember the words of the 46th Psalm,—A strong fortress is our God

The sixth sermon, on "Love, the fulfilling of the law," is a really sweet piece of meditation on the Gospel of Christ. We feel as if we were bodily sitting in the Church of Crathie, and listening to the words—the gracious words—that proceeded from the mouth of the good preacher. Every word is well studied, as it ought to be, before it is audibly expressed in the ears of the most exalted personage on earth.

The seventh sermon, on "Uniformity not essential to unity," is really a philosophical dissertation, which is greatly needed in these flippant times of infidelity. All good men seek the same end, only by diverse means. The different sects are only different regiments of the Christian army. Unity in the midst of variety. The preacher's similes are drawn from the different members of the human body. "As the body is one, and hath many members, and all the members of that one body, being many, are one body; so also is Christ."

Separate functions, different gifts, but one spirit pervading all. "Unity of which variety is one of the most marked characteristics." This central law pervades nature. What variety of characters in the disciples of Christ! Again, look at Luther and Melancthon! Actuated by the same spirit, and labouring for the same great end, "yet no two men ever differed more in their natural characteristics, or sought to gain the end by more diverse ways. In Luther, action, force, intrepidity, whole-souled earnestness, found their very embodiment; while his fellow-reformer was all that was mild, gentle, conciliatory. The one felt the truth as if by instinct, and, rushing to it, took his stand upon it; the other came to it more quietly and gradually through exercise of thought and reason. The living Head was one; but how different in themselves and in their functions were the members!"

Trace the same unity and variety in the Presby-terian and Anglican Church—the lengthened shadows of Knox and Cranmer. The text "teaches us that however men may wish to make everything conform to one standard—that standard of course their own—God refuses to have his Church compressed within such miserably narrow limits." Let us all seek to be animated by the spirit of Christ, and then it matters little to what outward section of the Christian army we may belong. Outward uniformity is only of secondary importance; but unity of spirit—a union with the living Christ—that is the sine qua non of religion.

Sermon the eighth, on "Self Control," is a really splendid ethical dissertation "Better is he that ruleth his spirit than he that taketh a city." The one is a warrior; the other a philosopher. The one is often captured by one supreme effort, and always attended with glory. Homer's "Iliad" is the record of the "taking of a city." But Achilles could not subdue his ungovernable passions. Fortune often decides the victory. But "the victory over self—this is the true victory; and greater than the Alexanders or Caesars of the world is he who achieves it."

This is a victory that is to be gained over spiritual enemies, and "the very loneliness of spiritual struggle adds to
the hardness of the strife and the glory of the victory." The eyes of the world are upon the warrior—his companions in arms encourage him and share his dangers; but this combat is to be waged in the closet—in the recesses of the heart. "In the depths of his spirit the struggle goes on, and what does the world know or care about it? It can neither stimulate him by its applauses nor goad him on by fear of its censure." The man is literally cast "entirely upon his own resources, so far at least as earthly help is concerned." The battle is either "lost or won" in the inmost recesses of our being—deep down in the silence of the lonely soul does the struggle go on."

After referring to Christ's temptation in the wilderness and to his agony in the garden, as the two mightiest of spiritual struggles, the preacher goes on to observe: "It is as through temptation, sharp and bitter, we see the battle won, that we recognise what a noble battle it is. It is as through agony and sweat we see self mastered, passion subdued, evil repelled, that we realise, in their deepest meaning, the truth of the words, Better is he that ruleth his spirit than he that taketh a city." To achieve this victory constancy and steadfastness are indispensably necessary. We are "engaged in a warfare which can only end with our existence here." The hero may take his city by storm, or at most in a few years; but "he who would gain and keep the rule over self has no such speedily accomplished task before him. Only when he lays down his life can he lay down his arms. This is that which makes the spiritual strife so hard for flesh and blood to maintain."

Our warfare is daily, hourly, and every moment of our existence to be waged against passions, appetites and propensities. Mr. Campbell says well,—"If by one supreme effort we could for ever master self, and put a curb on all the passions, and subdue the stubborn will, so that the battle once won, would be won for ever, how we should strain every nerve to make the victory secure! But what tries us so much is that the battle is never done; that it must be renewed from day to day; that as surely as the evil thought will again rise within our heart, or the angry word fall from our lips, or the impure or dishonest action east its dark stain upon the soul, so surely must the evil be grappled with afresh, and the strife still maintained with unfailing energy and zeal." Our enemies are not carnal, but spiritual. As the blessed apostle says:—"We wrestle not against flesh and blood, but against principalities, against powers, against the rulers of the darkness of this world, against spiritual wickedness in high places." Without God's grace we cannot make successful head against passion's host that never brooked control. These sermons are replete with wisdom and religion. The Church of Scotland has no need to fear disestablishment and disendowment, when she has men of the character and culture of a Campbell within her walls and adorning her pulpits. These are by far the sweetest sermons I have read for many a day. There is no fanaticism, no bigotry, no vulgarity in any of them. Every sentence—like a well-polished stone in a building—contributes to the beauty and perfection of the sermon taken as a finished whole. These admirable sermons are "published by command of Her Majesty." Such a mandate reflects much credit upon Queen Victoria's perception of the true, the good, and the beautiful in morals and religion.

**Lays of the Deer Forest.**

This is an exceedingly rare work, in two volumes, [unclear: octavo]. The authors are mysterious branches [of the ill-fated House of Stuart. John Sobieski and Charles Edward Stuart dedicate this work to Louisa Sobieski Stuart. Let us take a few bricks out of this edifice by way of sample.

"And never in Moray was maiden fair,  
But, on her face if turned his eyes,  
Bright to her cheek the blood should rise."

"When as he saw the maiden bright,  
Forth from the boughs he bounded light,  
And to his footstep, as he came,  
The flowers might seem to bend with shame.  
He was as bright as sunshine fair,  
And his light step as free as air;  
And in the sun his golden hair  
Seemed to shake off a radiance bright,  
As if it waved with amber light.  
His brow was like the lily flower,
His eye the sun-drop in the shower,
And all his form so fragile fair,
Like a bright angel of the air."

"Day on the white Himala rose,
And tinged with red and dazzling snows,
Touching her forehead with a flush,
Like a pale virgin's fleeting blush."

The ode of the Findhorn is sad in tone and utterance, indeed

"But if my father's fate be mine,
And like the last lone mountain pine,
Blasted, and bent, and leafless still,
I wither on my lonely hill,
Toward the gleam thy bank that warms,
Shall spread my wan and wasted arms."

The poem on the Rose of the Dime is exquisitely beautiful

"But o'er thy fair and cloudless brow,
The light of spring is beaming now,
And thy bright eyes and locks upon,
Shines lovely summer's coming sun."
"The lovely cheek, the peerless mould,
Shall shrink and fade, and wither cold

The Anniversary is a mournful retrospect.

"Land of my fathers! Through Culloden's gloom
There shines a light of glory on thy tomb,
A star which to posterity shall tell
How the base conquered, and the noble fell."

"For desolation reigns in Holyrood,
And in the sacred dust the regal strewned,
The bones of princes whiten in the air."

"Land of the brave, our hearts have wept for all
Thou hast endured for us, and in our fall
We mourn the desolation, scorn, and woe,
Which to a humbled province brought thee low—
A hundred years of exile now have run,
Since red Culloden's bloody field was won,
And all have long been summoned to that bar—
The dread tribunal, where no passions jar;"
"—Justice gives the seal, and truth shall fix
The curse of crime upon The forty-six."

The address to the Divie is really pathetic—

"Sweet Divie! how thy murmuring floods,
Thy dewy banks and weeping woods,
Recall the bright and thoughtless dream,
When I was like thy dancing stream,
When all my glad and sunny hours,
Like thy sweet banks, were strewed with flowers,
And boyhood's care, and joy, and fray
Swept on the tide of youth away,
As down the stream, in giddy whirl,
The sparkling foam and bubbles curl."

The Midnight Prayer is solemn in the extreme, and contains sweet passages also—

"Maiden, before my clouded sight
Thou rose, a star upon the night
Of my dark spirit—pure as light—
But like the parting sunset given—
Too late for earth—a hope for heaven,
A hope yet there to meet again
Beyond this world of grief and pain."

"Forgive! forgive! O I was lost—
My soul in maddening visions dreaming—
Forgive me, maiden—now 'tis past,
The radiance of thy soft eyes beaming
Broke the wild trance—then think no more
Of that dark dream—'tis gone, 'tis o'er."

The Ode to the Widow is very touching.—

"Scotland awake—why sleep'st thou now
Beneath the yoke that galls thy brow?
Land of the brave, the fair, the free,
Hark to the voice of liberty.
Land of the Bruce, awake, reply,
Assert your rights, avenge, or die!
Break now your chain, be free, ye brave,
Nor live degraded,—England's slave."

The Exile's Farewell is truly melancholy.—

"Land of the warrior clans—my father's land,
Land of the plume, the helmet, and the brand,
Land of the deer and eagle—the last shell,
"Behold, like Greece degraded and betrayed,
The abject realm a Saxon province made,
The holy cloister and the regal hall
Cast to the dust—abandoned to its fall.
The crown, a bauble for the vulgar stare,
Like penny monster in a village fair.
The princely city, Albion's northern queen.
Forsaken like a mourning village green
The grass-grown streets and palace all bereft,
A scorn and scandal to the stranger left."

The royal brothers hit hard at some unknown enemy in these verses.

"Malignant reptile!—When your malice free
Blotted the best and fairest, what might we
In name, and faith obnoxious, hope from ye?
The asps, and adders, and the scorpion sting
Of thine own conscience, thy dark soul shall wring."

Were these volumes in Sir George Grey's library, they might be apprised by him at the fictitious value of two thousand pounds sterling. Their contents recall the days—the fatal days of [unclear: yore]. One cannot refrain from shedding a tear over the melancholy [unclear: odes] in this book. We cast a sad look at

"Edina, Scotia's darling Seat,—
Where once beneath a monarch's feet
Sat Legislation's sovereign power."

Southland and its Resources
Being a Paper on
The Resources of the District of Southland, Otago, New Zealand.
By Mr. W. B. Scandrett,
Read at a Meeting of the Southland Institute, Invercargill, on 18th September, 1883; together with comments by members.
Southland Times Co., Limited Publishers Invercargill, N.Z.

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Read at a meeting of the Southland Institute, on 18th September, 1883; together with comments by members.


The President stated that the object of the meeting was to hear a paper by Mr W. B. Scandrett on
"Southland and its Resources."

Mr Scandrett, who was well received, said—

The Southland district, commencing at a point on the south-east coast of the South Island of New Zealand known as Chasland's Mistake, and which lies about half-way between the mouth of the Mataura and Clutha rivers, stretches northwards to Lake Wakatipu. Its natural western boundary is somewhat west of the River Waiau, although the western boundary of the County of Southland extends only to the Waimatuku and Oreti rivers. The natural features of this large district vary considerably, the extreme north and west being mountainous, whilst the southern portion comprises undulating country, plains and forest.

Southland comprises the sub-districts of Toi-Tois and Waimak Valley, with its township of Fortrose; Wyndham, Eden-dale, and Tuturau, with the township of Mataura; Waikaka, Chatton, Otama, and Knapdale, with the townships of Gore and Gordon; the Hokonuis, Waimea Plains, Waikaiia, Nokomai, and Athol districts. In the central district is the valley of the Oreti, including Mararoa, Dipton, Winton, and Waianiwia; whilst to the west lie Otautau, the Waiau country, Longwood, Orepuki, and the old township of River-ton.

The whole district is well watered, the Mataura, with its numerous tributaries running nearly parallel with the eastern boundary, from as far north as Lake Wakatipu. In the centre of the district the Oreti, with the many minor streams adding to the volume of water it daily carries to the sea, and on the west the important Aparima and Waiau rivers, with the many water-courses which flow into them effectually preventing the necessity for irrigation in that portion of the country.

The climate of Southland is undoubtedly healthy and invigorating, approximating to that of the south of England, with a much milder winter, and altogether without the fogs which so often overcloud all parts of Britain.

This immense stretch of country, approaching in extent to five million acres, was, comparatively late in the history of the colonisation of New Zealand, occupied by those pioneers of civilisation, the squatters or runholders. The soil of the district is particularly well adapted for raising rich and nutritive grasses for feeding sheep and cattle, the hills especially forming dry and healthy runs in summer time, on which stock thrive and increase in the most satisfactory manner. The laws of the colony in the early days permitted tracts of land from ten thousand acres upwards to be taken up as runs for grazing cattle and sheep. Amongst the earliest settlers in the Southland district who still follow that vocation, although they have changed the tenure of their holdings from leaseholds into freeholds, are—Mr Alexander McNab, of Knapdale; Dr Menzies, of Dunalister; Capt. Francis Wallace Mackenzie, the present M.H.R. for the Mataura district; Messrs Peter and David McKellar, Captain Stevens, and others. Other settlers who may be classed as pioneers still reside in the district, and amongst these may be mentioned Mr John MacGibbon, the senior partner of the firm of Messrs John MacGibbon and Sons, who was occupied twenty-five years ago in ferrying the traveller across the Mataura river, and who still lives in the locality of his old occupation to this day.

The squatters or runholders devoted themselves almost exclusively to raising stock and producing wool, and for years the only exports consisted of the last named staple; and the wealth which wool annually brought into the country in those days, assisted the progress of the infant settlement in a manner that can be appreciated best when we look over the statistics of exports and the census returns for the same period showing the population of Southland.

As population increased in the colony, it became desirable to subdivide the runs into areas suitable for farms, and, as may have been anticipated, the lands on the banks of the Mataura river were eagerly sought after by intending settlers. It seems singular that these who desired to buy land thereabouts had to enquire into and study different sets of land laws, there being a different set for each side of the Mataura river. If land was required on the east bank, away one had to ride to Dunedin to lodge an application and conform to the law as it then stood, whilst if another person required a section on the west bank of the river he had to proceed to Invercargill. This anomaly, so far as application for land on the east bank of the river is concerned (and that is only about thirty miles from Invercargill), still exists, although fortunately for the best interests of the colony there is now only one land law, and this is so comprehensive that a settler can easily decide what system and regulations under it will suit him best. There can be little doubt, however, that the Waste Lands Board of Southland should be empowered to deal with all lands within the Southland County, instead of intending buyers or settlers being compelled to proceed over 100 miles to Dunedin to lodge their applications, and wait on the Otago Land Board to grant them.

Extensive Estates.

Early in the history of Southland nearly the whole of the available land for many miles on the western bank of the Mataura river was purchased by a large company of Home capitalists, now known as the New Zealand and Australian Land Company, who brought into cultivation or laid down in English grass many thousands of
acres of land. That this company promoted the prosperity of the men who were our first settlers by affording them ample and remunerative employment cannot be doubted, and is generally acknowledged. For many years past however, those persons who have had the welfare of the country at heart have greatly regretted to see the vast tract of fertile, pastoral, and agricultural land stretching from the Mataura Bridge south, ward and westward past Edendale carrying comparatively no population. During the past two or three years the company who own these splendid estates have subdivided and sold nearly the whole of their Southland holdings, and consequently we are likely soon to see smiling farm homesteads, alive with young New Zealanders, where heretofore cattle or sheep have grazed in luxurious plenty, and it will be readily admitted that such tracts of country are better fitted to maintain by the aid of improved agriculture, as we hope to see them contain, a large population of men and women.

The New Zealand Agricultural Company, who own the large tract of country between Gore and Lumsden, are entitled to commendation for the efforts they are making in the settlement of their splendid freehold property.

Its Growth.

The hindrance to the rapid advance of the Southland district in the past arose, as it does now, more from the sparseness of the population than from any other cause. The early efforts of the Provincial Government of Southland to promote the settlement and prosperity of the district were, I believe, honorably conceived, and this, although mistakes may have been made, adopting experimental undertakings, such as the wooden railway to the Makarewa, and possibly, at such an early period, the Invercargill-Bluff railway, instead of husbanding the means of the province until its financial resources were more fully developed: or perhaps better still, of improving, with the funds available, the Port of Invercargill. Still these were points upon which a divergence of opinion would almost at any time inevitably arise. The Bluff-Invercargill railway is doubtless necessary for the ocean-borne traffic, and is a work that sooner or later would have been constructed; still, if half the amount expended at that time, on that undertaking, had been expended in improving the waterway from Foveaux Straits to Puni Creek, the ships which now discharge at the Bluff wharves would be unloading off Tay street or by the railway station, whilst the Bluff-Invercargill line would certainly have been constructed under the Colonial Public Works Policy.

Resources.

The resources of the Southland district are indeed manifold, and its future importance can scarcely be overestimated. For many years to come no doubt its agricultural and pastoral interests will be those chiefly promoted, for, although manufacturing industries will arise, yet this southern portion of New Zealand presents a field for agricultural and pastoral pursuits, either separately or combined, unequalled in the colonies. I was recently shown an estimate which well illustrated the kind of farming that does pay and that should be successfully followed in many, if not all, parts of the Southland district. This estimate was based on the sale of wheat at 3s 9d per bushel, oats at 2s per bushels, fat cattle at 20s per 100lbs, and wethers at 12s each; and it would probably satisfy any intending settler, with capital varying from £1000 to £5000, that mixed farming offered a safe and increasing return for the investment. Moreover, there is a greater certainty about mixed farming in Southland than in any other part of New Zealand as shown by the published statistics, for sheep are always saleable, and the annual returns from wool certain; whilst as to the production of grain, Southland yields on an average 29 bushels of wheat to the acre, to Auckland, Taranaki, Wellington, and Marlborough's 18 bushels, Canterbury's 22 and Hawkes Bay's 25 bushels.

In oats, Southland produces 30 bushels to the acre, to Auckland, Taranaki, and Nelson's 18 bushels, Wellington, Hawkes Bay, and Marlborough's 20, and Canterbury's 24 bushels.

In barley. Southland produces 26 bushels to Auckland's 17, and Canterbury's 20 bushels.

Over a long series of years, 11 bushels per acre has been a high average yield of wheat in Australia, but in a moderately favorable season a Southland farmer may fairly expect to realize fully 40 bushels per acre, if his farm is in good condition. It is thus seen that Southland is one of the best agricultural districts in New Zealand, and compares favorably with any of the Australian colonies.

Small Farms.

The man who will in time become the average colonist can settle down in many parts of the Southland district on land known as agricultural deferred payment blocks, and if he has saved two or three hundred pounds, as working men may do in the course of five or six years, and is still steady and industrious, there is a very fair future before him. Having secured his land, he will proceed to erect a house for his family, a stockyard
for his cattle, with milking shed for his cows: he can fence a small area for a paddock, plant a few acres of
potatoes for domestic use, and for sale, saw some turnips for winter feed for his cattle, and whilst these are growing he can find work with the neighboring settlers, some of whom will want fencing, ditching, or ploughing done. As years roll on he will be fairly established, and almost independent, and will become an employer of labor himself, and others can take up land on similar terms, and do as he has done.

Our Forests.

Next to the cultivation of the soil, the extensive forests of Southland may be classed as one of the best resources of the district. Within a radius of thirty miles of Invercargill can be counted fully thirty sawmills, employing, on an average, thirty men, as many of the hands are married; and, assuming, as the statistics of the colony permit, that each of these married men has with his wife and family, an average on the whole of four souls depending on him, we can conclude that the forests by the sawmills alone are maintaining a population bordering on, if not exceeding four thousand persons. But the advantage which the possession of forests gives to a district where settlement is proceeding, cannot be assessed alone by the men employed at the sawmills, for the settler is able to purchase the timber for his house at a moderate price, and fencing is reduced to a rate which would make the heart of a settler on the Canterbury plains, or in the treeless districts of Central Otago, leap with joy. The sawmills, too, furnish freight for our railways, and for numerous coasting vessels, whilst no inconsiderable quantity of sawn timber is sent by the intercolonial steamers to Australia.

Bark for Tanning Leather

Is an industry which is developing largely from the possession of forests: one firm alone, Messrs J. Kingsland and Co., of this town, exporting to the northern tanneries hundreds of tons of red pine or rimu and karamai (birch) bark for tanning leather, exclusive of the large quantity which is used in our local tanneries—and Messrs Kingsland and Co. use over 150 tons themselves per annum. Some better system of collecting the bark is required, and it might be worth the consideration of the Waste Lands Board whether sawmillers should not be compelled to cut the bark off the red pine trees, and utilise or sell it instead of allowing it to be burnt on the slabs which usually form the first cut of the circular saw.

Tanneries.

The possession and increase of our herds of cattle allows (neat to be sold to consumers at such a price as to place beef on every man's table. This, of course, encourages a large consumption, and the cattle utilised for food provide hides for leather of a quality and size which has already caused the Southland tanned hides to bring the highest market rates; and there is practically no limit to the extension of this important industry, for over 10,000 green bides are annually exported from the South Island to Britain: the anneries not being sufficiently numerous to manufacture leather from the hides available in the colony.

Frozen Meat.

The system of exporting meat by the freezing process to Britain, the great market of the world, will be a means of utilizing the resources of the Southland district which till recently could not have been anticipated. It opens out a prospect of a certain market for fat stock, especially sheep, that will be both steady and permanent. It is doubtless true that the trade and the machinery at present employed are only in their infant stage, and that very great improvements will be made in many details both in connection with the economical working of the machinery on the voyage, and in the arrangements for distributing the meat amongst consumers throughout Britain. But the principle of freezing meat and maintaining it fresh and sweet for human consumption has been tested and proved, and, as the trade is developed, the risks of loss by imperfect machinery or unsuitable ships will be greatly diminished. To the sheep farmer the system offers a guarantee that his surplus stock will find a ready market at a price which should induce him to maintain his flocks at the highest carrying capacity of his land.

Coal

Will play an important part in the future of New Zealand, and the whole of the Southland district will share in the prosperity which must follow the systematic working of our coal measures. A cheap and economic fuel is a necessity in profitably working many industries. The coal measures at the Nightcaps are the only mines in Southland that are efficiently worked. In the Government returns for the year 1882 it is shown that 6730 tons
was the output for that year. The coal is classed under the head of hydrous, and it is a pitch coal; its structure is compact, has a smooth fracture, does not desiccate on exposure, nor is it absorbent of water, and it burns freely. This mine could probably be wrought very economically if the proprietors were to adopt Messrs Sebastian, Smith, and Moore's system of coal getting by compressed lime. I will explain it. "Cartridges are employed consisting of nearly pure lime, 2½ inches diameter, which, by hydraulic pressure, are reduced from 7 inches to 4½ inches in length, the density being thus nearly doubled; when slaked in an unconfined space, these occupy about five times their original bulk. The shot holes are drilled by means of a light boring machine. The cartridges are then enclosed by tamping in the same way as powder, and they are slaked by moans of a small force-pump. The time occupied in drilling a hole three feet deep is 10 to 30 minutes, according to the hardness of the coal. On the removal of the sprags, which are left in, the coal falls clean from the roof in large masses ready for loading, practically making no small. The following are among the principal advantages claimed for this system. There is no smoke or noxious smell of any kind. The roof is not shaken by this process; no vacuum is created, as is the case with a blown-out shot; and the coals in falling produce much less dust, thereby reducing the danger which is generally admitted to arise from the air of a mine being heavily charged with small particles of coal. Skilled labor is unnecessary, and the coal can be got with much less exertion to the collier than by wedging. After pumping the water into the charged holes the men need not discontinue working, as in the case with gunpowder, for, simply moving away from the face of the coal while the sprags are being taken out, all risk of injury from falls is avoided." A comparative result of coal-getting by the above system, and by labor at fifty different collieries, was as follows:—Men working 320 hours in the ordinary way of wedging brought out 628 tons. By using the lime patent, men working 219 hours brought out 768 tons.

It is worthy of extensive record that the engines on the Southland section of the New Zealand railways are driven with Nightcaps coal.

But not alone at Nightcaps will the district have wealth brought from the hidden treasures underground, for extensive coal measures await development at Orepuki, which is not a greater distance from Invercargill than the Nightcaps, and in addition to the coal, which appears to be of the same character, class, and quality, extensive beds of shale overlie the coal measures. These have been more or less tested, and are found to produce an excellent lubricating oil and a good light burning oil, whilst the shale will he without doubt extensively used for gas making purposes, as it will raise the standard of gas for illumination to a high degree of excellence. For some time past the engineer of the Municipal Gasworks has been experimenting with Southland coal, and, with the object of using it, either solely or partly, with Greymouth coal for the production of gas, and he appears confident that it can be economically employed for that purpose; and as the railway will be completed within a short distance of the coal seam there within the ensuing twelve months, a supply of Orepuki coal will be then available for local consumption. Whilst noting all these favorable points in regard to local coal, I wish to guard myself from being suspected of being interested in any local company, by pointing out that, however good these coals are, for local consumption, we shall not be in a position to export them coast wise, as the price obtainable outside of the district would not be sufficient to enable them to compete with Newcastle, or West Coast coals, when railway and ship's freight were added. The production and consumption will therefore entirely depend on the requirements of the Southland district. But local coal should effectually, by reason of the price it ought to be sold at, prevent imported coal finding a market in Southland.

**Paper Manufacture**

Must now be classed as one of the resources of the Southland district, seeing that the brown wrapping paper is chiefly made from the native tussock grass. The paper manufactory at the Mataura Falls is well worth the attention of visitors to Southland: the several processes which the raw materials undergo until the pulp is ready to enter the machines and the paper is drawn off the cylinders ready for use, are most interesting. The Company who own these works are now beginning to reap the reward of the patience and outlay that has been necessary to carry on this industry to its present success. They had great difficulties to overcome, caused perhaps principally by not procuring at the outset the newest and most approved machinery. In any future undertaking where machinery is required, the promoters should not fail to obtain the very best plant available and introduce skilled workmen for the undertaking.

**Woollen Manufactories**

Will doubtless, within a reasonably short time, become a popular branch of local industry. Suggestions have been made by Mr J. T. Martin and other prominent citizens that a joint stock company should be formed to manufacture woollen goods, and recently a representative committee was appointed in Invercargill to consider what steps should be taken to give effect to the suggestions. These gentlemen, although favorably
disposed to the undertaking, reported that the present time was somewhat inopportune for the formation of a joint stock company. When the present stringency of the money market has passed away, and this season's wool exported, another good harvest gathered, and the export of frozen meat further developed, it ought to bring about that desirable consummation; this promising industry should be again brought into prominence. I have lengthy notes as to the best kinds of wool, machinery, buildings, and plant required for this industry, but I have laid them by, as this paper appeared to be extending to a limit that might overtax the patience of the Institute to listen to.

Building Stone

At Waimea Plains, Mataura, Castle Rock, Dipton, Waiiau, and Limstone Plains, of excellent quality, is known to exist. Several circumstances have combined to delay working these deposits, except for buildings in the several localities. But business enterprise will in due course ensure these quarries being efficiently and profitably worked. Mr Blair, Engineer in Chief of the South Island, in a report, says that the granular limestone found in Southland exists in a broad zone extending across the country from the Mataura to the Waiau. It belongs to the same class as the famous Oamaru stone, but is much harder and heavier, and will absorb only one third the quantity of water that the Island oyster is highly esteemed in Melbourne, and with suitable welled crafts there is no reason why we should not in time have a largo and profitable trade with Australia.

Then again there are the fish with which the rivers and lakes of this district are being stocked. I recently tasted a splendid river trout which turned the scale before it was cooked at 7 lbs, and from the accounts given by residents in several parts of the district a few years will so increase the supply of trout that they will become available for daily consumption.

Gold Mining

has been successfully followed as an industry in the Southland district for many years. No extensive finds of rich nuggets have been made, but at Orepuki, Longwood, Round Hill, Nokomai, and Waikaia, miners systematically prosecute a search for the precious metal. Each of these localities contains what is known as "wages ground;" men can always earn on an average fifteen shillings and more a day. On the beach between Bluff harbor and Mataura river one or two parties of six men have been working for the past two years, and there are miles of beach open to working men to follow that class of occupation. The party dig the beach up and wash the material excavated, saving the gold, and when one patch of beach becomes exhausted they remove a little further off; after a strong south-east wind and swell the beach is levelled by the deposits from the sea, and the locality can again be washed up; and the process appears likely to last for many years.

It may be of interest to those who have expended time and money on the quartz reefs at Longwood to know that Professor Hutton thus speaks of the country west of Riverton:—"Gold in small quantities is found throughout this formation, but the Longwood range is the only place in which it occurs to any considerable extent. The gold of the Orepuki district must have come out of these rocks, as it is found up the valley of the Waimeamea, a small river rising in the Longwood; ranges."

Shipbuilding.

The district has other resources or industries, which as time passes and capital accumulates, will be developed, and foremost amongst these, both at Riverton, Invercargill, and Stewart Island, shipbuilding will be found, especially for vessels suitable for the coasting trade. Several schooners have been built in the New River. At Stewart Island, where timber; for all parts of a vessel is plentiful, a larger number have been constructed, one or two being of considerable size.

Ironsand

Abounds on Stewart Island, particularly between Half Moon Bay and Patersons Inlet, and is asserted to be of superior quality. A parcel was sent some years ago to Melbourne, and the assayers for the Victorian Government, and the Oriental Bank, after smelting and manufacturing [unclear: a] steel bar from it, reported that it was not only superior to the Taranaki sand, but contained a sufficient quantity of gold to pay the expense of smelting. In view of the success lately achieved at Auckland in smelting the Manukau iron sand, our local deposits may become of great importance.

Pottery, Glass, Etc.
Professor Hutton, in his valuable work on the geology of Otago and Southland, states that" an excellent deposit of clay is found in Stewart Island which would be suitable for superior porcelain ware. Veins of 'potash felspar' also have been found, and in sufficient quantity for use; and the large percentage of alkali it contains makes the stone an excellent flux for glazing pottery." The same writer points out that the establishment of glass works is an undertaking that could hardly fail to be remunerative, the material being available at our doors.

Specialties.

It is a satisfactory feature to note, that the local manufactures of specialties, which the district requires in an increasing ratio, have not been overlooked. All kinds of compositions for destroying insect life on sheep have been imported into New Zealand, but there is a fair prospect now that the two local establishments, and the only two in the colony, for the manufacture of an improved composition for destroying scab and other insects on sheep will be not only extensively used in South-land, but will be largely exported to other parts of the colony. Indeed, I am in-formed that these sheep dips are already being used amongst sheep farmers north-wards as far as Hawkes Bay.

Local Manufactures.

I think it is scarcely sufficiently known the great advance industrial occupations have made during the past few years in several of the larger towns of the colony. There is no reason why industrial enterprise should not succeed equally well in Invercargill, especially industries in which timber is used. At the Melbourne Exhibition in 1881 the specimens of drawing-room, bedroom, and office furniture, made of New Zealand red pine, totara, and silver birch attracted great attention, and were worthy of competition with the best European made exhibits. Machine-made household appliances and utensils, such as doors, tubs, buckets, ovens, grates, pumps, bells, rope, brushware, and other domestic requisites, were largely exhibited, and the manufacture of these in Invercargill will doubtless, in time, increase to at least the requirements of the district.

Iron Foundries

Are important industries, and those who have inspected the first-class steam engines, machinery, manufacturing plant, and other iron work, which the Invercargill workshop have made, will not need to be told that in this branch of trade, Invercargill workmen can hold at least their own with any other district.

Rabbit Skins.

There is an opening, I regret to say, for business enterprise to experienced furriers, in utilising some of the immense number of rabbit skins now annually exported, for there will be always a large number available every year whatever measure may be adopted to rid the colony from the rabbit pest. I have heard it said that the rabbits were rather an advantage to the colony than otherwise, in consequence of the employment they gave to men to assist in their destruction. But those who think so entirely overlook the fact that these men are not producers at all, that their labor is so much extra cost in the production of sheep and wool, which would have been produced without that labor to the great advantage and saving of the colony, and that their employment in other industries, whether in tilling the soil or in working on our extensive forests, would have assisted the extra productions, which is the only means by which the colony can attain to greatness.

I have not yet exhausted the catalogue of articles that can be produced from the raw materials which nature has abundantly Messed this colony with, but I fear to fresspass further on your time under this head.

The Harbors

Of the Southland district will aid its development in a marked degree. Its; present chief port, Bluff Harbor is universally known as one of the finest ports of the colony, and freights are insured to that harbor at the same rates as to the other first-class ports of New Zealand. Invercargill has, however, another harbor—the port of Invercargill. In the early records of Southland it is shown that many vessels used to enter and discharge their cargoes in this port, but on the opening of the railway between Invercargill and the Bluff, the trade was diverted into that channel and the New River Harbor was allowed to fall into disuse. Its harbor staff was depleted and every effort made to concentrate trade at the Bluff. How the Invercargill merchants permitted this policy to be adopted is unaccountable. During the past few years a feeling has almost universally forced itself upon the inhabitants of the district that the waterway connecting Invercargill with the ocean ought to be utilised, that a
great loss is annually borne by the community in the cost of freights from the Bluff to Invercargill and Invercargill to the Bluff, which need not, and ought not, to be submitted to. These opinions fortunately exist in the governing body of the New River Harbor, and the first steps are now being taken for improving the channel so that vessels prosecuting the intercolonial trade should load and discharge at Invercargill, and save at least seventeen miles of railway carriage. This is an important matter to the whole district, and especially to the farmers, as a great portion of the grain exported is shipped to the neighboring colonies, and the cost of carriage between Invercargill and the Bluff is a direct loss to them. In imports the loss is distributed over the whole community. It is not too much to expect, therefore, that united action by the whole community will eventually cause the port of Invercargill to be so improved that ocean going vessels will belying alongside our wharves within sight of the principal streets of Invercargill.

**Imigration**

Is essentially necessary to enable the great resources of the Southland district to be fully developed; not an introduction of working men only, although a very large number of our best settlers and many of our public men originally worked for wages. A recent writer on New Zealand, referring to self-made men, says—"Perhaps Invercargill is more remarkable for this class of men than any other town in New Zealand, where three-fourths of the merchant class are self-made men. All honor to the industry and perseverance of such citizens. They have the pith and stamina of prosperous communities, and if they will continue to exert their influence in the direction they have hitherto done they will not only sustain the trade of Otago in its present prominent position, but increase it to the extent of their own requirements, a point which New Zealand has not yet reached." The real working man, whatever his occupation may be, will assuredly succeed in the end, but if any large number of immigrants were introduced a risk would arise from the possibility of flooding the labor market. A continuous stream of immigration on the nominated system, and the dissemination of information throughout the United Kingdom, especially in the agricultural counties, of the price of land in New Zealand, the facilities for reaching any part of the colony by steam or rail, the advantages offered by our system of State schools and High Schools for the education of children and youth, the average yield of crops and the average market price of grain and live stock, would tend to induce people to make this colony their home, and thus aid in developing its resources.

**Agricultural and Pastoral Societies**

Have already assisted the progress of the Southland district by inspiring a healthy spirit of emulation. The several exhibitions, whether they have been at Gore, Wyndham, Riverton, or Invercargill, have brought together so many excellent exhibits that farmers and settlers generally have been astonished on finding how many others had stock or implements superior to their own. This information has a beneficial influence, and excites a healthy rivalry, which is advantageous to the community.

**The Newspapers of New Zealand**

Have assisted the rapid development which we can see the colony is making more perhaps than any other institution. Every important centre now has its daily or weekly newspaper, and it would well repay every resident in those centres to bear a tax to support the local organ of public opinion. It chronicles and gives importance to every movement which has for its object the welfare of the district: every important industry is promoted, inventions or improvements made public, and the wants of the district made known. It provides a medium for inducing competition by making known the requirements or wants of the residents, it leads or guides public opinion, criticises the doings of its public and governing bodies, supports or restrains the action of public men, and is really the indispensable institution of a community.

**The Future.**

I have said that when the present commercial depression shall have passed away, steps might be successfully taken to commence a joint stock company for the manufacture of woollen goods. These monetary depressions come periodically, although not at equal intervals. That they are caused very much by speculative transactions, commercial and territorial, cannot be doubted. On the whole, although inconvenient, they are useful; for the Anglo-Saxon race, especially when transferred [unclear: too] new country, are enterprising and progressive. The same hope of success that inspires men to achieve greatness, induces them to venture a good deal off the beaten track and too freely to discount the future. But these depressions compel men to take stock of their position, and to strike a balance the temporary check inducing cautious and sounder action. The future
prospects of Southland are indeed bright. It is a district teeming with unfound wealth, with a climate temperate, invigorating and healthy. With land available for and awaiting the plough, it needs nothing but stout hearts and willing hands. A steady and constant stream of men and women can find in Southland the means of obtaining a comfortable livelihood, whatever their state may be, with the almost certain prospect of gaining before old age [unclear: has] been reached, a moderate independence, and with the knowledge that they are assisting to build up in this South Pacific indeed a Greater Britain.

Mr Scandrett having resumed his seat amidst applause,

The President said it was now open to any member to discuss the valuable and interesting paper which they had just heard.

Mr Hanan remarked that in his opinion Mr Scandrett had spoken more favorably of the Nightcaps coal than its merits deserved. He had experimented with it, and found that it would not give enough heat to fuse iron. It was principally useful for domestic purposes. The coal was of recent formation, and had been upheaved before it had matured into the anthracite coal used for smelting iron. As to the timber supply, he supposed that Seaward Bush would only last some years longer, and then where would we look for more? There were about thirty sawmills at work within a certain radius, and the timber would soon be exhausted. Like the Prodigal Son, we were spending our fortune without providing for the future. In time we would have to fall back on the Longwood Ranges, and then [unclear: Rivertoa] would go ahead, and Invercargill in a measure be depressed, as the timber would be shipped from the former place.

Mr Carswell said that Mr Scandrett was to be congratulated on the subject he had chosen. It was scarcely to be expected that he should agree with all that had been advanced, but it had been made plain to everyone present that in the words of a writer who had been quoted it was not a question of what the settlers could do, but rather what might they not do, so varied were the resources of the land in which they lived. Under these circumstances there was room for surprise that they had not been more prosperous, and, in his opinion, one reason for that was because they had not depended sufficiently on their own resources.

Mr Bailey also joined in congratulating Mr Scandrett on the lucid manner in which he had dealt with the subject. He did not intend to traverse any of the statements made, but there were many points that Mr Scandrett could not be expected to find room for in a paper. Here was one that might be worthy of consideration. The establishment of the industries and the development of the resources mentioned would require a great deal of capital and united effort. There were in the district a large number of small settlers, especially under the deferred payment system. The Land Board had lately rather encouraged the taking up of five-acre allotments, and the question might be asked—What were settlers of that kind to do? In many cases their holdings were too far from town to enable them to undertake daily work in it; the areas were not sufficient for successful farming, and were also too numerous to admit of market gardening being carried on. What opening was there for them? He thought that if the matter were considered there were many valuable industries which they might take up. There was bee keeping for example. Honey at Home was worth from 3d to 14d per lb, according to quality. This year it was a drug in the local market, and could have been bought in quantity for 3d per lb. The reason was that there was too much for local consumption, and yet not enough to export. If a large quantity were produced it would bring a higher price, because it would be bought for export. The same remark would apply to beeswax, which was worth three times as much in the Home market as it was here. Another thing was the growing of herbs. America exported to all parts of the world an immense quantity of herbs and medicinal roots and barks, all grown on small holdings. The climate of Southland was well suited for such an industry, and there were many sheltered localities in the district that could be utilised in the way mentioned. A good deal might be done in the way of encouraging such an industry by the formation of a society, which could introduce seeds into the district and furnish them to small holders. By that means the subject would be brought before the public.

Mr Donniston, after referring to the able way in which Mr Scandrett had treated a very important subject, said that with Mr Carswell, who had anticipated him on that point, he would ask—How was it that, with such a district, they were not better off than they were? That matter required elucidation, and might perhaps be dealt with in another paper.

Mr Kingsland, who was equally well pleased with the paper, thought that they had more reason to congratulate themselves on being as well off as they were, rather than to feel dissatisfied at not being more prosperous. After giving interesting particulars about the value of some New Zealand barks for tanning purposes, Mr Kingsland said that Mr Hanan had somewhat under-valued the coal products of the district. He had only looked at them from one point of view. The experiments now being made by the Gas Engineer gave the following results:—A ton of Nightcaps coal gave 7000 feet of 16-candle gas at a cost of 20s per ton delivered at the works. A ton of Newcastle yielded 9000 feet of 15-candle gas at a cost of 34s. So far, results were in favor of the Nightcaps coal for gas-making, provided the cost of purifying could be kept down to the price of Newcastle coal. In the case of the Nightcaps coal, however, there was no residual product in the shape
of coal tar, which was worth 3s per ton, nor was there any coke. The coal gave a standard of light slightly above the London standard; 16-candle gas was the standard there, and the Nightcaps coal gave 16 seven-tenths. From West Coast coal they obtained 19-candle gas, but that, as would be seen, was a much higher standard than they had in London. For gas-making alone it might, therefore, be anticipated that the Nightcaps coal would, in the end, be of value.

Mr J. T. Martin said he was surprised at the quantity of information the paper contained. He hoped that before long energetic steps would be taken to establish a woollen factory. It would find employment for the youth of both sexes. The number of persons employed by the Kaia-poi Factory, including the clothing department, was fully 500, and the establishment of similar industries here would be a lasting benefit to the district.

The Chairman said that in 1841 Mr Tuckett, Chief Surveyor of the New Zealand Land Company, was sent to Southland to report upon its applicability for settling the Free Church settlers. He reported that the place was utterly unfit for habitation—that it was, in fact, a mere bog. That was a great mistake, and it was astounding that a man in his position should have made it. In consequence of it the Free Church settlers were not sent here, but to Dunedin. Had they come here, he believed Invercargill would have now been a town of 60,000 inhabitants, with its shipping near the railway station. Why they had not been so prosperous in the past was, in his opinion, due to the fact that Southland was not formed into a Province under the first Constitution.

Mr Scandrett, in replying, expressed his gratification at the manner in which his paper had been received. The question had been asked—Why are we not more prosperous? His reply was, firstly—That the present depression was not local, but general; and, secondly, we want more people. By and bye they might hope to have more influence as a district. At present large centres exerted more influence than small ones, to the detriment of the latter. For example, the people of Southland, after years of agitation, had only succeeded in getting a little under L5000 towards the construction of the Seaward Bush Railway, which would be of great benefit to the district. In Dunedin recently an outcry was made because there was some risk to carts in crossing the railway line to get on to one of the wharves. The result was that tenders were almost immediately called for the construction of a bridge over a street, at a cost of L25,000, whereas a caretaker would have been all that was necessary, and the money could have been laid out on reproductive work. In the same way Bluff Harbor was at first ignored in the proposal to subsidise direct steamships to the colony. But time would work a reformation, and Southland would yet exert its proper influence in the councils of the State.

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How the Editor of the "Timaru Herald" Promotes and Fosters Timaru Institutions

"Veritas visa et mora, falsa festinatione et incertis valescunt."

Timaru, October, 1883.

W. H. Foden, General Printer Timaru Main South Road

Preface.

Time after time, the Editor of the Timaru Herald has grossly maligned and basely pandered the High School, and parties connected with its staff and management. He has done so by insinuations and general expressions of a kind which appear very plausible, and under pretence of a deep interest in the welfare of the School, and a desire that it should succeed. He has been ably supported by a small clique, whom he speaks of as the public of Timaru, who, having personal grudges against individuals not beloved of the Editor, have been doing their utmost to ruin the School. When, some two or three months ago, a very bitter leader upon the School, and myself in connection therewith, appeared, I replied in a letter which was refused admission on the ground that it was a reply to what had appeared in another journal. This was simply not true, as it was a reply to his leader. I then sent an advertisement in reference to the matter, but this was also refused admission. This is what the Herald deems fair play! On Wednesday last, another leader appeared, casting most unfounded reflections on the School, and containing most exaggerated statements in relation to the state of matters connected with it. The train on Monday was said to be "crowded" with youths and maidens going away to Akaroa and Christchurch High Schools, owing to the utter disrepute into which Timaru High School had fallen. Some were even going as far away as Dunedin. These statements had less foundation a great deal than our M.H.R.’s now famous representation of the necessity for the "Hinemoa" being sent to take away the starving workpeople of Timaru. The Railway might have contracted to carry away "the crowd" for a five pound note, and done well out of its contract. A cheap advertisement was given to Akaroa High School, which it will be very ungrateful of the Board of that School if it does not acknowledge by a share of its patronage. In view of all this opposition, I have felt constrained to take this step of laying before the residents of South Canterbury a
Chapter in the History of the High School, which will explain to a large extent persistent attacks which have all along been made by the Herald and certain others upon that Institution, and myself in connection therewith. The School was born and cradled amid a storm of virulent opposition, and the would-be Herods of its infancy have pursued it with relentless enmity up to the present time. Some knowledge of the past history of the Institution is necessary to understand the present position of parties. In order, therefore, to enlighten the public, and as a matter of simple justice to others as well as myself, I have been led to issue the following pamphlet. Few are aware of the whole facts herein detailed, and many have forgotten them. Had there been anything like fairplay, or a desire to do justice manifested by opponents, I would not have taken this step, but with the facts now before them, I confidently appeal to the public for their decision between us.

TIMARU,

WM. Gillies.

20th Sept., 1883.

A Chapter in the History of the High School, Time.

ON June 4, 1878, Mr. Gillies moved in the Timaru Public Committee that steps be taken to get the school declared [unclear: district] High School under the Education Act, 1877. This was [unclear: set] by Mr Cliff, then Mayor of Timaru, and supported by Messrs [unclear: Tar] Green and Price. Accordingly, the late Mr. Tate, as Chairman [unclear: Committee,] sent a letter to the Board of Education for South [unclear: Cant] making the request. This letter came before the Board on [unclear: June] as reported thus in the Timaru Herald:

A letter was read from Mr Tate, Chairman of the Timaru School [unclear: Co] enclosing a resolution of the Committee with reference to having the Public School proclaimed a district High School.

The Rev. Mr Gillies said he had a resolution to propose, in reference to [unclear: Mr] letter.

Messrs Goldsmith, Postlethwaite and Barclay urged that as there were members absent it would not be fair to discuss so important a matter.

The Chairman said he thought that as it was late in the day, and the several members of the Board absent, it would not be fair to bring [unclear: for] important a question as the establishment of a High School. He would [unclear: say] Mr Gillies to defer moving his resolution until the next meeting of the [unclear: Board.]

The Rev. Mr. Gillies said that while he did not approve of the [unclear: print] postponing the business of the Board because some members were absent, [unclear: be] submit to have his motion made a notice of motion for the next meeting Board.

This having been agreed to, the Rev. Mr Gillies read the notice of [unclear: motice] was as follows:—

"That this Board approves of the proposal to erect the Timaru Public [unclear: School] a District High School in terms of sections 55 and 56 of the Education [unclear: Act] and resolves to apply to the Minister of Education for the necessary [unclear: saw] enable the Board to give effect to the proposal."

"That in making application to the Minister of Education for his [unclear: sanction] erection of the Timaru Public School into a District High School, the [unclear: fi] statement thereanent be forwarded to him—

"That at present there is no High School in the District of South [unclear: Cal] and consequently, no school to which the proportion of revenues of [unclear: a] for secondary education, available for the district, can be [unclear: applied] School Commissioners."

"That at the last session of the House of Representatives a sum of [unclear: a] voted for the erection of buildings for a High School in Timaru [unclear: and] Canterbury College Board of Governors; but no provision was [unclear: may] does any exist, for payment of the salaries of the staff necessary [unclear: of] establishment of such a High School, the revenue from reserves for secondary education not being sufficient for that purpose, so that it will necessarily be some considerable time before such High School can be established.

"That it is a great hardship to the district that no provision for secondary education should exist within its bounds, in connection with our public educational institutions, the consequence being that the few who are able to afford it have to send their children elsewhere for such education, whilst the many to whom such education would be an immense boon are deprived of it."
"That at last inspection of the Timaru School, as per education report for year ending 31st December, 1877, page 26, there where eight pupils who passed standard VI, 30 who passed standard V, and 78 who passed standard IV, all of whom might have been doing something in the branches of secondary education had provision existed for it. There being no provision for such education, the V and VI standard pupils mostly pass away from school altogether; but at present there are in the school 33 boys and 43 girls above the IV standard capable of undertaking some of the branches of secondary education.

"That an attempt is being made to supply in some measure such education so that 30 boys and 12 girls have begun the study of Latin, 8 boys and 9 girls mathematics, and 12 boys and 26 girls French, besides which, 27 girls are being taught the pianoforte. But it is obvious that without some increase in the staff beyond what can be allowed for an ordinary Public School, the work cannot be satisfactorily carried on.

"That the funds for payment of such extra staff must come from fees and revenue of reserves set apart for secondary education but in order to ensure School Commissioners giving a grant for this purpose, it is necessary that the school have the status of a District High School.

"That unless greater means are placed at the disposal of the Board of Governors of the Canterbury College than are at present available for a High School at Timaru, they cannot for some time proceed with their Boys' High School, and to make provision for a Girl's High School will require still greater means; but the erection of the Timaru Public School into a District High School will give both sexes the advantage of secondary education at once.

"That the present application is not intended as in any way antagonistic to the High School to be established by the Canterbury College Board of Governors, but as a provision mean while for getting something done in the matter of secondary education, thus paving the way for better success of the more complete High School, by preparing pupils and fostering the desire for such education as it will more thoroughly supply. The Board will quite willing on the establishment of a High School of a better kind to relinquish their present proposed arrangements."

In preference to the necessity for the school being declared a District High School in order to its receiving any grant from the School Commissioners, it is necessary to state that by an Act of the Legislature of [unclear: the] previous session, all the Education reserves in Canterbury were [unclear: divided] into two classes, the one consisting of three-quarters of the whole be devoted to primary education, and the other consisting of [unclear: the] remaining quarter to be devoted to secondary education. They were all placed under a Board of Commissioners, who were bound by the Act to distribute the reserves in North and South Canterbury on [unclear: the] basis of population. Thus the annual revenues from the primary school reserves are divided according to population between the North Canterbury Board of Education and the South Canterbury one the Act the commissioners were bound to pay over the proportion the revenue from the secondary education reserves only to [unclear: second] schools established under the Canterbury College, or to other [unclear: regard] constituted High Schools; and so they passed at one of their first [unclear: meeting] the following resolution, which was duly made public:—"That [unclear: except] schools established under the Canterbury College, no school [unclear: will] deemed to be entitled to participate in the revenues [unclear: drove] from reserves set apart for secondary education, unless its to participate shall have been recognised by the Minister of Education and that it must be to the Education Board of the district to [unclear: of] such recognition."

Notwithstanding the provisions of the Act, definitely prescribing [unclear: of] the Commissioners were to do with the revenues of the secondary [unclear: vacation] reserves, and their having passed the resolution given above carrying into effect of these provisions, the following resolution moved on the 14th June in the Geraldine School Committee, by the George Barclay, and seconded by the Rev. Mr Preston—[unclear: That] Committee earnestly expresses the hope that the Commissioners [unclear: appoint] for the administration of Educational Reserves throughout the [unclear: vot] provincial districts will not restrict their allocations out of [unclear: meeting] accruing for secondary education to high and grammar schools, [unclear: but] the contrary they will see their way to giving a considerable [unclear: propping] to the various district schools in which the upper standards—say [unclear: that] and sixth—are taught, and whose teachers are capable of [unclear: imparting] secondary or higher branches required; and that moreover the [unclear: Commissioners] will not fail to perceive the many advantages arising [unclear: of] such a distribution, such as furnishing a stimulus to teachers to [unclear: raise] standard of the school, the convenience of a large number of [unclear: part] who would not be able to send their children a long distance and great expense to some one high school; and the general diffusion [unclear: of] higher branches of education throughout the whole colony, [unclear: instead] practically confining them to a few particular towns and [unclear: neighborhood]. The Geraldine School Committee thus lifted up its voice and [unclear: its] aloud to all the School Commissioners in New Zealand to go in the [unclear: find] the Act which they were appointed to administer!

Mr. Gillies' resolution, of which he had given notice on June came up for consideration at a meeting of the Board on the 19th days after the above famous Geraldine resolution, and on the [unclear: motion] the Rev. G.
Barclay, the subject was again postponed on some [unclear: place] further consideration being necessary before taking such a step, June 24th, a letter appeared in the *Herald* from Mr John [unclear: Me] which he pointed out (1) "That the Board by their action had [unclear: not] the children of the town and district of their educational [unclear: birthday] (2) that the Board had deprived the whole district of its fair [unclear: show] secondary education money; (3) that they had opposed and [unclear: obst] the cause of education and wilfully cast away our share in the [unclear: hard] benefits obtained for us by our most enlightened statesmen; (4) that they have gained for themselves that most unenviable character—Dog in the Manger."

At a meeting of the Timaru School Committee held on 1st July, the matter was again considered, and the following resolution proposed and carried:—

"That the Committee having seen from the public Press that their application to have the Timaru Public School declared a High School, was delayed for the purpose of making an inquiry into its constitution, teaching staff and expenses, would respectfully urge that their request be granted; and in reference to the information required by the Board, would forward the following statement":—

"1st. That whilst this Committee would, if funds were available for the salaries of the necessary staff, gladly hail the immediate establishment of a High School in Timaru where secondary education alone would be provided for boys and girls, yet they cannot see that there is any probability of this taking place for a year or two to come The Minister for Education has distinctly intimated in his recent circular to Boards, re funds for educational purposes, that he has no funds available for special purposes, such as High Schools, so that any application to him for aid would be useless The Board of Governors of Canterbury College have no funds; the South Canterbury Board of Education have no funds, and all the funds at the disposal of the Board of School Commissioners for secondary education will be very limited for a considerable time, not more than from £200 to £250 per annum, and in the opinion of some, these funds should not be wholly devoted to one central institution for the district. In these circumstances a High School constituted for the sole purpose of providing secondary education seems to be a very remote possibility indeed. But it would be folly to delay the attempt to supply at once in so far as practicable the means of secondary education in connection with our present Public School, and in order to accomplish this it is necessary that it should be converted into a District High School under clauses 55 and 50 of the Education Act, 1877."

"2nd. That it was clearly the intention of the Legislature that such High Schools where the giving of primary and secondary education might be combined, should be established in all suitable centres of population. That Timaru is as yet the chief centre of population in South Canterbury, and so is entitled to the privilege now claimed without detriment to the claims of other districts when they are ready for a similar privilege.

"3rd. That by the combination of primary and secondary education in the one school, secondary education can be provided at a much less cost than when separate establishments have to be maintained.

"4th. That by a comparatively slight addition to the present staff, the end timed at could be attained; and for this the Committee do not ask the Board to give one penny additional money from their funds above what the school is entitled to as a primary school, but only that the school may be declared a High School, in order that the Committee may have the right to charge fees for the secondary education to be given. From the fees, and the share of the revenues of Education Reserves for Secondary Education they may justly be entitled to, this Committee undertake to pay the additional staff required. The proposal, therefore, to have the Timaru Public School declared a District High School will not in the slightest degree take away from the funds at the disposal of the Board for primary education throughout the whole district, and no injury or injustice will then be done to country districts."

The motion having been seconded by Mr. Mee, was agreed to unanimously.

The question came before the Board again on August 18, when the motion of which notice had been given by Mr Tate, should have been discussed, but was postponed because Mr Postlethwaite was absent The Board met again on 21st August, when Mr Tate rose to move his resolution Mr. Barclay asked whether similar applications to that received [unclear: from] Timaru had been received from other schools. The Chairman said Mr. Tate then moved—"That this Board take into consideration constitution, teaching staff, and expenses of a District High School South Canterbury, and the basis on which such school will be established." Seconded by Mr Granger. Mr Barclay moved as an [unclear: amendment]—"That since it is known to certain members of the Board [unclear: the] applications re high schools are being forwarded from various district the Board, before acceding to the request of the Timaru School Committee, take into consideration all such applications [unclear: concurrently] Seconded by Mr Postlethwaite. Amendment negatived. Mr [unclear: Barclay] then proposed and Mr Howell seconded—"That the Chairman, [unclear: Met] Tate, Howell, Gillies and the mover be appointed a sub-committee confer with the Inspector, respecting the basis on which high school should be established." Agreed to.

At the meeting of the Board on September 4, Mr Hammond [unclear: g] in the report of the sub-committee,
which recommended (1) that school be allowed to commence the branches of secondary education [unclear: which] they have passed standard IV in primary education; (2) that the to be charged should not exceed £6 6s per annum; (3) that any Committee applying that their school be made a District High School should guarantee a minimum of 25 scholars; (4) that no grant town such secondary education be made out of primary education [unclear: fund] (5) before any teacher is appointed head master of a high school, must satisfy the Board that he is able to teach matriculation subject Amendments on this report were proposed by Mr Barclay, seconded Mr Postlethwaite; but ultimately the report was adopted. Copies was ordered to be sent to the various school committees. At this meeting applications were read from Teruka, Geraldine, and Waimate Committees, that their schools should be made district high schools.

It is a very remarkable thing that when no provision existed in the district for secondary education, such obstacles should have been [unclear: throw] in the way of getting the Timaru Public School declared a District High School, and that the conditions precedent to the declaration any school, a District High School should have been so stringent, [unclear: which] now, when provision does exist for such education, the Board should such easy terms, proclaim Waimate and Temuka public schools to district high schools. The spirit of opposition to Timaru having a High School thus early manifested by the Board of Education, has been [unclear: consistently] maintained throughout.

The contest had proceeded thus far, when the opening of the railway right through from Christchurch to Dunedin took place, about the [unclear: M] September, and the members of the Legislature took a trip from [unclear: Willington] in honor of the occasion. As they were passing through [unclear: Timaru.] Mr Gillies saw Mr Stout, who was then Attorney-General, and [unclear: fought] that he would be favorable to the passing of an Act granting a High School to Timaru, with an endowment out of secondary education reserves. On the return of members from Dunedin, Mr Gillies went to Christchurch, and arranged with Mr Stout to draft the Bill, and as to the general terms thereof. On his way home, he met the lion. Mr Rolleston, at Selwyn Station, and on placing the matter before him, found he would give the proposal his hearty support. A public meeting was immediately called by advertisement. That meeting was held in the Borough Council Chambers on the evening of September 12, Mr Tate, Chairman. Mr Gillies stated to the meeting what he had already done, and then proposed, seconded by Mr Granger—"That immediate steps be taken for the establishment of a High School at Timaru." Proposed by Mr Gillies, seconded by Mr Hammond—"That an endowment of land to the annual value of £1000 be asked to be set apart out of the reserves for secondary education for the Timaru High School." Proposed by Mr Hammond, seconded by Mr Scott—"That the constitution of the Board of Governors should be two members nominated by the Canterbury College Board of Governors, two nominated by the Governor, two elected by the South Canterbury Board of Education, and the Mayor of Timaru:"

Proposed by Mr Scott, seconded by Mr Granger—"That a committee be appointed to carry out the foregoing resolutions, consisting of Messrs Tate, Gillies, Hammond, Fussell, and Scott" On the motion of Mr Fussell, a vote of thanks was accorded to Mr Gillies for what he had done toward obtaining a High School for Timaru.

The scene of battle was now transferred to Wellington. A statement in regard to the education reserves in Canterbury, and what was wanted for the establishment of a High School in Timaru, was printed by Mr Gillies, and a copy posted to every member of both houses of Parliament, that they might have definite information before them on the subject, The Bill was read the first time on September 17. The second reading same on upon the 25th, when Mr Montgomery objected to Timaru getting the endowment asked for, and proposed that [unclear: t] be left in the hands of the School Commissioners to make an allocation [unclear: in] accordance with the Education Reserves Act, 1877. That meant that population should be the basis of the endowment, so that South [unclear: Canterbury] would have got about £250 per annum, and Christchurch all the houseands. Mr Rolleston and Mr Turnbull of the Canterbury members [unclear: of] the House of Representatives, alone supported the Bill, and they and Mr. Stout replied to the objections raised against it. Mr Rolleston said that "he wished to express his opinion that nothing could be worse than to make the primary schools institutions with secondary education attached to them, instead of creating a different grade of education Distinct from primary schools." Mr J. E. Brown let out the secret [unclear: Whence] the opposition to the Bill was emanating. He said (vide Vansard) "If he was not misinformed, the Board of Education of South Canterbury was not unanimous as to the establishment of a high school a Timaru, and as that Board was very much interested in the management of the institution, it should have a voice in the matter." [unclear: B] suggested that the Education Board should determine where the school should be, and that they have control of the money. Intimation having been given from Wellington of the determined opposition [unclear: for] Bill was to encounter from the Canterbury members generally, [unclear: Mr] Gillies wrote to all the Otago and Southland members, and also some the North Island members on the subject, asking their aid to get [unclear: the] Bill passed, and received favorable replies from every one of them. [unclear: the] October 2, the Bill came on for discussion in Committee, and the [unclear: stout] of what transpired there was thus graphically told by "Our Own Corespondent" in the Timaru Herald, who that corespondent was I [unclear: may] not say, so that from his own pen we have the story of his
opposition the Bill. "The last week has been the most interesting of the when session so far. Wednesday, the
only day in the week that is [unclear: devoted] to private members business now, was almost entirely occupied in
[unclear: discussing] the Timaru High School Bill. Mr. Turnbull was nominally charge of the Bill, but it was evident
from the beginning that Mr. Stout was strongly interested in it, for [unclear: same] reason or other
while the very fact of all the Canterbury members, with the solitary exception of Mr. Rolleston, be opposed to it,
was quite sufficient to induce a good many others support it much more actively than is usually the case with
purely [unclear: low] measures. The first dispute arose upon the clause providing for constitution of the Board,
the original proposal of the Bill was that Board should consist of the Mayor of Timaru, ex officio, two members
nominated by the Canterbury College, two nominated by the Governor and two by the South Canterbury Board of
Education. Mr. [unclear: Wake] moved as an amendment that the Board should consist simply of [unclear: the]
members elected by the South Canterbury Board of Education, [unclear: the] three members nominated by the
Governor. The reasons which he [unclear: u] in support of this view were that there was a strong feeling in the
[unclear: court] districts against Timaru monopolising the advantages of second education, and that the
school about to be established would be [unclear: render] much more popular if the governing body were made
generally [unclear: representative], as it would be by leaving the election of the majority of members to the
Board of Education. He pointed out that though Mayor of the town was the chief person in municipal matters, it
by means followed that he was the best man to put on a committee management of higher education, and in the
present case it was [unclear: particularly] undesirable that he should be so appointed, owing to the feel which
prevailed that this was about to be made a school for [unclear: Timaru] alone. Mr. Turnbull accepted the
amendment, and every one of the Canterbury members supported it. The Southland members, however got up
an opposition to it, and managed to raise a false issue as [unclear: better] Mayors as popular representatives and
nominated members. Mr. [unclear: j] who probably neither knew nor cared a straw about the Timaru High
School made a most abusive speech, in which he denounced the [unclear: Canterbury] members en masse as
snobs, a term which the Chairman made him withdraw immediately, and the drift of which was that all
educational and all other public matters ought to be entirely in the hands of the mob. There was something
evidently the matter with the member for Wallace, who did not appear to have any control over what he was
saving. The light on the Mayors presently became general—the particular bill being forgotten for the time—and
on a division it was decided that the Mayor should be on the Board. It may be thought strange that, Mr.
Turnbull having accepted Mr. Wakefield's amendment, it should yet have been negatived, but the explanation
of that is that Mr. Turnbull privately opposed the amendment, and asked all the Government men to vote
against him upon it. This having been settled, the member for Geraldine stood out for having the country
districts directly represented as well as the town, and with this view, Mr. Rolleston moved as an amendment,
allowing the County Councils of Geraldine and Waimate to nominate one member each to the Board. This was
carried, but the Board having been a decidedly peculiar educational body owing to the introduction of so many
foreign elements, Mr. Stout moved a further amendment which was also carried, to the effect that all the
members should only hold office for a year. After this the Bill ran pretty smoothly until the clause was reached
vesting a portion of the educational reserves in the Board, sufficient to yield a present income of £1000 a year,
then the fight began in earnest. Mr. Turnbull took no part whatever in it, but sat at the table with his head
leaning on his Hands, as if he were quite indifferent to the result The real combatants were the
Attorney-General and Mr. Rolleston, backed up by the Otago and Southland members on one side, and on the
other all the rest of the Canterbury members and their friends from various parts of the colony. Mr. Wakefield
moved an amendment, embracing the principle which his side advocated. It was to the effect that the
Commissioners should be empowered to pay to the Timaru High School Board an annual sum sufficient for
their requirements, but that the body of the reserves them selves should not be encroached upon. He mentioned
that a great part of the country districts were not interested in the Timaru High School, Bid could never take
advantage of it, and that therefore they should not be deprived of their prospect in sharing in course of time in
the proceeds of the endowment for secondary education. He was strongly supported by Mr. Bowen, Mr. Wason,
and Mr. Montgomery. The last named read a letter from the Rev. George Barclay on the subject, of which I
have obtained a copy. As it may interest many of your readers, I transcribe it in full. "Manse, Geraldine, 23rd
September, 1878. Dear sir—At a meeting (a very small one) recently held in Timaru, it was resolved to ask the
Government out of reserves for secondary education within the province of Canterbury to allocate lands to the
annual value of £1000 for the purpose of a high school in Timaru. Outside of Timaru I have been asked by a
great number of people to communicate to you what they feel in the matter. They strongly object to asking for
the funds accruing for secondary education," &c. (The rest of the letter I omit; it is all in the same strain, and is a long one.) "Our
Own Correspondent" continues—"In spite of all the efforts of the Cantrebury members, however, the
Attorney-General, who made a party question of this as of anything else, carried his point, and one amendment after another was negatived. At last an amendment, proposed by Mr. Kelly, member for New Plymouth, reducing the high school endowment from £1000 to £500 a year was accepted by Mr Stout and carried. The member for Geraldine still resisted the clause with all his might and [unclear: main] and would undoubtedly have prevented its passing if he had had one or two equally determined friends to help him. The question now got to muddled, however, and the reduction of the amount had so far allays opposition, that the interest in the Bill was destroyed, and at last he [unclear: will] left alone. Still he fought on singlehanded against all the forces of [unclear: the] opponents, and only gave up the struggle when overpowered by number and fatigue at one o'clock in the morning, the Bill having occupied the whole day. I hear that the contest is not over yet, but that it is likely to be renewed in the Legislative Council. Mr. Montgomery, too, [unclear: but] introduced a similar Bill for Christchurch, and I believe Mr. [unclear: Was] and Mr Wakefield are likely to do the same for their own district respectively. Among them all, the Timaru Bill will have but little chance, unless its provisions are altered so as to leave the [unclear: reser] themselves intact." The indications given in this letter of an intention fight the battle afresh in the Legislative Council, led Mr Gillies to write to [unclear: all] the members of that House from Otago and Southland, and others from the North Island known to him, and again he received assurances support, among which that of Sir Dillon Bell, now Agent-General, [unclear: was] one of the heartiest. The Bill came on for its second reading in [unclear: the] Council on October 16, in charge of the Hon. Mr Buckley. It had [unclear: previously] been referred for consideration to the Local Bills Committee which Sir Dillon Bell was chairman, and from that committed reached the Council with this very important and beneficial alteration of the endowment being made one-fourth part of the education reserves for secondary education in Canterbury. Thus, [unclear: instead] of being defeated in the Upper House, Timaru was treated with [unclear: the] utmost generosity. The Hon. Mr Buckley, in moving the second reading of the Bill as amended by the Local Bills Committee, took up the [unclear: ca] of South Canterbury very warmly. The Hon. Mr Hall wished the [unclear: But] delayed till other Bills for schools in North Canterbury could brought up, and asserted that South Canterbury was entitled only one-sixth part of the reserves. He was answered with great spirit of the Hon. Mr. Holmes, who said "That Christchurch had always managed to get its fair share of these endowments, and derived [unclear: and] than its fair share of the emoluments for the support of education. He did not grudge them that, what he did complain of was that instead of agreeing with a good grace to what was just to Timaru, there should be any opposition from any person coining from Christchurch." A lively debate followed, in which the Honorables Robinson, Wigley, and Dr. Pollen took part against the Bill, and the Honorables, Reynolds, Menzies, Paterson, and Colonel Whitmore took part for it. Mr. Buckley summing up the debate with a very spirited reply. The Bill was then read a second time, and next day was read a third time. On the day following, it came before the House of Representatives for consideration of the amendments introduced by the Legislative Council. On Mr. Turnbull moving that they be agreed to, Mr. Wakefield made another attempt to destroy the Bill. He said "that the changes made in the Bill were entirely for the worse. The Bill was a bad one when it went to the Council, but was worse now. He proposed that the amendments be not [agreed to and he hoped the House would assist him in resisting this piece of gross injustice." Mr Stout again defended the Bill, Messrs Stevens, Teschemaker, and Montgomery disapproving. The latter said as, however, it had previously passed the House by overwhelming majorities, he did not see the necessity for fighting it over again. At last the amendments were agreed to, and the Bill finally passed and became law. After this narrative of the opposition which the Bill met in its passing through the House, it is not difficult to understand the warm affection which the Timaru Herald has ever since displayed toward the High School and the Rev. Wm. Gillies.

In due course the act came to be carried out, and the Government communicated with Mr Gillies as to the two members of the Board whom they should nominate. He sent up a list of six or eight names, of which the two at the head were Archdeacon Harper and Mr. R. A. Chisholm, and he received a reply stating that these were the two selected by the Government. His own name was not on the list, as he, being a member of the Education Board, expected that body to elect him one of its representatives. This, however, it did not do, but elected Messrs Belfield and Barclay. So elated were certain members over this apparent triumph that they could not conceal their delight, But openly boasted at the railway station that they had kept Gillies out at any rate. On the day following, it came before the House for consideration of the amendments introduced by the Legislative Council. On Mr. Turnbull moving that they be agreed to, Mr. Wakefield made another attempt to destroy the Bill. He said "that the changes made in the Bill were entirely for the worse. The Bill was a bad one when it went to the Council, but was worse now. He proposed that the amendments be not [agreed to and he hoped the House would assist him in resisting this piece of gross injustice." Mr Stout again defended the Bill, Messrs Stevens, Teschemaker, and Montgomery disapproving. The latter said as, however, it had previously passed the House by overwhelming majorities, he did not see the necessity for fighting it over again. At last the amendments were agreed to, and the Bill finally passed and became law. After this narrative of the opposition which the Bill met in its passing through the House, it is not difficult to understand the warm affection which the Timaru Herald has ever since displayed toward the High School and the Rev. Wm. Gillies.

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zealous friends had collected money for a ladies' cup, but had given notice to the Board or its Chairman of their intended gift. It brought on the ground on sports day, and arrangements made by parties themselves for its presentation, but as the Board had on [unclear: the] previous year decided that all sports prizes should be dealt with as prizes, and presented at the end of the year on speech day, the [unclear: Rest] objected to the special presentation of the ladies' cup on the ground contrary to the rule laid down by the Board. An apeapl was made to [unclear: the] Chairman of the Board to order the Rector to allow the cup to presented that day. He declined to do so, and said he must uphold [unclear: the] decision of the Board, and as other parties had also given prizes difference would be made between one and another. Over this there was great storm, and ultimately notice was sent to the Chairman that the ladies' cup was withdrawn. He accepted the intimation, but told Rector that a cup of equal value would be provided, as the boys [unclear: are] not suffer through any disagreement which had arisen. Funds [unclear: was] soon subscribed by other friends present. The original cup was [unclear: that] taken off the ground, and declarations were made that the first [unclear: for] ward step in the history of the school had taken place that day. [unclear: All] sure enough from that day ceaseless and persistent efforts have been made to damage the school, its Rector, and its then Chairman.

The story of these efforts can all be told with documentary [unclear: pa] if it should become necessary. In the meantime, I content myself [unclear: was] this narrative of the earlier history of the school, that the public of South Canterbury may have before them the real origin and cause [unclear: an] the bitter opposition which it has encountered in Herald circles, the beginning of the year 1882, the old Chairman suffered the [unclear: pear] of his part in the cup business by being ousted from the chair, [unclear: where] the Rector has been subjected to constant annoyance, and all [unclear: sorts] slanders circulated against him, and attempts made to find fault [unclear: that] provoke a quarrel to secure his dismissal. By the aid of a hostile [unclear: Person] the small persistent clique of detractors have so far succeeded in [unclear: being] the school into a certain amount of disfavour, and had it not [unclear: been] for the exceptionally good work done within its walls, it would ere this have been an utterly ruined institution. Parents who [unclear: will] not had children there have been frightened from sending [unclear: them] by the malevolent misrepresentations of the Press, and one or two have had children have withdrawn them, because of the cup [unclear: well] ness, whilst one or two have been withdrawn from dissatisfaction of kind which is to be found arising everywhere in connection with the institutions. The Herald in its last attack says that " the [unclear: mind] in connection with the school was in giving it too narrow a tone, trying to mould it too closely on a particular model. This, whilst [unclear: in] doubt gained the support of one section of the community, alienated the others and created a prejudice against the school, which will never be removed until a complete reorganisation takes place." It would have been nearer the truth had the Herald said "that the offence in our eyes is that the school was established on too broad a basis, admitting the children of a class which has deterred certain persons of position from sending their children to the school. A high school was never meant for the many, but for the few, and great offence has been given to the wealthier section of the community, who, taking advantage of their means, are sending their children elsewhere. By reorganisation we mean re-officering of the school, by removal of teachers (notably the Rector), who, from causes we are not called upon to specify, as we cannot assign incompetency, have come under our displeasure, and the removal from the Board of one most hated member, who, it seems, in addition to other sins, has by some hocus-pocus got a life appointment,"

After the first Chairman was set aside, an attempt at reorganisation was made. The hour of opening was changed to suit the convenience of some families in town, and thereby the attendance of all pupils from the country by train was cut off. An alteration from quarters to terms was also made in the interests of the few, and that after a quarter had been begun and paid for. And thus confusion was introduced into the payment of fees, and their payment made more difficult for persons of small means. The decrease in pupils began with this re-organisation, and the determination to avenge the cup business. As to the working of the school, and the work done by the school, official reports and examinations give an emphatic contradiction to newspaper misrepresentations. Here I leave the matter in the meantime, but if occasion requires it, I shall not shrink from making a further contribution to the History of the High School, exposing the efforts which have been made to blast its fair fame and that of those who have striven for its general usefulness.

decorative feature

W. H. Foden, General Printer, Main South Road, Timaru.

The Salvation Army.

A. Sermon
By the Rev. R. Waddell, M.A., delivered In St Andrew's Church, Dunedin, May 27, 1883.

The Rev. Mr Waddell prefaced his sermon on the above subject at St. Andrew's Church on Sunday last by reading the following portions of Scriptures:—Matthew ix., 14-17, and 32 to end; Matthew xi. The address was based on 1 Cor. ix., 19-23; Jude 22 and 23, Philippians i, 15-18; and the rev. gentleman said:—

We live in critical times. With the progress of science the world is fast being brought together. There will soon be no such thing as space, so swiftly can the ends of the earth be united. But nearness in space is not nearness in spirit. Fowls and foxes housed together is not the perfection of unity; and progress in mere material things is not necessarily the progress of man. Knives, gunpowder, and nitroglycerine are all excellent, and may be used to subserve the noblest ends; but they are fearfully dangerous in the hands of lunatics. Therefore when you dilate to me on the discoveries of science—on the steam-engine, electricity, and all the rest—I want to know what kind of mind is going to direct these things, nay, above all, before I can be content of heart, I want to know what kind of moral nature—what kind of soul—there in the men and women who are going to use these things. If it is the soul of a Howard or a Clarkson—well; if it be the soul of a Nero or a Robespierre I shudder. There is thus the clear probability that science may just be elaborating and perfecting the very weapons that can be used for its own destruction—for the destruction of the race. Therefore it is not the development of machinery, but it is the development that works the true advance of a nation; and in man it is not the development either of his senses or his intellect, but of his spirit—his higher and diviner side—that determines the real riches of a country—the real progress of mankind. How stands this development, then? Has the moral state kept pace with the material—with the mental? It has not done so; it is not doing so. I am not by any means a pessimist, but I only affirm what most people who are not wilfully blind can see: that the moral condition of modern society is one of extreme gravity, and of extreme peril. Light hearts and lighter heads may dance away their frivolous existence, unconscious of the abysses beside which they sport; and selfish souls may continue remorselessly to weave up their wealth out of the waste of other lives. But the earnest thinker, of whatever creed, confesses that, above all the rush and roar—

Throughout the hum of torrent lone,
And brooding mountain bee,
There sounds, we know not what, ground tone,
Of human agony.

And that is true. Take the throne of the older civilisations, and at this hour they rock, most of them, on barrels of dynamite. Take the cities of Christain England and America, and you are face to face with a lean and hungry mass, that grow is threateningly at the Respectability that lives above it and upon it. There are millions to-day in these cities that have reached a stage not much above the savage of Central Africa. After eighteen centuries there are crimes and customs in modern London that would put to the blush the immoralities of Pagan Rome. Civilised society, when it chances to think of these men and women with dead and dying souls, does not know what to do With them all, it can feebly attempt is, as the author of "Joshua Davidson" puts it, "to try to forget them—to hand them over to the policeman, or hide them behind the prison bars." The Church, too, is at its wits' end. It attracts still a certain class, but the vast mass of the population in the Home cities is purely indifferent—is becoming actively hostile The politician, the social reformer, and the religious thinker are all at one in regarding this state of matters as wholly desperate and dangerous. Churches, perhaps, are not all that could be desired—they may be lax in their methods or wrong in their methods; but no one who knows anything of human nature and the conditions of true civilisation can regard these teeming multitudes, in whom the spiritual is dying or dead, with other than feelings of the utmost pity and the utmost dread; for history tells us in clear, firm tones that

There comes a time
When the insatiate brute within the man,
Weary with wallowing in the mire, leaps forth
Devouring, and the cloven satyr hoof
Turns to the rending claw, and the lewd leer
To the horrible fanged snarl, and the soul sinks
And leaves the man a devil.

And when that time comes, then the Deluge. Some eighteen years ago a Methodist minister, as he says, through no plan or idea of his own, was led in the providence of God to the East end of London. He found that
the enormous bulk of the population there not only did not belong to any Church, but was totally ignorant of all religious truth. Face to face with the appalling misery, he then and there resolved to devote his life to making these millions at least hear of, and, if possible, know God. That minister was William Booth; and out of that resolve grew what we now call the Salvation Army.

I wish this morning to say a word or two regarding this extraordinary movement. In view of the aspect of modern society, it invites the candid and careful attention of every thoughtful person. What I shall say will be in no sense complete or comprehensive—touching only, in truth, the outer fringe of a subject as massive as it is marvellous. I need not say that regarding it good men are divided in their opinions—some looking upon the thing as Heaven-sent, others as from a very different quarter. We shall enter into no elaborate discussion of the question. The most manly, and withal, the cleverest-headed of England's preachers, puts the thing in a nutshell. Dr Dale, of Birmingham, said not long since, that for these reasons the movement should command Christian sympathy:—(1) Because it is reaching a class that the Church is practically powerless to reach; (2) It is reaching them with the right thing; and (3) it is reaching them successfully. That's precise and to the point. Nothing could be briefer; nothing could be better. The Salvation Army is reaching a class that the Church has not—somehow cannot reach. We need not stay upon the reasons for this; the fact is unquestionable. There are thousands in the Home cities who have never been inside a church—never even heard of the Gospel of Christ. It is against this compact and growing mass that the Army advances, and it is only the soberest fact to say that it is making its power felt here as no other church organization has ever yet done. There has been nothing like it since the days of Wesley and Whitfield—nothing equal to it, perhaps, since the Apostolic age. Over 5,000,000, and most of these of the lowest grades of life, are compelled to listen to the preachers of this Army every week. Moreover, it is not only reaching these masses, but it is reaching them with the right thing. Some may doubt this; some, judging from the strong and startling utterances of some of its officers, may think very differently. But it is not fair to judge an army by the irregular shots of an outpost any more than by the idle gossip of a camp follower. If we really wish to know its plans and principles, we must examine its colors, question its chiefs, read its marching orders. What, then, says General Booth? He writes in the 'Contemporary Review' for 1882: "The old-fashioned Gospel that tells a man that he is thoroughly bad; that drags out the hidden things of iniquity to the light of the great judgment throne; that denounces sin without mercy, and warns men of eternal wrath to come unless they repent and believe on the only Saviour; the Gospel of a Crucified One, who shed real blood to save men from a real guilt, and who lives to give a real pardon to the really penitent, and a real deliverance from the guilt and power of sin to all who really give up a whole heart and trust Him with a perfect trust." Such, says he, is the gospel of the Salvation Army. Is that the right thing wherewith to reach the teeming multitudes of your city slums? I, who tried to prove to you the other day that the Gospel of Christ, and nothing but the Gospel of Christ, is the power of God unto salvation to every one that believes—I, at least, will not deny it. Furthermore, it proves it is the right thing by its effects. Not only are they reached, and reached with the right thing, but, as is to be expected, they are reached successfully. They are ready—robbers, wife-beaters, drunkards, harlots, sensual, depraved, godless, careless—they are ready by the hundred and the thousand to testify to this: "A tree is known by its fruits"; and the fruits of this movement in lives lifted up out of sin, and made bounteous with somewhat of the beauty of Christ, you can gather to-day from nearly every quarter of the universe. True it is that some fruits of this movement do not seem good—seem, indeed, to not a few of us as sour and bitter, and very dangerous. And here I make the transition to some of the objections commonly raised against the Salvation Army. They will all come in, I think, under those passages of Scripture wherewith I prefaced this sermon. I can only refer to some of the more prominent. e.g., it is objected that the methods of worship are irreverent; the terms used, the gestures, the music, all that assumption of military title, all that nauseous cant as to their services—"grand charge against the Devil," "knee parades," "heavy firing," hallelujah gallop," and such like. All this is quite often is unworthy a religious service: is, as Canon Farrar, puts it "A dragging of the garments of Christian faith through the mire of hopeless vulgarity." Now, I sympathise [unclear: with] good deal with this. I could wish myself [unclear: these] were less of such things. But then it must be remembered that these services are for [unclear: cla] totally different to those who are in the habit of attending Church. To us staid and steak church-goers much of this may seem irreverent to most of the audience for whom it is [unclear: intended] it is not in the least irreverent. We are not all made alike. Everyone of us is cast in a [unclear: different] mould. Worship that one may think us becoming, another would think the [unclear: revere] The music that might suit the gorgeous cathedral worshipper would be mostly meaningless [unclear: with] the "great unwashed" from the city [unclear: slums] Quite true it is that these methods [unclear: of] worship set up as the type of what all [unclear: worship] ought to be—what all churches ought to be—that were ridiculous—that were repulsive, and would oppose it to the death. But it is [unclear: an] audience poles apart from us to whom the [unclear: Arm] addresses itself. It must be spoken to the language which it can understand—in ways this will come home closest to the heart. Nor [unclear: it] there anything unscriptural in such accommodation What says St. Paul?—"For though I have free from all men, yet have I..."
made myself [unclear: servant] unto all that I might gain some To the [unclear: Jew] became I as a Jew; to them that are under the law, as under the law; to them that are without the law. As without the law; to the weak became I as weak," etc. There is the principal which justifies the use of means—not that [unclear: once] might care to use, but that he must needs [unclear: us] that he might "by all means save some Again it is objected: The Army is going to be [unclear: a] rival to the Church; that it is itself going to be a new sect. And why not? If men can find a comfortable home there, can find them self helped up nearer to God, and the Eternal [unclear: light] why should anyone object? Is there to be [unclear: no] room for development in church as in other things? Are there to be no new ways of speaking, and of worship? Have we reached final in these things? And do we object to [unclear: people] being saved and sanctified unless It is done in [unclear: the] Presbyterian, or Methodist, or Anglican fashion. For Protestants the thing is absurd. Again, it [unclear: is] said: Those who speak are illiterate and uneducated: they may have a zeal, but it is [unclear: not] according to knowledge. Well, there is something in that, but not much. There is [unclear: great] need. I believe, at this hour, for just such [unclear: as] ministry as this—a ministry of men and [unclear: women] born out of the ranks of the poor, and who [unclear: can] speak to the poor, in thoughts and words [unclear: not] necessarily vulgar, but adapted to their circumstances and culture. Here lies the failing of our Churches. Their services are not perhaps [unclear: to] elaborate or too cultured-in a sense they [unclear: cord] scarcely be that,—but there is no room in there for the poor, no warm home for the uncultured. They cannot feel at ease in them, and so they are not found there. Again, it is said, the [unclear: Arm] makes strong efforts to catch Church members and so swell their ranks. That is not true; [unclear: but] if it were, why object? If a man feels he [unclear: gets] more good there, let him go, with all my heart But the operations of the Army are directed in the main not against Churches as such [unclear: but] against that huge daily-growing mass who belong to no Church, who live wrong, Christless [unclear: lives,] and who, as Mrs Browning puts it, Great and small Scurf and mildew of this city Spot our streets, convicts in all, Till we take them into pity.

Once more, it is said the teachings [unclear: and] doctrines of the Army are unscriptural and [unclear: ani] nicious. Reckless charges of this kind are often flung broadcast, founded usually on the random utterances of some enthusiastic speaker in the heat and hurry of excitement, or sometimes on the highly-colored reports of a hostile or a very fastidious religious Press. That is very unfair. When you want to know what the Presbyterian Church teaches, or what the Anglican Church teaches, what do you do? Do you go for your reliable information to the extravagant and abnormal types of their preachers? No! You take up their authorised statements, their Confessions, or their Articles. I am free to say that I do not find myself in accord with some of the Army's doctrines; but that does not blind me to the essential goodness of their cardinal theme—love to Christ as the power of God and the wisdom of God. That was the only theology He insisted upon. That was the only creed He asked men to accept from Him; and to this day there is no theology and no other creed to supersede it. Objection is taken to their mode, or perhaps motive, in preaching this great truth. Their appeals, it is said, are to men's baser feelings—to their sense of fear. Very well. There are men and women who have no other sense, who can only be touched through their fears. You must begin where you find people. If you want to raise a thing it is of no use cyphering above it with your lever. You must go below it and catch it at the proper angle. Rose-water is excellent, but if your sense of smell is dead it has no excellence for you; and if people have reached the stage in which fear is the only motive that effectually moves them, you must work that motion. You may not like it, but you can't help it. The fault is in the pupil, not in the teacher. Making a difference, says the Apostle and others, save with fear, pulling them out of the fire. As I say, I may differ from some of the doctrines of the Army, but that does not prevent me from joining with them in their main work; nor does my so doing imply that I homologate the rest of their teaching or their ways. If I appear on a temperance platform with an Atheist, that does not imply that I accept his beliefs, nor am I responsible for them. There is one thing on which we are agreed, and that is temperance, and we work together for that end, and for the rest we agree to differ. Paul, lying in bond in a Roman prison (to vary somewhat a statement of Beecher's), sensitive to the last degree to his own reputation—to the good name of his Master—to the success of his cause, saw bad men taking his doctrine and preaching it crudely and rudely; and what did he do? He said "Silence, silence these men; put them down; give them no countenance; they are ruining his cause; they are bringing disgrace upon religion." It so happens, however, that that's exactly what St. Paul did not say He said: "No, let them go on; I rejoice in it. In spite of their bad motives, in spite of their bad handling, there is something of Christ preached by these men that would not otherwise have come out; and so bad as they are, imperfect as is their method, erroneous as is
much of their teaching, still there is something of Christ's truth there; and so precious and powerful is it, so vital
is it even in those broken fragments, that I rejoice in spite of all these things that they are
preaching."—(Phillipians, i, 15-18.) True Apostle, most generous and great-hearted of men; and with St. Paul
here I take my stand in regard to this movement. There is much in it, as I say, that I cannot accept. I see many
dangers ahead; I see immense difficulties in its way. Nevertheless, in spite of all its defects, as long as it gives
its effort and energy to reach and raise that class that lies outside the Church and outside religion, it will have
my sympathy and support; and if there is need for such movement at Home we are not without need of it here.
There is a growing class in these colonies of youths and men and women who have passed totally outside the
principles and power of religion. On all sides you hear talk of the rampant larrikinism of our cities and our
country. For myself I believe there is a good deal of exaggeration in this talk; but, making all deductions, there
are elements at work in these new civilisations, as in the old, that are pregnant with danger in the immediate
future. Within shadow of our very churches there are crowds of men and women as heathen at heart as those to
whom we send our missionaries; and not many yards from where we sit at this moment I could take you to
families who recognise no authority except the policeman, and to boys and girls who, so far as a true
knowledge of God and religion is concerned, are as ignorant as the dog that lies at their feet. And what efforts
are being made either by the State or the Church to remedy this state of things? The State permits men and
women to herd together like beasts in dens dignified by the name of houses, that are destructive alike of their
physical and moral natures; and it permits the erection at every street corner and every convenient place, of
dramshops that are sowing the seeds of vice and wickedness of every kind and quality. And the Church is
practically powerless. It is only within recent years that it has waked up out of its dream, and it stands aghast at
the "sins and sorrows of the city." Mr Carlyle once said: "I should not have known whatever to have made of
this world had it not been for the French Revolution." He meant that, looking at all the wrongs and
wretchedness which the lower classes had to endure at the hands both of Christian and non-Christian society, he
would have found it hard to believe in the righteous rule of the Universe unless it had been avenged by some
such catastrophe. And as one of the most cultured of English preachers (Baldwin Brown) said recently:
"Looking around us now at the hosts of our godless masses, at Christian Europe armed to the very teeth; at its
cities teeming with paupers, profligates, harlots, and outcasts, we may say with certainty that we are
approaching another such catastrophe. Depend upon it there is no way out of such kingdom as men's selfish
passions have made into the kingdom of Heaven, which God has in store for the world save through darkness,
tears, and blood."

We may gain hope that this will be averted, but the only way by which it can be averted is to permeate
these dark places with the light and spirit of Christ; and surely every Church and every man who wishes well to
his fellow-man will be ready to welcome any movement having this object for its end. I know well, however,
that there are those who deride the Salvation Army because it does not keep to what they call the "old paths" of
doing things; but it is such blind conservatism that has imperilled and has wrecked, many of the best institutions
that have ever appeared on the earth. Times are changing, and we cannot stand still. It is not true orthodoxy—it
is stagnation, it is death—to lie becalmed on "old paths"

Day after day, day after day,
Without a breath or motion,
As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean.

We who have charge of the advance of Christ's kingdom must remember that the Church exists for the sake
of the kingdom, and not the kingdom for the sake of the Church; and, as Christ commands, we must be like the
wise householder, able to bring out of our treasures things new as well as things old. And I know, also, that
there are others who will be able to see no good whatever in this movement—others, in this town, who, in spite
of the unanswerable testimony of decreasing business in the police courts; in spite, even, of the manly and
candid confession regarding the good that the Army is doing, on the part of a paper so little likely to be partial
to the movement as the Dunedin 'Echo'—I say, in spite of all these, there are many who will find nothing but
what is evil and pernicious in the whole thing; But this can't be helped. "What did I tell you about the sun?" said
a teacher to one of his scholars. "Please, sir," replied the boy, "You told me It was a thing that had spot in it."
Exactly, and there are crowds of people who can't see the light for the motes that float within it.
For myself, when I consider the amazing self-sacrifice of nearly all the men and women who compose this
Army—when I talk with them and see their simple, whole-hearted consecration; when I go to their services and
behold the earnestness, the devotion, the eager anxiety to help and bless their fellow-beings; when I think that
to-morrow there are hundreds of these people ready at an hour's notice to take their lives in their hand and go to
the ends of the earth to preach Christ to their fellow-men—I ask myself who am I that I should sit still on easy chairs and coldly criticise their faults! And I ask you—you who can discover no good in the Army—what are you doing for the hungry souls around you that you should withhold your sympathy—nay, perhaps, that you should even assail with ribald scorn those who in their own best way and at such immense risk and sacrifice are yet trying to bring to these needy ones the bread of Eternal Life?

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Beetroot Sugar Manufacture.
Adaptability of New Zealand Soil and Climate, as shown by Practical Experiments carried out in Waikato; together with a Variety of Information relating to Silesian Beet Culture and Sugar Manufacture gathered from authentic sources in Belgium and other parts of the Continent of Europe.
Printed at the Waikato Times Office. Hamilton, Waihato, N.Z. MDCCCLXXXIV

Beetroot Sugar Manufacture.

The object of this pamphlet is to bring under notice the extraordinary benefits to New Zealand which would immediately follow the manufacture of sugar from beetroot grown in the colony, and the more effectively to do this, and promote an earnest desire to see a sugar mill started, the writer intends to be as brief as possible in his remarks, and cull from well-established authorities only, and from letters received by him from practical men connected with the sugar beet industry on the continent of Europe, such facts and statistics as will serve to show not only that sugar beet can be grown with large profit in New Zealand, but that the returns from sugar will be but a small per centage of the benefits which would accrue to the district settlers who may tie vote their attention to this branch of husbandry.

Very few of us have an idea of the magnitude to which the sugar industry has increased. Amongst the important industries of the world is now ranked that of sugar production, not only on account of the annual value of the quantity consumed, but also on account of the comparatively limited portions of the earth's surface where sugar is produced. It is an article of general use, and its consumption is limited by the restricted area over which sugar-producing plants are grown, and by the ability of the consumers to purchase it. The world's annual requirements of sugar are quoted at about 5,200,000 tons, worth probably not less than £150,000,000. This enormous trade will increase in equal ratio to the development of trade and the promotion of peace in the world, and the demand for sugar will increase as the circumstances of people become more comfortable. According to the most recent Government statistics published (those of 1883), New Zealand imported, in that year, no less than 43,956,480lbs of sugar, glucose, treacle and molasses, of the value of £646,995. This does not include! sugar-candy, confectionery, boiled sugars, jams, jellies and preserves (half value and half duty to represent the sugar they contain), bottled and preserved fruits—all of which latter, in a collated return furnished by the Customs for 1881, represented in that year an additional sum of £37,047, which, allowing for increased consumption since then, will bring the annual sugar bill of the colony at the present time to something over £700,000. Between the years 1857 and 1881, inclusive, New Zealand paid away for sugar, in one form and another, nine millions of pounds sterling. Looking back at the steady increase of our population and our wealth during the past ten years—although during that period there occurred one of the severest financial trials the colony has experienced—what progress both in wealth and population may we not reasonably look for in the next decade? A brighter prospect is before us. The native difficulty is at an end. Large areas of fertile country are being opened up to peaceful settlement. Notwithstanding the attractions of America and Manatoba, New Zealand with its field for honest labour, its rapidly developing resources, its connection by large and swift steamers with the Mother Country and Europe, and last, but not least to the peace-loving, law-abiding family man, the ægis of protection afforded by British laws will continue to draw population and capital to its shores. It is not too much to expect that in the next ten years our population will have doubled itself, and that our consumption of sugar will have more than doubled. But it is not only to our own market, large as that is, that we may look for a profitable consumption of this particular kind of produce, since sugar has a certain commercial value in all parts of the world, and the supply is never in excess of the demand.

But not only is the establishment of such an industry a matter of individual or local profit, but one of colonial concern. New Zealand colonists have contracted many extravagant habits and practices during the temporary flush of prosperity cased by the expenditure of borrowed monies, and the consequent earth hunger and speculation in land which followed. That period has passed away, and the stern realities of our position have to be faced. Our practice of sending money out of the colony to purchase every-day wants which we can
ourselves produce, is an extravagance which our farmers, tradesmen, and workmen cannot now afford in the face of keen competition and reduced prices. Few seem to realise the position that our public debt alone necessitates a drain upon the colony of £1,600,000 per annum interest, sent either in money or goods to the public creditor at Home. This means so much of the spending power of the colonists—of the money that should remain to be annually re-invested in the colonisation of New Zealand-diverted from them, and to a large extent perhaps not even for value received. This is a large leak which we cannot stop, but the fostering of local industries may stop many a smaller one, and one of the largest of these latter is the £700,000 sent annually out of the colony for sugar. Sir Julius Vogel, no doubt, fully realised this fact when, in his Colonial Budget the other day in referring to the encouragement of local industrious he specially alluded to sugar from beet in these words:—But there is an industry from which I believe great results will spring, and that may be assisted indirectly by Customs. I allude to sugar from beet, and possibly from sorghum. The production of beet sugar is now so perfected that it is made economically all over Europe, even without artificial restrictions. Civilisation conquers in the end; products of cultured labour will excel those of the savage and the slave. But this manufacture wants a stimulus by assuring it some advantage in the shape of freedom from excise duties for a term of years. The assurance is not much to give. None of the colonies favours heavy excise duties; few have any at all worthy of mention. The wine in Victoria and New South Wales, and sugar in Queensland, are notable examples. Sugar has done as much for Queensland as its vast sheep and cattle lands. We propose to pass an Act declaring that sugar produced in the colony shall be exempt from excise duty for a term of years and that the present import duty shall not be reduced. It may also be necessary to give a bonus for the first few hundred tons made in the colony.

The farmer especially has now to take a new departure. Land in settled districts has gone up in value. The productiveness of the soil has been sufficiently proved by the large increase of stock, grain, and roots of all descriptions. Formerly the Maori war and the disturbed times which followed caused farming operations to become neglected, and therefore we could not produce sufficient for our wants. High prices in everything was therefore the consequence. Now, permanent peace, the progress of public works, the wonderful fertility of the soil and climate, roads and railways, have so stimulated production that it has more than kept pace with our home requirements, notwithstanding that our population has quadrupled. Where was scarcity is now a abundance, and high prices are things of the past. The good old days of grazing sheep and cattle on waste lands and selling them at high values are gone. Grain growing, which also was a sure fund to the farmer until our home wants were supplied and a foreign market had to be found for our surplus stores of produce, is no longer to be relied upon. Nay, wheat growing in India with labour at a nominal cost, against which America even tears she cannot compete, warns us that wheat will never again realise the yet recent expectations of New Zealand farmers. All this points clearly to the course which lies before us. The New Zealand colonist must give up his hard and fast devotion to the agricultural traditions of home, and must adapt himself to the wider latitude of manufacture wants a stimulus by assuring it some advantage in the shape of freedom from excise duties for a term of years. The assurance is not much to give. None of the colonies favours heavy excise duties; few have any at all worthy of mention. The wine in Victoria and New South Wales, and sugar in Queensland, are notable examples. Sugar has done as much for Queensland as its vast sheep and cattle lands. We propose to pass an Act declaring that sugar produced in the colony shall be exempt from excise duty for a term of years and that the present import duty shall not be reduced. It may also be necessary to give a bonus for the first few hundred tons made in the colony.

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It is an axiom in beet sugar manufacture, that I per cent, of salt destroys value to the extent of 5 per cent, of sugar, and it is admitted that the beetroot collects salt in a large measure from the atmosphere as well as from the soil. Now the, natural configuration and the formation of the middle Waikato basin are such, if we examine into them, as to show that both its soil and atmosphere are naturally denuded of chloride of sodium, or common
salt, and consequently most peculiarly adapted, other circumstances being favourable, for sugar-beet cultivation for sugar purposes, and it is doubtless owing to this fact that analysis has shown so large a percentage of sugar from Waikato grown beets. The Waikato river rises in the snow-clad ranges of Tongariro, and its waters filter down through beds of pumice into the Taupo Lake, from which it shoots in a foaming torrent and rushes for a long succession of miles over tuff a beds till it bursts through the Maungatautari gorge into the middle Waikato basin. Through this it flows with strong current, although navigable for steamers, till, after passing through the centre of a magnificent agricultural country many miles in length and breadth, it gains egress through the Taupiri pass into the lower Waikato basin. The middle Waikato basin suggests the thought that at one time it was an immense lake, the ancient waters of which, having been raised from their original bed by vast deposits of volcanic matter emitted from the active volcanos of the interior, overflowed, and eventually cut a channel for themselves through the Hakaramata ranges at Taupiri. The waters thus escaping into the lower basin have left behind them our present formation of silt, &c., which contains no common salt. Equally, too, is the middle Waikato basin free from a salt-bearing atmosphere, for it is encircled by the higher portions of the Hapuakohe, Hakaramata, and Pirongia ranges, which, forest clad, exclude or absorb the salt-impregnated gales from the Western Pacific east line: while on the other rim, the Patatere, Haukapa, and Te Aroha ranges in like manner protect it from the salt gales from the East Coast. The waters, soil, and atmosphere of the middle Waikato basin are thus, in this most important particular, most suitable for the growth of sugar.

Again, in the second place, the middle Waikato district is composed of silt-beds of great depth, and surrounded by wooded ranges averaging upwards of 1000 feet in height. The result of this is that during the passage of the sun at mid-day in summer, its rays are concentrated upon the plain with great effect. The combined heat and; moisture naturally cause a most extraordinary growth during the months of No ember, December, and January. After this period the waters of the plain become gradually withdrawn by the process of filtration, and February and March, the sun being still powerful, prove hot and exceedingly dry, checking all surface I growth. But to roots, such as carrots, sugar-beet, &c., which bury themselves deep in the soil, this change is very beneficial, developing and maturing the' saccharine juices in the crop. The winter cold is all that can be desired for the manipulation of the sugar and the working of the factory, and a larger number of working days can be reckoned upon in Waikato for the factory than in Hamburg, where 100 days is the full "campaign," as it is termed.

Another very important point in favour of this district for sugar-beet growing and manufacturing is that the Waikato river, fresh water and navigate for steamers of considerable tonnage, has cut its channel through banks of an average depth in the plain of over 50 feet. The factories being placed on the banks of the river would be available by the cheapest mode of transport for the been farms on either side of its banks, and inland for a distance of two miles. The mills being built below the level of the plain, the roots on the plain, in the immediate vicinity, could be carted to the terrace above the mill, and a great saving of labour in the factory made by using endless bands to convey the roots in succession to the washing and pulping machines. The Waipa, also a fresh water and navigable river, runs through another portion of the district, and will afford several excellent mill sites, having sufficient of good land on either bank suit able for sugar-beet growing. Light punts could be used by the farmers to float the roots down to the factory, and for taking back pressed pulp for the winter feeding of their stock—the current being sufficiently strong to float their punts down, and the river steamers available for towing them up stream.

Having now pointed out the general advantages of soil and climate which should make sugar-beet culture a Waikato specialty, it may not be amiss to furnish a few remarks as to the particular soils in Waikato, suitable or otherwise for that purpose. The sugar-beet will grow on any kind of soil, but will flourish best in rich alluvial deposits which rest upon formations affording the most perfect drainage. For this reason stiff clay land is not as good as light loam, unless thoroughly worked, trenched deep, and well drained. The natural propensity of the true sugar beet is to grow down into the ground like a parsnip, but should the roof from any cause whatever be prevented from penetrating readily through the subsoil the bulb will be forced upward out of the ground, and the portion thus exposed above ground to the atmosphere is valueless for sugar purposes. For this reason stiff clay and limestone lands prove very expensive to cultivate properly so as to produce perfect roots. Peat lands will not grow roots of sufficiently saccharine quality to be marketable for the mills. It is also useless to grow beetroots where gravel beds are so near to the surface that the root can penetrate them. At least eighteen inches to two feet of loam should rest upon the gravel bed in order that sugar-beet can succeed. Nor, again, will sugar beet do best in very rich or recently heavily manured land, but rather in moderately fertile and deep alluvial loamy soils, such as represent a large proportion of the Waikato middle basin lands. Mr R. W. E. McIvor, F.C.S.L., speaking at the Cambridge Fanners' Club, Waikato, in 1881, said:—"Your land would produce sugar beet in great quantity. First of all, sugar laud is not rank, and rankness, or richness, in the soil is repugnant to the production of good sugar and beet. In the second place, potash is a very important substance, particularly important to a crop like beet, and your soil contains abundance of it. In the third place, so far as I can judge of
your climate, from what I have read and seen, it is very suitable for the growth of beet. Considering that your Government is holding out inducements for the establishment of beet-sugar manufactories in the colony, I think it is the duty of capitalists, of those who intend to invest their money in the manufacture of beetroot sugar, to offer some inducements to New Zealand farmers to have the beetroot growing capabilities of the soil thoroughly tested. You are all aware that beetroot sugar growing is a large industry in France, where it affords employment to tens of thousands of people, and it is estimated that an acre of land in beetroot—well-cultivated land—yields something like two tons of sugar per acre. That is about an average statement for the beetroot plantations in France. If you remember particularly that beetroot sugar can be grown without your soil suffering any deterioration, any loss of fertility, provided you restore that portion of the waste you take away, either in the shape of giving it to your pigs—for it is very good food—but, at all events, restore the waste, the refuse of your manufactory to your land, and you can go on growing beetroot to all eternity without your soil suffering any deterioration in quality."

The above very valuable opinions expressed by Mr McIvor are fully endorsed by the reliable paper of Mr J. A. Pond, Analytical Chemist, read at the Auckland Institute, and which is worthy of reprint in full.

The following is the paper read by Mr J. A. Pond at the meeting of the Auckland Institute, "On the Sugar Value of Beetroots Grown in the Waikato District":—

"During the Session of 1880 a paper was read before this Institute, entitled "On the Growth of Sugar Beet in New Zealand," by Dr. S. M. Curl. In this paper the writer very ably reviewed the subject, and placed much valuable data before us, but when speaking of the values of sugar in the different varieties of beetroot examined by him he claimed to have found as high as 17.5 per cent. This excessive amount, and the fact that Parliamentary Papers had been published giving analyses of New Zealand grown beets showing much less favourable results, and the absence of any details of examination, led me to take up this subject with the view of practical operations, should the experiments justify it. About this period, also, I had interested myself in the matter of sugar-beet, owing to some superior seed having been brought from Hamburgh by Mr G. S. Graham, and finding it had been distributed amongst some of the Waikato settlers for planting, I undertook the examination of the roots when they should be sufficiently grown. Mr W. A. Graham, of Tamabere, who had taken a very great interest in the matter, had papers printed according to a plan drawn out by myself and forwarded to those settlers who had undertaken to grow the roots. These papers were designed to obtain data for the future guidance of a company, should one be formed through any satisfactory result of these experiments, and were divided into columns requesting information as follows:- Particulars of Waikato beetroots: From whom forwarded, and name of estate. Character of soil, and whether drained, &c. Whether manured or otherwise; if manured, state character of manure. Whether from imported seed, or from where obtained. Give approximate of weight to the acre if possible. Analytical results—of beet sugar. Notes." While the reverse of the paper was headed "Special Noes. (Add here anything of interest to obtain complete details.)" And also my address, to which the roots when required or matured were to be forwarded.

"The first instalment I received was from Mr L. O'Neill, Hamilton, and came to land on the 28th January. There were three roots grown from seed imported by Mr Lavers, and resulted as follows:—No 1, weight, 2lbs 2ozs.; percentage of canesugar, 10.95; No. 2, weight, 1lb 2ozs., percentage of cane sugar, 10 17; No. 3, weight, 12ozs., percentage of cane sugar, 13 55. On the 24th February, one month later, Mr O'Neill again forwarded a parcel of four roots from the same crop. Talling: the largest of them, weighing 2lbs 2ozs., I found the percentage of sugar to be 4.25, the three others I aggregated with a like percentage of 14 25.

"Finally, on the 24th August, I received a parcel of five roots from the same grower, which had been removed from the ground and stored, some of which are on the table. Two of these I have examined with the following results:—No. 8, weight, 2lbs 7ozs, percentage of sugar, 11.40; No. 9, weight, 2lbs., percentage of sugar, 14 25. The further examination of these roots I will speak of again, in relation to the specific gravity of the juice.

"On the 18th February I received three roots from Mr Ralph, Huntly, marked sugar-beet. They were of a full red-coloured skin, but I have obtained no knowledge of the name of the seeds or where procured. Result of analysis No. 1, weight, 5lbs 5ozs, percentage of sugar, 4.31; No. 2, weight, 12ov, percentage of sugar, 7.50; No. 3, weight, 9ozs, percentage of sugar, 11.87. This root:—No. 1—was a well shaped one, of large proportions, very watery, but with a very low percentage of sugar. This is the lowest result I have obtained, and far below any other. At the same time its excessive size would had to the conclusion that its value in sugar was low. One more parcel I received of unknown seed, from Raglan, through Mr Will, comprising five small roots badly formed, the largest of which, weighing 1lb 12oz, yielded a percentage of sugar 8.14. I now proceed to note the results of the seed obtained by Mr Graham from Hamburgh, and which had been distributed as already noted. There were three kinds in all:—No. 1, genuine white, small Wanzlebend Imperial; No. 2. Deepekpure white improved Silesian Imperial; No. 3, Extra Saccharine Red Top Imperial. In the following notes I will simply call these varieties by their respective Nos., 1, 2 and 3.
"On the 10th March I received three roots, one of each variety, from Mr R. Watson, Pukerimu. No. 1, weight 13ozs, per centage of sugar, 13°57; Nos. 2, weight 1lb 1oz, and 3, weight 12ozs, I treated in the aggregate, with the result of 15 per cent sugar. This was the highest value obtained.

"On the 2nd April I received a parcel of five roots from Mr E. B. Walker, Cambridge, the weights of which were between 1lb 1oz and 1lb 15ozs, and were of the three varieties, but without anything to distinguish them. These I treated in the aggregate, with the result of 13°57 per cent, of sugar. Taking the best proportioned root of the parcel, weight 1lb 10ozs, I found it to contain 15 percent of sugar.

"On the 10th August I received samples of the three kinds of roots already named from Mr T. Goodfellow, Alexandra, which gave the following results:—No. 1, weight 1½lbs, per centage of sugar, 12°66; No. 2, weight 1½lbs, percentage of sugar 11°40; No. 3, weight 2¾lbs, percentage of sugar, 9°82. These roots arrived with the crowns removed, I had, therefore, no opportunity of observing whether there had been any late growth of leaves; but, from the freshness of the roots, and the results above quoted, I should think they had been left in the ground, and not dug up at maturity and stored.

"I have now given the results of the examination of roots grown in the different parts of the Waikato, and will not unnecessarily multiply the details for you, but take as a last experiment the result of analyses of roots grown upon Mr Graham's estate, at Tamahere. It was my desire to examine these roots while they grew, and, if possible, to note the time at which they became matured, and on that account, the crops having been sown late, I received samples of the three varieties on the 8th February, resulting as follows:—No. 1, weight, 1lb 1oz, percentage of sugar, 8°90; No. 2, weight, 1lb 6ozs, percentage of sugar, 7°50; No. 3, weight, 9ozs, percentage of sugar, 8°38. These roots were immature, and consequently the results were low. On the 26th March I received another parcel of the three kinds from the same estate, yielding as follows:—No. 1, weight, 1lb 2ozs, percentage of sugar, 10°55; No. 2, weight, 2lbs, percentage of sugar, 11°87; No. 3, weight, 1lb 7ozs, percentage of sugar, 11°17.

"On the 7th May I visited the ground and chose samples of the three varieties, which were still in the ground, rather overgrown with weeds, and certainly having been left too long in the earth; the leaves still growing vigorously, the result, no doubt, of the late rains which had then been falling. Still they were fine roots, averaging from 1lb to 3lbs. They had been planted too far apart, and much space had been lost and room given for weeds to accumulate in. Being rather pressed for time I was unable to make a separate examination of these roots, and, therefore, I treated them in the aggregate, with a result of 12°79 per cent of sugar.

"Finally, on the 29th August, I received samples of each variety fresh from the ground where they had still been allowed to remain, though fully four months had elapsed since they had reached maturity. These roots had been growing vigorously, a large crop of young leaves shooting up at the expense of the sugar stored up in the root. The result of the analysis, though low, has surprised me at the amount even yet left in the roots. No. 1, weight 21bs 9ozs, percentage of sugar, 7°42; No. 2, weight 21bs 4ozs, percentage of sugar, 6°47; No. 3, weight 31bs 5ozs, percentage of sugar, 8°65. In reference to the methods of analysis and the sampling of the roots, I may remark that in every case, to ensure a true average, I have punctured the root from crown to apex, taking the core for purposes of analysis, as it is a well-known fact that the sugar is not found in equal proportions throughout, the root being richer in sugar in the lower than in the upper portion. Having thus obtained a fair average of the root, I have accurately weighed and then pulped the assay portion in a mortar with distilled water, and inverted the sugar in the ordinary manner with dilute sulphuric acid, making my quantity up to a known amount, from which I have charged the burette in the ordinary way.

"Fearful of the conversion of the woody fibre into glucose, and a consequent false increase of the results, I have frequently checked the process by filtering off the diffused juice from the pulp, well washing the latter, and then inverting the sugar contained; but in all these cases the pulp still retains a small amount of saccharine matter, but the difference between these two methods is so small as not to cause much disparity, and here I will give one experiment to show the difference. A root of the Red Top Imperial, weighing 2¾lbs, was taken, and two cores from the puncture tube fairly chosen to the weight of two grammes each, pulped, and the one inverted with the pulp, the second filtered, the pulp washed, and the filtrate inverted, the percentage of sugar being 9°82 in the first portion, and 9°50 in the second, the difference I attribute to the sugar still left in the pulp. The methods by which I have determined the percentages of sugar have been with Fehling's Copper Solution and Knapp's Mercuric Cyanide Solution, both volumetric analyses, the former being, in my opinion, the most accurate. To ensure precision, I have frequently inverted pure anhydrous cane sugar, and estimated my standard solutions with it, and therefore feel justified in saying that the analyses given by me in this paper are reliable.

"In addition to the chemical analysis we have the specific gravity, this being a very reliable guide to the value of sugar present, and this I have obtained after expression of the juice on several occasions by means of the balance. Before concluding this portion of my paper on the chemical manipulations, it will be interesting in a few cases to note the relative proportions between the chemical values and the specific gravities.

"The root already mentioned as having been received from Mr Walker, Cambridge, and which I estimated
to contain 15 per cent, of sugar, was grated until it had lost weight equal to 200 grammes, the juice from which being expressed equalled 128 c.c., added water to the pulps and macerated, pressed to near dryness and made up the amount with water to 200 c.c. Found the specific gravity of the pure juice before adding water to be 1.08087, and the percentage of cane sugar in the 200 c.c. to be 14.35, the difference being the amount of sugar still retained by the pulp. Again, a root from Mr O'Neill was grated, 1 lb. of which yielded 14½ oz. weight of juice and 1¾ oz. pulp. The specific gravity equalled 1.0528, and the percentage of sugar in the juice was 11.4.

"One more experiment I will give, that of a root weighing 2 lbs., of which 14 ozs. was grated, yielding 12 ozs. juice and 2 ozs. pulp, the specific gravity of the juice being 1.0653, and the percentage of sugar present 14.25. There is one point in connection with this subject which deserves more than a passing notice, and that is in reference to the presence of chlorides, and especially that of chloride of sodium (common salt), this being so detrimental as to result in a loss of 5 per cent of sugar for every 1 per cent of the salt. When making my examinations for sugar I have also tested for the presence of chlorine, but only to find a trace in any of the Waikato beetroots, with the exception of those now before you, which, having been left in the ground at least four months too long, are heavily charged with chlorides. One interesting feature is in the absence, beyond a trace, of chlorides in the roots received from Raglan, already mentioned, and this though grown in the vicinity of the sea. I may state that I have not estimated the amount of chlorides, but simply as a qualitative test. The distribution of the seed in the Waikato alone was in consequence of its distance from the sea, and the very favourable situation and comparative absence of chloride of sodium from the pumice soil, but its cultivation in other portions of the Auckland district fairly deserves a trial. The great objection to the presence of salt, either from the proximity to sea air, fertilisation of the soil with this substance, or from an abnormal amount being naturally present, is owing to the impossibility of freeing the sugar from this substance, and in consequence the estimation of chlorides is only second in importance to that of the sugar present.

"So iminal is this salt that M. Baruchson says:—'In some instances the undue proportion of this salt in sugar has nearly rendered the sugar unsaleable; and so generally is this recognised abroad, especially in Germany, that the manufacturers in contracting with the growers of the root stipulate that it shall not be grown on certain soils, and often even name the manure which shall be used.' It is owing to this substance, and the want of sufficient care in eliminating the molasses, that beet sugar at one time was strongly objected to on account of the taste, and even here I have heard complaints of the same character. On this subject Grant, in his 'Beetroot Sugar,' remarks:—'There was formerly a prejudice in the minds of many people against beet sugar; but it is perfectly well ascertained that, if properly refined, it cannot be distinguished from the best sugar of cane sugar, either by taste, appearance, or chemical analysis: the two are identical.' Again, on page 24, he remarks:—'The cost of producing from the beet a pure white sugar, entirely free from unpleasant smell or taste, is but a trifle more than is required to produce a lower grade. In Germany refined loaf sugar is produced directly from the beet. In Franco the brown is first produced, and then refined. Within the last two years, however, sugar has been produced of such purity and whiteness that it has been sold directly for consumption without refining; and there is no question that the peculiar odour of the beet may be entirely got rid of in the manufactory.' I will quote one more authority on this subject, and that one of the highest we could have. I allude to Crookes, who says, in his work 'Manufacture of Beetroot Sugar 'Crystallised beetroot sugar is perfectly identical in composition with cane sugar, and is indistinguishable from it by the sight, the taste, or by chemical tests.'

"Proceeding from the foregoing facts to summarise my results, I find that the value of sugar obtained from the whole of the roots examined by me last season, under 3½ lbs in weight, is a percentage of 11°66; but this average includes the immature ones from Tamahere, made when they were but half grown, and also these roots now before us, which having remained in the earth so many months after coming to maturity, have deteriorated considerably. If, then, we exclude these, the average result of the rest shows a percentage of 12°45, but as some of the roots examined were practically too small for manufacturing purposes, I propose to exclude all under 1 lb weight, and thus reduce the average to roots between one and three pounds weight, this being a useful size for clogging the bars, and yet not too large to materially reduce the percentage of sugar. By this exclusion the average is 12°29, my highest being 15° and lowest 9°82. In arriving at these results I do so after a series of experiments extending over the past seven months, in which time I have made upwards of eighty analyses, and examined more than sixty beetroots, grown in different parts of the Waikato, many of these raised under very unfavourable conditions, some I found overrun with weeds, of others cattle had destroyed the leaves, while the majority were planted too far apart, and in almost all cases not sufficiently earthed-up, in consequence of which a portion of the sugar contained in the root, exposed to the sun and air, becomes converted into other substances. Yet, notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the average of all the analyses made by me, with the exception of one root, weighing over 51 lbs., was 11°60, while the exclusion of those which would under no circumstances be permitted to enter a sugar factory brought up the total to 12°45, an average return so favourable that it would result in a very large profit were it achieved in the countries where beet sugar factories
are established. That these results are not exceptional is, I think, shown by the wide area over which I have obtained my supplies for examination, and that it will be fully equalled on the large scale is shown by the unskilled manner in which some of these roots were planted and tended, and also by the request, which in many instances was adhered to, that no manure should be used. So far from this, I feel convinced that, with due attention, proper cultivation, and suitable manuring, a higher percentage will be obtained than from those which the past season's growth has furnished us with, and should a factory be established for the conversion of beet sugar, I believe the true economy of procedure would be in the purchase of roots at a fixed rate per ton, with an additional schedule price for every degree of sugar above a minimum, a practice which works beneficially amongst some of the German factories; especially would this be the case in the colonies, where the higher price of labour would naturally lead us to seek for the maximum of sugar from a minimum of root. It is not within the scope of this paper to dilate upon the value to this district should such an industry find a home amongst us, but the benefit would be so great and varied, while the returns which I have now brought before you give so large a promise of success, that I hope the early future may find such an establishment situated where it would be most profitably worked, in the centre of the Waikato district, where soil, temperature, and the absence of sea air proclaim its fitness for the growth of the beet; and to show the results of a factory in full working order, I will read the result of eight years working of the North German Sugar Company, as extracted from their books by Mr G. S. Graham:

Mr Pond's paper which comes with authority, speaks conclusively for the sugar producing qualities of Waikato grown sugar-beet when the right kind of plant is grown. Good and bad roots, it will be seen, taken together, with the exception of one root of 5lbs. weight of doubtful character, and ranging over 80 separate analyses, yielded an average per cent of 11.66, while the exclusion of those roots which, as Mr Pond states, would under no circumstances be permitted to enter a sugar factory brought up the average to 12.45 per cent, of sugar. And this when the percentages of sugar in a German factory which paid annual dividends to shareholders over a series of seven years of from 24 to 32 per cent, per annum, ranged only from 9.13 to 10.37 per centage of sugar during the same period.

Of a truth there can be no doubt but that sugar-beet will grow to perfection in this portion of the colony, and will yield at any rate as large a percentage of marketable sugar as in any country in the world. For grain the southern provinces may be specially adapted, but for all kinds of root crops our province is admittedly the best suited, and our climate and soils are all that can be desired. Mr George S. Graham, General Manager of the Colonial Insurance Company, during his late visit to Europe, inspected the sugar-beet districts of France and Belgium, also the manufactories in operation in other countries. After carefully considering the relative positions, together with the advantages and disadvantages of those countries as compared with our own, he came to the conclusion that we might anticipate a most successful result from the cultivation of the beetroot, and its manufacture into sugar. He is of opinion that our rich loamy soils are equal to the average of French and German soils, and our climate better. His opinion is shared by leading men interested in the beet sugar industry in Hamburg, who sent samples of Silesian beet seed here to test, and it is satisfactory to be able to state that the results of those tests made have exceeded all expectations.

The gentlemen above alluded to state that in the first place to successfully carry out a sugar beet factory, it is absolutely necessary that a company be formed upon co-operative principles, that is, that the farmers should be share-holders, and the capitalist and manufacturer shareholders. A mill similar to the one Mr G. S. Graham inspected, and which mill had been for the past ten years paying from 24 to 32 per cent on its capital invested, could be put up for £15,000. The great consideration requisite in the selection of a site for a factory is an unlimited supply of fresh water and an ample steam power. The mill should be near the root farm, as cartage is a large item in the matter of profit and loss. About 7000 tons of roots would have to be annually guaranteed to the mill to make it profitable, and keep it going. Therefore, calculating roots at from 14 tons to the acre, it would require at least 500 acres to be in roots.

Mr Branchon *gives the following description of the variety of the beetroot most valued by sugar manufacturers, as being peculiarly rich in saccharine matter. The white silesian root (beta Alba) is slender and tapering, and shows very little above ground, penetrating about twelve inches into the soil, from which, by means of its numerous radicles, it draws the necessary pabulum. Its cultivation is similar to that of most weeded sorts, and depends on the same principles, its pivoting shape being unsuited to clayey tenacious soils, but prospering in light loamy earth easily penetrated by water. According to Dr Voelcker the following are the characteristics of good sugar-beet:

- They have a regular pear shaped form and smooth skin. Carrot shaped long tapering roots are considered inferior to pear shaped silesian beets.
- They do not throw out many fibrous branches, roots, or forks. Forked roots are difficult to clean, and not so readily pulped as well grown symmetrical pear shaped roots.
- They have a white, firm, and dense flesh, and clean sugary taste.
Good sugar beets generally weigh from 1¼ to 2lbs. Roots weighing under ¾lb are frequently woody, and, besides sugar, contain too large a per centage of other constituents, which prevents in a large measure the extraction of crystalized sugar from the juice; whilst roots weighing more than 2½ lbs are generally too watery and too poor in sugar.

Good beets always have small tops, and no tendency to become necky. Such roots do not show much above ground, but grow almost entirely in the ground. Roots, the tops of which grow above the ground, do not yield so much sugar as others that bury themselves better in the soil.

**Yield of Roots Per Acre.**

The weight of the crop of roots gathered, from 1 hectare (2½ acres) on the Continent of Europe varies considerably, but the following figures may give some idea of the subject:—In Austria—21 to 29 tons, yielding from 3,080 to 4,336lbs of sugar. Bohemia—From 23 to 29 tons, yielding from 3,344 to 4,640lbs of sugar. France—30 tons, yielding 4,464lbs of sugar. The weight of roots per acre was originally far less than at present. M. Captal counted in round numbers 20 tons per hectare (2½ acres), later on 24 tons. More recently still, Dr. Sace, 40 tons. M. Baruchson informs us that in the North of France a hectare often produces 50 tons. And it is on record that 38 tons of superior roots have been produced on an English acre of land, a yield which German and French authorities encourage us to believe may in time be equalled on all sides. Sir Robert Kane, Professor Sullivan, and M. Gages state that the quantity grown in Ireland has been 16 to 40 tons per acre. They obtained a per centage of sugar in some instances of 16 per cent, (equal to that of the sugar cane), and in many others superior to any the beet had previously yielded abroad, and they express their conviction that in the course of agricultural and scientific progress beet generally would be made to yield as much as its rival.

In France the ratio of growing and harvesting a crop of beet, compared with that of growing and harvesting a crop of wheat, is as 42.75 is to 35, or, in other words, it takes 22 per cent, or not quite ¼ more to produce one acre of beets than it does to cultivate one acre of wheat. The proportion of leaves to roots in beet varies from 50 to 78 per cent, by weight.

**Value of Beet Root for Feeding and Farming Purposes.**

According to Boussing and other experts 4 to 5 lbs of beet are equal to 1 lb of dry hay in nutritive power for feeding purposes. Beet root pulp, after it has been pressed for the extraction of the juice, has the same value as the original root which produced it—weight for weight, so that its price may readily be established on the basis of 4½ lbs of pulp being equivalent to 1 lb of dry hay—that is 100 lbs pulp to 22 lbs of good hay. Therefore, if 20 tons of beet is grown to the acre, and if the weight of pulp averages 18 per cent of that of the best roots, we find 8,064 lbs of pulp (equal to 1,774 lbs of hay) to the acre to be available for the purpose of feeding or fattening stock over and above the value of sugar extracted therefrom. The growing and harvesting of an acre of beets requires at the most 46 days of human labour (partly children's) and 14 days of horse labour.

In the pamphlet which M. Archard published he states that in addition to its yield of sugar the pulp would be valuable food for cattle; that the head of the root would be eaten by them; that much valuable manure, in returning to the ground. Would promote an abundant harvest of cereals; that the molasses could be converted into alcohol or vinegar.

Moreover, to fully estimate the advantage to be derived from this root allowance must be made for the undoubted fact that its culture as a rotation crop so prepares the soil that it need not lie fallow, and so improves the wheat that from ¼ to ¼ more is produced than before beet preceded it, and that cattle fed on the leaves and pulp are exceedingly prolific, while their milk becomes more abundant and of better flavour; so that the production of sugar adds to the supply of bread and meat, and these leading necessities of man's existence stimulate and aid each other.

In the Economic Rurale de la France depuis, 1876, par, M. L. De Lavergne, the author, says:—

"In the first rank of culture there is one which has been developed almost entirely since 1789, and which, perhaps, may be regarded as the greatest agricultural conquest of our time—sugar beetroot. It was feared at the commencement that the cultivation of the sugar beet would curtail the production of beef and corn by occupying the best lands and exhausting them, but this was an unfounded fear, in so far as regards the best cultivated lands. It has been proved at the present time that the manufacture of sugar in creating a new source of profit also increases other productions of the soil. The extraction of the saccharine matter deprives the root of but a part of its elements; the pulp and leaves afford abundant food for animals, and the profits of the sugar manufactory enable the fertility of the soil to be indefinitely increased by the purchase of chemical manures (engrais commeriaux). In 1853 the town of Valenciennes, the principal locality of this industry, was able to
erect a triumphal arch with these significant words thereon—Yield of wheat in the district before the manufacture of sugar, 353,000 hectolitres (a hectolitres—22 Imp. gal. very nearly); number of cattle, 700. Yield of wheat after the establishment of the sugar industry—421,000 hectolitres; number of cattle, 11,500.' These curious statistics are not altogether without a response, as one can ask if the production of cattle and corn would not have increased more during forty years if the Flemish farmers had entirely devoted their attention to it The English make no sugar, and the fortunate connection of beef and bread, solely by the rotation system, has increased enormously their yield. However, it may be, this department has been able, by increasing its manures, to cultivate yearly 20,000 hectares (50,000 acres) of sugar beet, and each hectare (2½ acres) produces from 1,000 to 3,000 francs (£40 to £120) worth of raw material. No other cultivation produces as much from the same extent. It is the chef-d’œuvre of our rural industry. Those engaged in this culture have been able by knowledge and care to create, by a persevering choice of seeds, artificial varieties of sugar beets, which yield more sugar than the other. The well-known principle of selection applies equally as well to plants as to animals.”

The items of first cost or outlay for the establishment of machinery, buildings, &c., for a sugar mill have been furnished from Hamburg, and are the most complete, and with all the latest appliances in use in German manufactories. They may be estimated as follows:— for a manufactory of sugar from beetroots grown on 500 acres of ground, and which ought to produce at least 1,200,000lbs of raw sugar.

An acre of land, being one chain breadth by ten chains in depth, will contain 44 drills of ten chains each in length, at 18 inches apart. If the plants are left 9 inches distance in the drills there will be 825 in each of the 44 drills, or 36,300 plants in the acre. Assuming that each plant weighs 2lbs (the best average sugar-producing size), there would be 72,600lbs of beetroot, or over 32 tons to the acre, independent of the tops, which, for feeding purposes, are scarcely of less value to the farmer than the roots.

As to the cost of raising the beets, a careful calculation, based on a practical experience of the cultivation required, gives the following cost per acre:—

Ordinary land, having been in cultivation, estimated to produce 12 tons per acre, at 16s per ton would give a net profit of £3 per acre, allowing the above £6 12s, for cost of production; good land calculated at 15 tons per acre, same cost of production would yield a net profit of £5 8s per acre, and first class land producing 20 tons per acre, a net profit of £9 4s. Of course, if the farmer instead of merely growing beet for the factory is also a shareholder, he has the direct profit on the sugar production and this will be an advantage for the reason that if his beet crop is good, he makes a large double profit, if his crop is but an indifferent one the certain profit on the sugar production will compensate him. To the agriculturists, themselves shareholders in the factory and direct suppliers of the roots, the profit would be two-fold. From 60s to £9 4s nett profit per acre on a fourth of the farm under crop, and with the improvement in the soil for the succeeding three courses, would settle the question at once and for ever—will farming pay? If the pulp is not used by the factory, farming its own land and growing its own beets, then it will be for sale at a cheap rate to the beet suppliers, and may be turned either into meat and wool, or into milk for the neighbouring cheese and butter factories. It is calculated that the pulp in its natural state contains from 70 to 72 per cent, of moisture, and thus it embodies a much larger per centage of solid feeding matter than the root from which it is obtained.

Analysis of Beetroot Pulp Refuse from Lavenham.

We learn from these analytical results:—

• That pulp contains in round numbers 30 per cent dry feeding matter.
• That an appreciable amount of sugar is retained in the pulp.
• That a large proportion of the fibre is readily digestible.
• That beetroot pulp contains a considerable amount of albuminous or flesh forming matter.

Refuse pulp will keep for months in trenches, which are best lined with brickwork, the pulp being compressed into them by means of a rammer, and then covered with straw and a thick coat of earth. It undergoes a partial fermentation after a period of three weeks, which only tends to make it more palatable to farm stock. It is fed to cattle, sheep, &c., mixed in various proportions with bran, cut straw, wheat, chaff, meal, oil cake, or some other nutritious substance. In order to prevent long continued use from rendering it distasteful to the animals it is generally found advantageous to slightly salt it by sprinkling it with salt and water at the time of serving it.

Some of the mixtures which are considered best on the continent for the feeding of live stock are the following (the quantities are for every twenty-four hours):—

• For fattening an ox—50lbs well pressed pulp, 12lbs of hay 3lbs oil cake.
• For fattening a wether—8lbs pulp, ½lb hay.
• For feeding an ewe - 2½lbs pulp, ½lb dry fodder.
The proportions of these mixtures may, however, be varied for domestic animals so as to suit their exigencies.

Voluminous statistics could be added to the foregoing data given to show the extraordinary progress and results of the beet-sugar industry on the continent of Europe, but our desire being to be brief, we trust sufficient has been said to prove that Silesian beetroot can be successfully cultivated in New Zealand, and offers a legitimate field for the investment of capital and the enterprise of our settlers.

In the year 1881, when we made the first attempt to promote the above named industry, although some Hamburgh capitalists were willing to take up one-third of the capital required to establish a sugar mill in Waikato, and to send out the experts to superintend the working of the same, it was found impossible to raise the remainder of the capital. The prices of wheat, wool and meat were then so fairly remunerative to our farmers that they did not take sufficient interest in the matter to warrant a start being made.

Since then a very complete sugar refinery has been established in Auckland, and has successfully commenced operations, and two companies having been formed to utilise the valuable deposits of New Zealand sulphur and the Pacific Island guanos—the important items in sugar-beet cultivation—namely, cheap and good chemical manures are placed at once within our reach. These fact a, together with the altered prospects of ordinary farming, owing to the want of a certain market for surplus produce, and the consequently depressed state of trade in the country districts of the colony, induce us to make a second attempt to start a sugar factory. If sufficient interest is taken in the matter by our townsmen and country settlers, and if our Government will give this industry the support it deserves, by offering a substantial bonus for the first 500 tons of sugar produced from New Zealand grown beetroot, and aid a company which may be formed to promote beet-sugar manufacture, by the Assisted Emigration Act being made to apply to families of Belgians brought out to cultivate the sugar-beetroot, we feel certain that those gentlemen in Hamburgh before alluded to will again come forward and take a large share in the company. We think the Government would be quite justified in advancing money upon sufficient guarantee to help the industry at the first outset.

The present desire on the part of the Belgians to come to New Zealand is most opportune, and should be taken advantage of. The Belgians as a race are well known to be honourable, energetic, and enterprising, and their country is a rich one in itself; therefore, they would prove most valuable settlers. But in speaking of the Belgians in connection with the sugar-beet industry, it must not be supposed that we are forgetful of the large number of our own colonial youth for whom this industry would open up so wide a field for enterprise and employment, or of the family men who find it difficult to obtain employment in the country owing to the want of house-room accommodation on our settlers' farms. It is in the interest of these also that we advocate this industry, feeling sure that to a family working man the fact that his wife and children could become bread-winners with himself and be sure of settled and agreeable employment all the year round, and the fact that the amount of his family's earnings would, even at a lower wage to himself, largely exceed anything he could expect to receive at any employment which only requires his personal services, would in the long run prove to him that his best field for employment was in the country on a small homestead of from 20 to 30 acres cultivating that root for the factory in his spare hours, and working for the factory in his ordinary time.

And although the writer has come to the conclusion that to successfully start a Sugar Beet Factory in New Zealand, it will be necessary to provide sufficient capital to purchase about 3000 acres of the most suitable land for the cultivation of the beetroot, and to arrange to get a number of Belgian farmers whose life has been devoted to cultivating the plant to come out and either lease or sell to them in small farms, the land of the company, stipulating for sufficient beet to be grown by them; to ensure the factory being kept going. We are also of opinion, that in our Maori population, if the Government will only do their duty, we have the elements required to extend the industry far and wide in Waikato. The Government in assuming the control over the great extent of native territory have a charge laid upon them to teach the natives to work, and not to grow up an indolent and extravagant people. No more congenial work could be found for the Maori race, than to cultivate the beetroot, and in the winter months work in our factories making the sugar. In the Maori population also we can look for a constant customer for sugar and molasses. With this important political object in view, namely to turn the native from his present life of demoralising indolence to a desire to work, the Government will be justified in offering inducements to start sugar manufactories in the colony from beetroot or cane. The Maori people that they did not take sufficient interest in the matter to warrant a start being made.

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IN THE OPINION of many the labour question is the impediment to sugar-beet cultivation, and the manufacture of sugar therefrom; But in our opinion this will be found not to be the case when a practical test is made in the colony. Our details of cost of cultivation and delivering the produce of one acre of sugar-beet to the factory within the prescribed limits, including rent, is £6 12s. In America, according to Grant, the actual cost of same is £5 10s 10d, exclusive of rent. In Belgium we find the cost of the same is £6, and rent £4, or £10 per
acre. In France, again, from reliable sources, it is estimated that the cost of cultivating and delivering one acre of beet roots ranges from £7 to £7 12s per acre, including rent. We all know that where labour is very cheap the tendency is to employ more hands than are absolutely necessary, but where labour is dear machinery is brought more into use, and thereby the cost of manufacture reduced. We believe that it will be found that by taking advantage of the latest improvements in labour-saving machinery the sugar manufacturer will be able with profit to himself to give the full wages at present ranging in the farming districts and therefore we feel convinced that the only difficulty, and consequently the only barrier to a successful start being made, is the fact that our farmers have all their capital locked up in their land and stock, and therefore have not got the money to invest in the requisite machinery and plant required to start and carry on a factory for the first twelve months.

Our townsmen, again, are all so sufficiently occupied with other branches of commerce and the ready turn-over trade of manufactured goods that they do not care to withdraw their capital from their business to put it into an industry which they consider the farmers should look out for, as being more, to their advantage, or rather more in the farmers’ line of business. If we are correct in our surmise, and we think we are, then it clearly becomes a national question and a proper measure for Government support, and commends itself most strongly to hon. members who represent our country districts, and at the same time deserves the careful and impartial consideration of the hon. representatives of town constituencies.

Quoting from the authentic statistics furnished by Sir Julius Vogel to both Houses of Parliament in 1876, we find the following startling benefits which the German Government received in the shape of direct revenue from excise on beetroot sugar manufactured in their country, which should convince every impartial mind that the Government should give material aid to promote and foster this certain source of future revenue for the colony.

From German statistics we ascertain that in 1840 the gross receipt of tax obtained by that Government from beetroot sugar was £6,037 4s. In 1850-51 the amount received was £220,894 13s. In 1860-61 the amount received was £1,100,776 4s, and in 1873-74 the revenue from this source was £2,823,011 2s.

Then, as regards the German production, importation, and export of raw sugar:—

- Germany, in 1841, produced 303,016 cwt.; she imported 1,016,490 cwt., and exported 59,281 cwt. In 1874 she produced 5,820,813 cwt., whilst she imported only 594,203 cwt., and exported 456,932 cwt.

These facts speak for themselves, and we might add others from France, Switzerland, and the other beet-sugar producing countries did we not deem the above sufficient to warrant the Government giving this industry their earnest and practical support. And therefore, in the interests of every New Zealand settler, we would urge the Government to pass an Act to enable them

- To exempt the New Zealand beetroot sugar industry from excise duty for a period of at least ten years.
- To grant a fixed bonus for the first 500 tons of raw sugar manufactured in the North Island, and a similar bonus for the first 500 tons of raw sugar manufactured in the Middle Island, either from beet, sorghum, or other plant.
- To lend upon debentures of any company formed for the purpose of manufacturing sugar from New Zealand grown beet, or other plant, a ————sum proportionate to the called-up capital.
- To grant assisted emigration to families from the sugar beet districts of Europe, competent to undertake the necessary field cultivation and factory work, in order that our settlers may have the benefit of their experience.

If the Government will thus, or in some other such manner, give encouragement to this most important industry, we feel convinced there will be no longer any difficulty or delay in the starting of a Conn any upon co-operative principles, to promote the cultivation of Silesian Sugar Beet, and the manufacture of sugar therefrom.

To practically carry out this object, we would suggest that the company so formed secure at least 3000 acres of suitable land, to be sub-divided into small farms of about 50 acres each, or even less, and sold on easy terms to experienced family men, the only stipulation being that they must grow a certain area of beetroot each year, the association assisting them by providing suitable seeds and implements at lowest cost; these settlers to be shareholders. Although we naturally speak so strongly in favour of Waikato, from our local knowledge of the district and the experiments made in growing the beet there, we are open to conviction that the start should be made elsewhere, if it can be shown in the interests of the industry that some other district affords superior advantages. But in any case, we would recommend the start to be made within the centre of one of our settled districts, for the reason that the 3000 acres, which we consider necessary to be purchased by the company would not be sufficient of itself to supply all the raw material for the factory; but by being chosen in the midst of the settlements, the neighbouring farmers would find it to their interests to become shareholders and grow roots for the Association.

We also consider that, if practicable, the Pioneer Factory should be placed within the range of existing Cheese and Bacon Factories, as the one industry would be a valuable auxiliary to the other. If the first sugar
mill can be made a success, then there will be no lack of other sites and capital to establish many more mills of the same class.

In conclusion, we have only to add that it is our belief that population is the missing link now in the chain of New Zealand's prosperity. Climate and soil we have of the best; minerals and natural advantages are scattered broadcast over New Zealand. But in population we are sadly deficient. Only let our population be doubled and our present national debt would appear lessened by two-thirds. To offer inducement for immigrants to come amongst us we must provide the means of profitable employment for them on arrival, and although we do not assert that this proposed industry is the only one to be thought of, we do say that it is the particular one in our mind at present which will lay the foundation-stone upon which to build other contingent industries, such as fruit-preserving, etc., to give wealth to our country settlements and consequently encourage immigration. Unless we have the population, opening up new territory or constructing new railways can only act as a stimulant of temporary effect, and therefore we think our political leaders would do well to turn their attention now to encouraging local industries and manufactures which have, through all times and countries, proved to be the cradles of national wealth, "Population and Prosperity."

William Australia Graham.

Hamilton, Waikato, New Zealand,

October 9th, 1884.

Preface.

THE four sermons now published were announced as to the working-classes and others whose religious has been more or less disturbed by current objections as discussions of the day. One of the local newspapers, the Herald, published these addresses immediately upon delivery, which has led to their being asked for not only by those who listened to them, but by others, including persons of high scientific attainments. The author, thus encouraged, sends forth sermons to the wider congregation of the general public prayer that they may prove of use in the establishment of in our most holy Faith who are in danger of being lost in confusions of uncertain speculation; but in so publishing it is right that we should acknowledge his obligations of the scientific details of his argument to the authors of the papers read before the Victoria Institute of London, one by Professor Moore, of the University of Michigan "The Final Cause as Principle of Cognition and Nature." It will also be observed that the first sermon and intended to lead up to sincere and patient into the important subject treated on, the author convinced that truth has nothing to fear from the state amination, which, being humbly and faithfully only display its unshakable foundations—the foundation which the walls and towers of Zion are built.

BISHOPS GROVE,

Dunedin,

April, 1884.

Errata.

Preface—Line 13, for "we" read "he." Line 16, for "Moore" read "Morris."
Sermon I.—Page 11, line 9, for "ever" rend "never."
Sermon II.—Page 17, line 12, after word "appearances" place a comma. Page 18, line 31, for "Biris" read "Osiris."
Sermon III.—Text, for "boast" read "heart. Page 23, line 7, after word "truth" for semicolon place comma. Page 28, line 12, after "free" insert comma.
Sermon IV.—Page 34, line 15, for "pseukokor" read "psuchikon."

No. I.—What do I Believe?

"How long halt ye between two opinions [thoughts]? If the Lord be God, follow Him; but if Baal, then follow him." [unclear: —I.] KINGS, xviii. 21.

I have suggested a question for each one to put to himself, viz., What do I believe? And I announced this as the subject of our consideration to-night, because it does seem to me that, in spite of loud boastings about the intelligence of the age, free thought, and the like, multitudes go through the world without ever putting such a question to themselves; and there perhaps more still who, if the question presents itself unbidden, ever for a moment try to answer it. They seem to think that to have cast away the faith of their fathers is quite enough to establish a claim to superiority of intellect, without troubling themselves to find out very clearly what they have accepted in its place. But I hope, and believe, that there are some who do want to think about some of these magnificent questions which neither the world, the flesh, nor the devil can altogether hold back from our minds, and to such as these my text gives a grand challenge to free enquiry, and to decision as the proper outcome of enquiry.

What do I believe? Notice, the question "what," not "Do I believe anything at all"? because, I suppose, in some sense everyone believes something—certainly every thoughtful person does. A man may reject Christianity, he may even deny the existence of a God, but he will have some theory upon which to account for his own existence, [unclear: of] enable him to express something to himself or [unclear: his] companions as to his future life. This will be [unclear: the] belief upon those subjects, though I am using word belief now rather in a popular than in a [unclear: very] strictly correct sense. I ought, perhaps to speaking these theories as opinions—such persons as I [unclear: am] speaking of seldom get beyond opinions; they [unclear: have] given up beliefs. The text, you see, in the English version, speaks of "opinions" as the condition mind of those challenged. I think, however, [unclear: if] the word "thoughts," which you find in the [unclear: mar] of your Bibles as an alternative reading, really [unclear: indicates] more accurately the condition of lazy [unclear: and] confusion in which those people were; they thought nothing out, had found no basis for a [unclear: high] theirs was but a half-formed judgment, at the halting between two ideas—an irrational [unclear: posi] It may be right, under certain circumstances, [unclear: it] man to substitute one belief for another, it [unclear: has] can be for a man to come to no conclusion [unclear: of] That is the position the text deprecates: "If [unclear: The] Lord be God, follow Him; but if Baal, then [unclear: full] him." If any one present does not believe in Christian religion at large—if any one does not [unclear: believe] in Jesus Christ, then I ask in what [unclear: else] who else does he believe?

I want to press you very closely with these [unclear: conditions] dear friends, because that position of [unclear: the] formed judgment, or apathetic indecision is [unclear: for] than irrational, it approaches the suicidal, for [unclear: them] no doubt that their application to ourselves is [unclear: fru] with tremendous issues and consequences, the [unclear: ef] of which are incalculable. I want, therefore, to [unclear: the] you to go to the root of these questions, to put [unclear: the] issues to yourselves.

I said just now that almost everyone believes something, but some there are who are so lost in a life of mere self-indulgence and carelessness that they have no proper belief because they have no thought, and, therefore, no true assent of their understanding to anything. Such persons absurdly imagine that the whole subject matter of religion is for ever banished or exploded because, forsooth, they have discarded it. Does the sun not shine on the earth because if one descends a mine be ceases to enjoy its light and heat? Again, some men there are who are ready, perhaps eager, amid the multitude in some well-lighted hall, under all the excitement of the quips and gibes of a clever speaker, whose grand armoury is the folly, and the mistakes, and the inconsistencies of religious people, to join in the laugh, to shout, "Away with creeds! Away with religion itself," and they seem to think that because they have done this the whole affair is ended. Yet what have they done, after all? Only made a transfer of their allegiance. They will have indeed no Paul, with his sublime reasonings; no Peter, with winged words which find the way to the very consciences of men; no Christ, Kith his gospel of self-sacrifice. No, they will have none of these, but they will pin their faith to a man—their preacher, just one who can see no farther in the dark than they, but who says, "Live as you like, and never mind the future." Yes, they believe in him.

This was the kind of teaching Israel had been listening to from Baal's prophets when the thunder of this
challenge sounded in their ears. If the Lord be God, follow Him; but if Baal, then follow him; but the people answered never a word." Why didn't they answer? Why all so dumb? Perhaps it was because thus challenged they were obliged, at least for a moment, to think, and thinking they became conscious of a certain sneaking [unclear: connection] of the truth of the old religion; yet they [unclear: would] retain, if possible, the license, the open [unclear: riot,] sensual pleasures of the new. They knew that [unclear: the] compact was possible between the shameless [unclear: the] to which they were now accustomed, and the [unclear: sign] purity of the ancient faith, and yet they [unclear: have] not openly declare for Baal; dare not, in so [unclear: much] words, put him in place of God, however [unclear: with] they had been to adopt the sanctions of [unclear: somebody] else's religion—though they pretty well knew it [unclear: was] false one—to the indulgence they craved. That's [unclear: is] they were dumb! Let any who amid the [unclear: multiple] applauded denunciations of Christ and of God, [unclear: th] of this matter alone, or, as he would think of it [unclear: wat] face to face with the great challenger, death. At [unclear: was] a time the question, "What do I believe"? is [unclear: commonly] felt to be of immense importance.

You say, perhaps, "Oh, the preacher is trying frighten us." I say, no; trying to prevent [unclear: you] being frightened hereafter. Death does not [unclear: delay] cause we are careless, and life is the time for reasonable decision. "How long halt ye"?

Perhaps you answer, "I am a reasonable [unclear: and] thoughtful man, and I believe in a God, but I [unclear: don't] think God is so extreme to mark what is done [unclear: and] as you preachers say. I think if a man lives a [unclear: fr] good life, and doesn't intend to do any harm, the will be right." That is your creed, is it? [unclear: Th] would point out first that the text says, "If [unclear: the] be God, follow Him," i.e., acknowledge Him, [unclear: in] Him, obey Him; and it is probable that in doing this you will find that "God's ways are not [unclear: er] as our ways, nor his thoughts as our thoughts." [unclear: that] this leads me to say, secondly, that your [unclear: arg] implies that the case is to be judged by man's [unclear: in] of God, and not by God's ideas of man; but herein is a great mistake. If there be a God, and He has revealed Himself to man, then the only question is, what. He is, or what He thinks of us? Perhaps an illustration will make this point somewhat more plain. Suppose some filthy beggar seeks to thrust himself into the drawing-room of a prince. Is he impudently to decide whether he is good enough company for all who may be found there. Whether his stinking clouds and half-naked dirty limbs will do? Think, then, how your "moderately good life" will appear in the brilliance of God's home. How you would figure amid the throng of bright ones, the pure eyes of the All-Pure looking you through and through. If then you believe in a God at all, do not halt in a half acceptance of Him, or in the acceptance of some Baal of your own devising, but follow the God of His own revelation.

"But, do you believe in God at all?" I am still pressing you with the question of this sermon, because so few will resist that tendency to take the easiest course, which is not to decide on such questions. A popular philosophy sets forth that it is bard to know God,—in fact, that he cannot be known. Well, it is easy at all events to adopt this opinion. And if God cannot be known, then I escape from responsibility; I am but an adventurer in the scheme of the universe; I must seize all the satisfactions I can, and leave the rest to fate! The argument of the text, dear friends, is not a question of ease, but of reason. Don't adopt an opinion merely because it seems to save trouble! Enquire. This is what God, and Christ, and the Holy Spirit are always Kiddng you do, but you don't really do it. Hundreds who will not hear my voice to-night, because they are not here, have long ago shut up their Bibles, and so won't see what God does say to them,—[unclear: the] even refuse to consider whether God has [unclear: spoken] them or not at all. These cannot very well [unclear: even] called disciples of freethought, though they [unclear: wont] willingly be thought so, because on the [unclear: subject] religion they will not think. The most they [unclear: will] probably is to go to hear the objections which [unclear: so] one styling himself a freethought lecturer—save [unclear: fi] name!—is sure to bring against what is well [unclear: under]stood he will oppose. And these [unclear: objections] accusations they will probably adopt without [unclear: on] looking for the other side, forgetting all the [unclear: fi] that Scripture says, "Prove all things, hold fast [unclear: fi] which is good." Would that I could reach all [unclear: these] But I will at least plead with those who [unclear: hear] voice, and I challenge you, and say you don't [unclear: red] believe that a life of slothful, selfish, and even [unclear: bru] indulgence will lead to good hereafter, when [unclear: all] perience teaches us that it leads to [unclear: wretchedness] ruin here. You don't really believe that [unclear: we] safely substitute for God and His love the tall [unclear: phi] and high-sounding periods, the arrogant but [unclear: delan] because purely negative, philosophy which we [unclear: him] thrust upon us on all sides in these days as [unclear: the] for all existing evils, as a substitute for that [unclear: wher] we have been taught as children, [unclear: mystifying] intellects instead of enlightening them, [unclear: unset] our faith without increasing our knowledge, [unclear: make] our hearts ache without giving our heads [unclear: any] degrading us to the brute instead of lifting [unclear: us] the Creator, exaggerating our difficulties [unclear: inst] solving them; and all this perhaps for the sorry [unclear: yen] pose of making their authors appear what [unclear: they] not. Surely you don't believe in this! But [unclear: if] feel that in truth there is here no rest for
II.—Belief in Nature Examined.

"Hath a nation changed their Gods, which are yet no [unclear: g] but my people have changed their glory for that which [unclear: de] not profit. Be astonished, O ye heavens, at this, [unclear: and] horribly afraid; be ye very desolate, saith the Lord. [unclear: t] my people have committed two evils; they have [unclear: for] me, the fountain of living waters, and hewed them [unclear: out] terns, broken cisterns, that can hold no water."—[unclear: jere] ii, 11, 12, 13.

It would be difficult, I think, to find any [unclear: for] lated terms which more exactly describe the [unclear: possi] which I shall seek to controvert to-night [unclear: than] magnificent pleading of God himself with [unclear: the] deluded people whose folly is so [unclear: graphically] tenderly exposed in the text. Israel had [unclear: drunk] living waters, but in wilful self-sufficiency [unclear: they] forsaken the one uncreated inexhaustible [unclear: source] all satisfaction and of life, for the wretched [unclear: earthier] cisterns of their own construction, which [unclear: the] rays cracked before the water had been [unclear: conveyed] to them—for they were not original sources [unclear: of] like springs, but defective tanks which [unclear: could] even hold what was put into them, or if they [unclear: he] for a while, it was only to stagnate and [unclear: putr] best. The parallel to this is found in [unclear: those] only in those, who blindly and wilfully [unclear: subs] something else for God. Hence my subject to [unclear: in] flows naturally out of the inquiry with [unclear: which] were engaged last Sunday evening. We [unclear: then] that every man must [unclear: have] some belief, how loudly he may reject creeds and dogmas, [unclear: and] question then put was, God or Baal? Our question to-night may be stated in these terms: If a [unclear: mr] ect God, what is the value of that which he substitutes? Now, if a man reject the doctrine of a Divine Creator, there is hardly anything left for him but a belief in the self-existence of what is commonly called Nature; for to consider that Nature, though owing its existence to God, may yet be put in the [unclear: place] of God—which some appear to imagine—is [unclear: simply] absurd. It is very tasteful in poetry, and [unclear: very] reverent in our common language, to speak of Nature as a person, but such expressions as "the [unclear: laws] of Nature" are very confusing to those not much accustomed to reflect; such almost always get into the way of thinking of Nature as an active [unclear: being], a sort of rival deity. I speak to-night in [unclear: stricter] language, and by Nature I mean the physical [unclear: universe] with its phenomena, so that when I speak [unclear: of] an examination of the belief in Nature as the [unclear: subject] of my address, I mean to test the value, as far [unclear: as] I can of that trust or confidence in the physical [unclear: surprise] with its phenomena which we are so constantly [unclear: exhorted] to maintain as preferable to a similar trust [unclear: or] confidence in God. But one remark I must make [unclear: before] I proceed with my argument, lest I should [unclear: be] misunderstood by any. The poets and [unclear: artists] who in living words or illuminated canvas [unclear: pourtray] the glories of what we thus call Nature, have in me an humble but most sympathetic admirer. It could hardly be otherwise, viewing as I do the [unclear: universe] as the handiwork of God. Every [unclear: shawdow] upon the mountains, every glow of colour, [unclear: every] mystery of night, every height and depth, is [unclear: pregnant] with high and holy teaching; every perfect structure, every awful manifestation, has indeed a voice, a voice which may reach the soul, because thus [unclear: far] Nature has a message to deliver. She may speak
attributes of Him who made her, though she may not declare His will. But, to resume. It is no
education of mine, but a proud boast we meet with: day, that belief in Nature is rapidly
supplanting rendering impossible a belief in God. But if this so, there must be some
grounds for the fact. I it quite probable that nine out of every ten who to adopt a
belief in Nature instead of a believe Revelation do so without much strict inquiry at but because this course
promises an easy what they want to get rid of, viz., God and resg sibility, and therefore of uncomfortable
thoughts; this is mere carnal indulgence, mental and spir daziness, or perhaps spit, and I am not
believing that class of persons to-night, but rather with the who
prosely the way, and to adopt their opinions liberally as the outcome of their study and thoughts.
Such persons avow a belief in Na rather in Revelation on some grounds. Either regard it
as a mere philosophical creed, or as affor more certainty; or it may be that, deceived by great fallacy
of the age that every change gress in the right direction, they seize upon this a new gospel and
persuade themselves that it triumph and evolve blessings to the human. Now I seek the
Divine aid, which I believed assist my poor abilities and limited knowledge to monstrate as I proceed
that belief in Natures as posed to belief in God is neither more philosophic nor more rational, that it affords no
security, and (whatever be the value of the argument of novelty), this is in reality the most
threadbare the humanly devised religions which the blind of men interposes in place of
the voice from He the message from God. I would have the beli in Nature to look at
what he believes in Wh this physical universe? Scientists and philo reduce it to two
terms, "matter" and "force." Now, if this be the ultimate analysis, if we cannot get beyond these things, it is
quite evident that we have not succeeded in driving out God, for the question yet remains—whatever matter and
force may be—are they self-existent or originated? If you say the latter then there remains a God to believe in;
but if the former, then you substitute for the action of an intelligent being the operation of blind force; and so
philosophic systems have come to be distinguished in the last resort upon this turning point which is
primary—thought or force? That is, are the forces which exist the result of intelligent determination, or is
intelligence itself the product and accident of blind forces? The only other possible position is that at the bottom
force and thought are the same. I cannot follow up these questions, but the important point for my present
argument is that it is only by the adoption of the middle one of these three positions that philosophy appears to
banish God—that is upon that supposition that intelligence is the outcome of mechanical force rather than the
originator of it, since undereved intelligence is a necessary part of our idea of God. But is there any certainty of
this position being true? Is there even any very high probability of it? For if there be no certainty that blind
force is antecedent to thought—or in other words that nature is self-existent—then there is no security for a
belief in Nature rather than a belief in God; and the amount of probability in favour of such a dogma—for a
dogma it is, remember—is the measure of its rationality and philosophical value. Let us go then a little closer
into this, to see what the value of such a religion may be! If materialism reduces the universe to matter and
physical force, the grand question then becomes, What is matter, and what is ph- sical force? I must know
something of these th before I can put my trust in them. Now, I say that you may pass
down the whole row of illustrious in natural philosophy, from centuries terior to
Christianity down to our own day, finding one who will tell you what either matter physical force intrinsically is; but these are constituents of Nature, how then can I know?
Nature is, and not knowing how can I trust? But some one may say the preacher exagges surely the great philosophers and scientists ae so ignorant! they have doubtless definitions of important terms. Hear, then, some of them:- and Aristotle thought that matter was unreal. cartes defines it as extension. Kant speaks as a necessary formula of thought, and (Hegel) means for the self-realisation of spirit. Hel declares it an abstraction, and Huxley a consciousness. Huxley gives the same force—which most authors allow to be a mere ab tion—that is, an idea. Du Bois-Reymond expressly of force that the term is a sort of the artifice of the human brain. What is the meaning of all this, to some of you, I fear, unintelligible language? It means, dear simply this—that Philosophy herself knows not can pronounce nothing positive about these stituent elements of Nature, matter, and force therefore, I ask, What is the value of your be Nature? Is it after all more philosophical rational, more secure than a belief in God? say they have given up a belief in God: because unknowable. I say, then, upon the same you must give up your belief in Nature: here you are no better off. Dear friends, exactly what God himself has already told us text—that we should gain nothing by rejecting Him. "Hath a nation changed their gods which are yet no gods? My people have changed their glory—the glory of knowing the true God—for that which doth not profit. Be astonished, O ye heavens, at this, For my people have committed two evils; they have forsaken me, the fountain of living waters; and hewed them out cisterns, broken cisterns, that can hold no water. But I can
imagine some one saying, "Well, I don't understand very much of the philosophical argument which has been set forth, and no doubt it appears to cut away the ground from under the feet of the believer in Nature when dealt with so strictly; yet I think there is something else to say. I may not know much about matter and force, and I have no taste for metaphysics, but I believe in progress, and what I mean by believing in Nature is only that I entertain the notion that somehow or other things will work out right at the last for the race, and therefore for the individual, and that too by the operation of some law or principal, and therefore without my concerning myself very much about it!" Here, again, my dear friend, I think you are taking things rather too much upon trust—perhaps you have pinned your faith upon some teacher who propounds this doctrine as his substitute for the Christian religion, and you are content to accept it from him. But again I say an intelligent belief must have something to rest upon; surely you are not content to say, like a mere animal, "Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die!" What ground have you then for being satisfied with the position I have described? And you must remember that I am arguing with you to-night as a believer in Nature only. Some may say that they believe that God will bring about the final restitution of all things, that the crooked shall be made straight and the rough plain. This is a theological proposition, and rests upon its own merits and evidence; you cannot urge it; your trust is in Nature, mean by the term; you must find the basis of faith therefore in Nature, not in the character of.

I am convinced that with very many this trust Nature really is a sort of half-conscious trust but if so, don't confuse the two any longer—"[Unclear: If] Lord be God, follow Him." But, to return. [Unclear: wh] ground for this confidence does Nature afford have already shown you, carried up to [Unclear: the] analysis, you have not, and cannot have any solute knowledge of Nature at all, anil therefore cannot predicate anything about her or about [Unclear: yourself] as part of her; but I am willing to allow that [Unclear: th] is another kind of knowledge which, though [Unclear: not] solute and always falling short of strict certainty, yet great practical weight with us—I mean the [Unclear: ko] edge founded on experience and observation. [Unclear: Th] is not a knowledge of intrinsic realities, but [Unclear: only] knowledge of phenomena—of what we see and with around us. It is upon this kind of knowledge that all natural sciences are based; but it is that the value of such knowledge depends on the [Unclear: the] rectness of experiments and observations, the [Unclear: du] tion of the experience, and the like; and [Unclear: even] it is only a knowledge of these particular [Unclear: th] which have been the subjects of the experiments, and we have no right whatever to [Unclear: say] any conclusion arrived at by observation of ject to another subject not of the same kind, [Unclear: however] correct that conclusion may be in relation to the [Unclear: fe] subject You will see how all this applies [Unclear: to] point now before us. I am asking you [Unclear: why] trust that in your future existence [Unclear: everything] come right, if I may so say, naturally? Most likely your reply will be—"Because I believe in evolution." But evolution is a doctrine which, after having been forgotten or neglected since the time of Anaximander, some 2500 years ago, has re-appeared in our time; and which, whether it be a true theory or a false one in regard to the special subject to which it applied—and this, as you know, is a subject of controversy—has been introduced by certain physical scientists as what appears to them to be the best way of explaining certain phenomena, i.e., appearances in a particular branch of inquiry, that is to say in natural history. But, supposing I were to go the length of allowing this to be the true explanation of those appearances—which is not for me to pronounce—you will still have no just ground for thinking you may live as you like, and trust to Nature for the future good. And why? Why? Because you have not yet got rid of God at all; you have only been considering a minute area of the realm of knowledge, a mode of operation in a particular sphere, but God may still be the Operator. You may still have to answer to Him, and so far from having banished God, I shall shew in a subsequent address, if spared, that your own argument, viz., the doctrine of evolution, affords a very strong ground of belief of His existence. But you still urge that although the doctrine of evolution does not prove there is no God—because we have yet to account for the origin of things—that it gets rid of accountability by the introduction of an almost mechanical law. Nothing of the kind. You are making the mistake of transferring conclusions arrived at from observations in one sphere to quite a different sphere, and this you have no right to do. The physical scientist applies this doctrine to the study of bones and struc- tures and the morphology of animals and have no right to apply his conclusions field to your moral and spiritual history. In a word, if it has pleased God to your animal body upon this principle, it follow that your moral, much less your spirit nature are subject to the same law.

But I must conclude. I purpose, indeed, to of the Pantheistic theory, and to say more upon fabled natural upward tendency of things. I content myself with but a sentence upon these [Unclear: pori] already, indeed, answered as to their [Unclear: principle.] Pantheism I will only say that while it [Unclear: is] Christian doctrine to say that God is everywhere say that everything is God is as absurd as it [Unclear: is] true. The ancient atomic theory of [Unclear: Democritus] the molecular theory of modern teachers, [Unclear: eq] expose this, for surely a God indefinitely and nitely subdivided is
hard to believe in, [unclear: still] that every atom or molecule contains [unclear: the] nature of God. And similarly with regard [unclear: to] upward tendency of things apart from [unclear: God] what part of matter does this upward [unclear: tends] reside? If in every particle, we come to [unclear: Panth] again; but if only in a few, how can I tell [unclear: that] of such particles exist in me, therefore [unclear: what] have I of natural advance? Trust in [unclear: Nature.] should I trust in Nature? Where do I find [unclear: ene] agement to do so? Her face is beautiful. But her heart is hard! Men from the earliest [unclear: times] worshipped her and been deceived. [unclear: Baal.] Chemosh, or Ra, were Nature under the symbol the Sun, the Lord of Day; to him they [unclear: sacri] but yet he did not always shine. Trials [unclear: and] ferings have meaning in the moral government God, but Nature is not a moral governor, [unclear: Th] she always kind, always beneficent? Here a swollen river sweeps away the villages along its banks, making men homeless, children fatherless, wives widows. Here brave mariners have struggled with ocean billows through days and nights of howling storms, only to be engulfed at last. There over the dreary plain the scorching sun has pitilessly dried up every pool, absorbed every drop of moisture, and men and beast glare upon each other, drink blood, and die. The relentless hurricane devastates half a continent, or the awful cataclysm, amid fierce thunderings and hellish glares, and darkness that may be felt, swallows up a hundred thousand fathers and mothers, and leaves, perhaps, their babes to die, unless—strange compassion!—the tidal wave should come and carry them away. Trust in Nature! Why should I? If there be no fearful doom there is decay and death, and Nature tells me nothing of what lies beyond. Trust to Nature! My fellow-men are but as demons, left alone to Nature and her passions. Not savage races only rage and slay. Within the memory of living men the citizens of a great capital of one of the foremost nations of the earth in arts and all refinements, rose in rebellion against Christ and God, and when the sacred name was banished for four whole days they fell upon their fellows, and in those days eight thousand citizens of Paris were butchered with unparallelled barbarity, the murderers singing and dancing round their palpitating victims, and drinking of their blood. Nature in most men is self, or lust, or passion. Why should I trust in these? I have looked at Nature outside and within. I have seen in herself nothing wherein to trust—no light, no certain hope. "Be astonished, O ye heavens, and be horribly afraid, and be very desolate," that any should be found to turn from God their glory to this utter darkness. Dear [unclear: breth] and friends—If for a moment you have been [unclear: tur] aside, see yet if there be not "a lie in your [unclear: r] hand." Take up these verses; read them [unclear: with] context; ponder them until from them you [unclear: seen] hear a voice sweeter than any Nature has to [unclear: utter] for she has no voice with which to speak the [unclear: spe] truths of God—the voice of the pleader [unclear: sayi] "Return, return, backsliding children, [unclear: and] iniquity shall not be your ruin." Amen.

III—Meaning of Believe in God.

"But without faith it is impossible to please [unclear: Him] that cometh to God must believe that He is, and [unclear: that] a rewarer of them that diligently seek Him,"—[unclear: Heb] xi., 6. "Because that which may be known of God [unclear: is] fest in [to] them, for God hath showed it unto [unclear: them] the invisible things of Him from the creation of the [unclear: would] clearly seen, being understood by the things that [unclear: are] even His eternal power and Godhead; so that they [unclear: are] they may be without excuses. Because that when [unclear: they] God they glorified Him not as God, neither were [unclear: thas] but became vain in their imaginations, and their [unclear: foolish] was darkened."—Romans i., 19, 22.

The conclusion arrived at from our [unclear: examin] of the constitution and course of Nature, [unclear: str] and impartially conducted, was that we could [unclear: de] therfrom neither confidence as to the [unclear: preset] hope as to the future. We find ourselves composed of mysterious elements to which [unclear: we] names, but of the origin of which we know [unclear: noth] and acted upon by tremendous forces which [unclear: we] somewhat indeed utilise, but which we can do nothing to control.

This dreary conclusion has been arrived at by many besides ourselves, and the practical deduction not a few have made is that, everything being utterly inscrutable, we should just be content to live enjoying what we can enjoy, and suffering what of suffering we cannot avoid, without troubling ourselves with great questions which it would seem we cannot solve. Others there are whose intelligence and experience unite to make very evident to them what the eventual outcome of such sentiments would be—viz., the destruction of our moral nature, if not the very ruin of society—and seeing this make some effort to escape from what they thus foresee. But they seem to imagine that mere activity of mind will effect their purpose, and we fail to discover amid all the discussions, denunciations, and negations industriously put forth by these, anything more than spasmodic struggles directed to no certain end. Where is the one uniting salutary principle which is to effect deliverance? Is it mere doubt of everything which can do this? Doubt may be brave or it may be cowardly, as it more often is, but it will never be redemptive, never consolatory. If this be all, the people must sit in darkness still. But it
need not be all. We have not yet exhausted all possibilities. If Nature meet our questionings with blankness and our yearnings with cold rejection, let us not yet despair; let us be truly brave—brave enough to believe that aspirations would not exist without something which can satisfy them; brave enough to lift up our eyes again to gaze still higher. Perhaps there is yet something, some Being above and beyond what we call Nature, by whom all things consist? If so, then "we also are His offspring;" and if we [unclear: His] Father we shall surely find trust, and [unclear: peace;] love. This, then, is the object of our [unclear: search;] what of the way? The pathway we must [unclear: travel] long and difficult; it is not the nearest or the [unclear: be] There is a way to that Father, which is [unclear: direct] is "The Way;" but if we have not found it [unclear: we] still press forward in our search. In a word, [unclear: I] not take you by the way God has revealed until [unclear: y] be persuaded at least of the existence [unclear: of] Revealer. "He that cometh to God [unclear: must] believe that He is." What, then, is the [unclear: meaning] belief in God? For the answer to this question must seek an answer to others. What do [unclear: we] by God? and what is the meaning of belief? [unclear: Wy] I possess a clear conception on these points, [unclear: l] still ask for some grounds upon which that which call belief may take hold of that which I call God.

Now, speaking in the deepest humility [unclear: upon] a subject, we may say at least that our idea [unclear: of] Supreme Being includes the following [unclear: conception] viz., that He must have His essence of [unclear: Himself] sarily and eternally; that to Him must be [unclear: attribu] omnipotent will, omniscient intelligence, [unclear: and] moral quality in infinite perfection, [unclear: such;] instance, as justice, truth, and love. I [unclear: shall] be occasion to revert hereafter to some of these [unclear: terr] but these characteristics, centred in a [unclear: transferable] mode in an Incomprehensible, Spiritual [unclear: Personal] go far to embrace our idea of God. Now, [unclear: secondary] What is the meaning of Belief? This, or [unclear: f] which is akin to it, is the very subject [unclear: which] defined and abundantly illustrated in the [unclear: cha] from which I have selected the first of the [unclear: two] sages of my text, but it may be well if I [unclear: of] definition somewhat more at length, [unclear: however] cult it is to do so without the use of scholastic and technical language. I would say, then, that Belief is the assent of our understandings to the actuality of the object presented to them, although that object be neither apparent to our outward senses nor to our understandings in such wise as to appear a necessary truth; nor follows so immediately from things already known as itself to form part of our knowledge. If, nevertheless, in spite of these apparent shortcomings, the object has so much evidence in its favour as to induce us to yield that assent of our understandings to the extent of full persuasion—this is properly Belief. It now remains to apply these definitions—that is to say, to ascertain whether the evidence is forthcoming to lead us to yield that full assent of our understandings which we call belief, to the existence of the object described, whom we call God, although God be such an one as we can neither see nor touch, nor so examine as to have a scientific knowledge of His being.

You see, dear friends, that I have not hesitated to go the whole length of the freest inquiry, and that although it is very evident that within the limits of a single discourse nothing more can be done than to indicate the character of the evidence required, or to suggest a few out of the almost innumerable lines which may be followed up. And I am thus bold because I hope to persuade any who either have doubts, or at least have not full persuasion of the existence of God, to follow up some of these lines carefully and without prejudice. Truth desires nothing more than with adequate knowledge, patience, and sincerity to be thus inquired into. But there is a word of warning which I must add before I proceed. You must clearly understand at the outset what, and what only, you have a right to expect. Young [unclear: thinks] and persons whose education has not been [unclear: car] very far, are peculiarly liable to fall into the [unclear: ful] mental error of demanding the same kind [unclear: of] tainty upon every subject of inquiry. [unclear: These] "Give me proof!" "I require proof!" Very [unclear: g] so far, but the mistake is that by proof [unclear: they] mathematical demonstration, or at least [unclear: scien] induction; but it may be that the subject [unclear: matter] such as cannot be investigated either [unclear: mathematical] or scientifically. Or they have read a little [unclear: log] and become so enamoured of that method [unclear: that] want to fit it on to everything, and will reject [unclear: en] thing which does not reduce into the form of [unclear: a] rect syllogism. They will try thus, perhaps, [unclear: to] the existence of a God. They say the universe the universe could not exist without a God, therefore there is a God. But some one points out to they radical fault in their argument, viz., that their [unclear: th] premise assumes the very question in [unclear: debate;] therefore the question is begged: the [unclear: conclusion] worthless. Now, it may be perfectly true [unclear: all] time that the universe cannot exist without [unclear: a] but that proposition requires its own kind [unclear: of] It is very foolish and altogether illogical [unclear: for] logician when he finds, after repeated [unclear: failure;] he cannot logically prove the existence of a God say that therefore there is no God. And yet [unclear: th] mathematical, scientific, or logical proofs are [unclear: wh] many appear to insist on as to the [unclear: exist] God, and they are what they can never [unclear: have;] all this it does not follow that there is [unclear: not] sufficient evidence upon the point before us to [unclear: sat] the legitimate demands of our [unclear: understandings] to cause them to assent to its truth, that is [unclear: to] to believe in it.
Let us examine the case.

We have seen what we have no right to expect, and, to some extent, why we have no right to expect the kind of proofs some people seek for. It can never be too often repeated that the different kinds of knowledge correspond with the character of the subjects investigated. All knowledge may be divided into positive and comparative, and the limits of all positive knowledge are overlapped the moment we look outside of ourselves. "What I have called comparative knowledge we arrive at only by analogy, and these analogies have more or less force upon us according to their directness; those analogies which are founded directly upon our self-knowledge are the most powerful, while those which are analogies upon possess powers and attributes and modes precisely similar to those which you although this conviction has been borne in with such subtlety, and probably so early in life, you do not at all recognise the process, yet also reached you with such strength that you in the reality and existence of other people the shadow of a doubt.

I have gone thus far into this subject I do not think that the force of the derived from general human consciousness to the existence of God has been insisted on. It is not merely that belief existence of a God is almost, if not altogether reversal among the nations of the earth; but of the argument is, how that belief comes to part, as I believe it does form a true part, of consciousness. It is by an analogy similar by which we become convinced of the existence our fellow-creatures. It is true that we observe the person of God as we can the men, yet, after all, it is not the outward physical likeness of our fellows which entirely us of their resemblance to ourselves, bu evidence of their internal nature. A man never seen his own face in a glass, and did not what he was like, would no less believe that men were as he is, and he as they. We see a] acting kindly to a being in distress; we attrib once to that person the same emotions of which we perceive within ourselves, and so on justice or reasoning power. Very well then, see around us the operation on a more than scale of personal attributes and characteristion miniature representatives of which we possses—such, for example, as Will and Intelligence, go no further—it is then, I think, a true by analogy that there is a Being in whom these qualities and attributes combine; and, as with the] recognition of our fellow-creatures the force of the amounted to a consciousness of their reality.] so, in this case, the induction, when fully considered in all its bearings, can hardly fail to that fulness of assent of our understandings which amounts to persuasion or belief. Nay, the conviction may even be so strong as to amount, as in the former case, to a consciousness of its reality.] This what on a former occasion I called the knowledge of Faith. This is what, I think, Holy means when it speaks of that kind of knowledge. This is, I take it, what the second part of text means when it says "That which may be known of God is manifest to them, for God hath showed it to them, for the invisible things of Him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being manifested by the things that are made, even His eternal power and Godhead, so that they are without because."] Some one may say that because we cannot see the face of God as we see the face of man, the nalogy] does not hold good. I have already somewhat anticipated this objection, but I would add what] those who urge it have missed the point of the gument. The query is as to what we observe. In the] first case, then, identity between the things in others and in ourselves led us to conclude entity of nature; but we are not demanding the istence] of a God in all points like unto ourselves, sort of giant man; that is the danger to which pathomorphism—a true argument within certainmits—is subject. The analogy is in] the personality of the attributes observed, not in the quality of them. You can hardly conceive of Will and Intelligence including thought and order and adaptation separate forces existing outside of any:
entity-) so many wild winds blowing from different [unclear: qu] at the same time. "We find these [unclear: attributes] bined in our own nature, and the analogy [unclear: sag] that they would be similarly combined in [unclear: as] nature; but that that nature is, in the case [unclear: of] essentially no higher than our own is [unclear: central] by what of will and intelligence is [unclear: manifested] in universe, and they are clearly seen to be [unclear: will] luty free and intelligence absolutely [unclear: unlimited] as we find these things within [unclear: ourselves —] cabined, and confined. The Being, then, [unclear: of] we predicate these powers is unlike [unclear: ourselves] He is the very "perfect law of liberty." [unclear: We] then believe in the real existence of God on [unclear: ga] very similar to those which oblige us to [unclear: acknowledge] the reality of the existence of our fellow-[unclear: men].

But I would say a few words on some other [unclear: lis] argument. There is, for instance, the [unclear: old-] because natural—argument of final cause. [unclear: I] think this argument exploded, as some [unclear: are] to say, because it has been attacked. I [unclear: shall] but little on it, because there is no doubt [unclear: th] such discussions we are ultimately led to [unclear: qus] beyond the power of man to solve. [unclear: But] certain that nothing is self-created, since [unclear: that] mean that things acted before they [unclear: existed-] is absurd—therefore something must be [unclear: self]—must have its essence and being [unclear: necessary] question is: Shall this necessary existence [unclear: be] but to a being such as we have called [unclear: God] an un definable abstraction called force, [unclear: in] must be supposed to exist all the germs of [unclear: all] and all possibilities, and that thought, [unclear: and] [unclear: and] perfection of every kind was a product of blind [unclear: force] though force itself had no such attributes. [unclear: Now.] final causation means action in view of an end [unclear: to] be obtained, and it is in virtue of this peculiarity [unclear: of] our own nature that we ourselves are called [unclear: rational] beings, because we constantly act with a [unclear: view] to an end. Now, the marks of the action of [unclear: final] causes are order, orderly movement, [unclear: combinations] and the like. Where these are absent we [unclear: should] argue the absence of a controlling intelligent [unclear: nal] cause, but where they are present, as [unclear: everywhere] throughout the universe, then we should [unclear: argue] the presence of final causation, which is a [unclear: characteristic] of rationality, and therefore of a [unclear: rational] agent, and we can hardly imagine a [unclear: rational] agent acting everywhere and always except He be [unclear: God].

[unclear: The] argument from design or special [unclear: adaptation] has also been disparaged, but its force is still [unclear: almost] irresistible. If there were only one or two [unclear: sentences] of it in Nature it might perhaps be [unclear: pounced] accidental, as when a key happens to open [unclear: lock] for which it was not made; but, as Lord [unclear: Neill] argues in an interesting address, if in a lock [unclear: of] complicated construction you found a key to open [unclear: the] almost practical certainty is arrived at that [unclear: key] which opens it was intended to open [unclear: if] and in order adequately to illustrate the case before [unclear: a] you must suppose thousands of locks, each opened [unclear: y] its own key and no other. This is the kind of [unclear: certainty] of the action of God which we have from [unclear: sign], and these adaptations exist in myriads. [unclear: They] are seen in every organism, in every structure [unclear: of] every organism. Without such adaptation of our [unclear: usucular] powers to terrestrial gravity we should [unclear: ther] be unable to move, or on the slightest exer- tion leap into the air. In the exact [unclear: proportion] the gases which compose the air, as [unclear: compared] our breathing faculties, the amount of [unclear: caloric] quired to admit of life, and a multitude [unclear: of] adaptations, or even if we suppose the whole [unclear: e] series of animals and plants upon the face of [unclear: the] to have arrived at their present condition [unclear: on] plan of evolution, still the grand result [unclear: argues] knowledge and intention on the part of [unclear: His] set the whole scheme in operation. If we [unclear: are] believe in a Designer when we observe [unclear: so] design, in what, with our present [unclear: constitution] we to believe?


conclude, though volumes [unclear: might] be written. "What I have written has been [unclear: to] make clear the position of the believer in God. [unclear: it] has not been my task to prove His existence. [unclear: Nay], I have even allowed that proof, in the common [unclear: meaning] of the word, is impossible. If we could [unclear: have] it there would be no room for faith. But [unclear: showing] the nature of belief and something of the [unclear: nature] of God, I have shown too that there is [unclear: everywhere] an abounding fulness, a lavish plenitude of [unclear: evidence] of every kind which our mind can receive, [unclear: which] urges—almost obliges—the reflecting mind to [unclear: yield] that complete assent which means belief in [unclear: him.] And if any ask, because I have not brought to [unclear: demonstration] the existence of a God, is, then, [unclear: the] position of a [unclear: believer] in God better than that of a believer in Nature? I answer, a thousandfold [unclear: supe] if it be but in this, that when the believer in [unclear: Nature] stops to try the ground of his belief, to test [unclear: the] security of that whereon he stands, he finds that [unclear: ground] falling away on every side, that fancied [unclear: certainty] eluding his grasp; the more searching his [unclear: lance] the more rapidly they disappear. He has [unclear: followed] the will-of-the-wisp; it has led to him the [unclear: dismal] swamp; it goes out and leaves him in the [unclear: darkness.] While, on the other hand, the believer in [unclear: God,] though first his faith be as feeble as a thread of [unclear: gossamer] follows up first that thread and then [unclear: another] till he finds them all woven up together; [unclear: tan] thousand strands have made him now a cord [unclear: unbreakable,] to which he holds secure. He stands, not on one frail plank which breaks beneath [unclear: his] but on accumulated bases, which, like [unclear: succ] strata, harden into rock, and there he rests [unclear: uns] un ailed.

IV.—How can we Know God?

"Oh that I knew where I might find Him! that I might [unclear: come] even to His seat."—Job xxiii., 3. "If ye had known [unclear: Me] ye should have known My Father also; and from hence-[unclear: forth] ye know Him and have seen Him."—St. John xiv., 7.

I will suppose that we now stand upon the [unclear: platform] of the Deist; that we are fully persuaded of [unclear: the] existence of an all-powerful, all-wise, all-perfect [unclear: Being], who has existed from all eternity, and who is [unclear: subject] to no change; from whom nothing is hid, [unclear: because,] by the very nature of His being, He [unclear: fillet] things; from whom all things proceed, and by [unclear: whom] all things consist; whose passionless will [unclear: is] the fountain of all law, and whose unclouded [unclear: intelligence] is the source of all perfection. It will follow [unclear: from] this acceptance of a limitless Spiritual Being [unclear: without] body or parts, that there is no point of space [unclear: whither] we could fly to escape from Him, no possible [unclear: accumulation] of organised matter which could hide [unclear: as] from Him; that as we are surrounded by the [unclear: terrestrial] atmosphere so, in the very words of [unclear: Scripture,] "in Him we live and move and have our [unclear: being,] God knows us therefore, perfectly, and sins [unclear: which] even human sense of shame drives us into [unclear: darkness] to transact are not done in secret or in [unclear: shade] so far as He is concerned. "He is about our [unclear: path] and about our bed, and spies out all our ways." [unclear: There] is no doubt that God sees and knows us, for [unclear: spirit] must always triumph over matter—as even our [unclear: spirit] and our very thoughts can somewhat gird the [unclear: globe.] But our inquiry to-night is the converse of this—How can we know God? Now, it need [unclear: ha] be said that physical organs of vision are not [unclear: ada] to behold spiritual substance, if indeed [unclear: they] all capable of it—which I imagine they are [unclear: not] God is a spirit," "no man hath seen God [unclear: at] time." He is such an one as "no man hath [unclear: se] can see," though "He be not very
far from [unclear: any] of us." As a blind man may be [unclear: encompassed] every side with light which yet he is unable [unclear: to] receive, so may we be ever in the presence [unclear: of] whom yet, by mere physical vision, we [unclear: can] know. A time will come indeed when to the [unclear: fail] searcher after God the beatific vision will be [unclear: frac] but that is not until he himself has [unclear: undergo] change, and his natural body (soma [unclear: pseukokor]) been transformed into a spiritual [unclear: body (some matikon)].

Our present inquiry, [unclear: however,) only to our present condition. Man as he [unclear: is] God as he is, can there be no communication [unclear: bet] one and the other? No sort of [unclear: understand] No recognition? No bond? To answer [unclear: these] tions as they are asked by the mere Deist—[unclear: the] who has not yet accepted the Bible with [unclear: its] statements harmonising so wonderfully [unclear: with] philosophy and with our needs—we must [unclear: su] ourselves to be in the position of men [unclear: without] Bible, and make a present to the mere [unclear: Ration] all the blessed experience the world has had [unclear: of] clear light of revelation for so long time, [unclear: w] not pretend that we can really surrender [unclear: these] vantages, because the Christian’s own [unclear: experience] moments of rapturous intercourse with God, [unclear: of] comfort and balm-like peace, founded upon [unclear: or] out of promises which he believes on good [unclear: ge] be promises of God, affords some of the [unclear: ste] persuasions of the reality of that [unclear: intercourse] therefore the possibility of such communications, but for the present we must address ourselves to other considerations. The Deist fully admits these two important propositions, viz., the existence of God and His character. He would probably himself describe that character as perfect righteousness and perfect benevolence; he would also allow that the truest happiness of man consists in his correspondence with that character—that when the actions of our will correspond with our knowledge of duty, or when the actions of our affections correspond with the law of goodwill towards men, that in either case we experience the satisfaction which we speak of as the approval of conscience. The Deist then, readily admitting these points, will not deny that the more perfectly our conduct can be made to correspond with the character of God the greater our happiness, nor that closer correspondence is likely to be fostered by more intimate knowledge—which at least exhibits the desirability of a revelation of God to [unclear: man] a desirability which Plato long ago pointed out [unclear: to] his pupils, a desirability which possibly the Deist [unclear: himself] might, in the language of Job, most [unclear: fervently] express; but desirability, if it be well founded, is, in such a case as we are dealing with, a very strong argument of probability—for the Being whose revelation of Himself to us seems to promise such immense advantage is not only well disposed to His creatures, because benevolent, but also is, by the very definition of His being, as the source of all law, and the director of all operations, entirely and unrestrictedly capable of accomplishing that which [unclear: emeth] to Him good. The well-known arguments of Paley in his introduction to the study of the Christian Evidences very forcibly support this point. But passing from the probability of a revelation being made to the mode by which such revelation [unclear: could] made, which is the question before us, I [unclear: would] you realise fully the import in such an [unclear: inquiri] the powers and faculties with which the [unclear: Create] endowed us. Our powers of mind give us the [unclear: cop] to receive ideas, the faculty of language [unclear: enable] express, communicate, or transmit those [unclear: ideas]; to confess that we received these powers [unclear: from] but in the same breath to deny to that [unclear: mnip] Creator the ability to operate upon those [unclear: ideas] so to make use of our faculty of [unclear: language] the reverse of reasonable. But if God can [unclear: th] upon our mind so as to produce therein [unclear: dis] ideas which we can translate into human [unclear: lang] then He can communicate His will, or [unclear: reveal] self to us. I am well aware that it may be [unclear: object] that man can form no ideas or conceptions of the [unclear: which] he has had no experience, or [unclear: which] not been described to him by others [unclear: within] experience the matters described have [unclear: come] this affords no valid objection to what [unclear: I] advanced, because we are speaking not [unclear: of] innate power of forming ideas, but of [unclear: God] s of suggesting ideas to men. It is very [unclear: certain] man possesses such a power as this in [unclear: relation] fellow, and that it can be exercised in [unclear: many] As for example, I am now trying to [unclear: commu] ideas to you, or as when the instructor in [unclear: che] exhibits to his wondering pupils phenomena [unclear: nect] with some elements with which [unclear: they] unacquainted before. Nay, it is even [unclear: affirmed] man has, or that some men have, the power [unclear: of] manipulating their thoughts to others [unclear: direc] without the instrumentalities of [unclear: language] experiment, and that there is sufficient [unclear: void] the existence of this power to warrant the [unclear: f] lation of a new science under the name of Odic force. If then in any or all of these ways we, hampered as we are with all the limitations of our material bodies, can thus communicate with others, it does not seem too much to attribute to God the power of instructing His creatures by the revelation of Himself. But mark, I am not asserting that it is possible for man even to receive ideas of things which are altogether unlike anything which he can see or know, or even mentally cognize on earth. When we speak of God revealing Himself we do not mean the display of Himself in the full reality of the Divine Essence, or even in the overwhelming grandeur of His superlative attributes; we mean His manifestation of Himself in measure and mode [unclear: suitable] to
our capacities. And nothing beyond this is required if it be the prime object of that revelation to bring about as close a correspondence as the nature of the case allows between ourselves and Him. These considerations apply directly to the question of how we may know God. For they apply to the origin and character of that marvellous Volume, the origin and character of which appear to me to be explicable upon no other reasonable hypothesis than that it proceeds from Him—I mean the Bible, a book the scope of which embraces ages, spans indeed the history of mankind from eternity to eternity, which exhibits throughout the long series of separate contributors—though living in different countries, in ages widely separated, or under conditions of life as diverse as can be imagined—an unbroken unity of design from the Paradise of Eden the Paradise of God. Which, within that unity, displays the steady march of marvellous development, unhurried, unbroken, unimpeachable, from the first simple presentment of "the God of Might" through the sublime pourtrayals of prophetic imagery [unclear: to] full illustration of infinite Majesty, shining [unclear: forth] infinite Tenderness, in the person of the [unclear: Altogether] Lovely. Or, if from broad survey we turn to [unclear: min] examination, we behold the types of one age, [unclear: where] of ritual service or of personal history, [unclear: f] exactly, with a perfect coincidence, into the [unclear: an] of a far distant age. The announcements [unclear: of] of one generation, unintelligible probably to [unclear: the] selves and of most astounding character, yet [unclear: ver] by the facts of a long succeeding [unclear: generation.] under all these circumstances, which are [unclear: as] before you to-day as they have been before [unclear: the] of any time—I know not how to [unclear: explain] phenomena upon any other principle than [unclear: that] human intelligence of the many writers of [unclear: this] was acted upon by the Divine Intelligence, [unclear: and] He who enabled man to clothe his ideas [unclear: in] made use of that instrument of language [unclear: to] His purposes to men. If these things be [unclear: so.] have at least one way in which God may [unclear: be] to men, viz., by His own declaration of [unclear: Himself].

I will not at this time go back upon [unclear: points] which I have touched in former addresses, [unclear: altho] would be found that several of these [unclear: points] a very direct application to the question we [unclear: are] discussing. For instance, that evidence [unclear: of] existence and character which affords us [unclear: ground] belief in God at all gives us also a [unclear: very] knowledge of Him—the knowledge of [unclear: faith] again, if, as I before argued, we are able [unclear: to] any consciousness of the reality of God's [unclear: exist] as we obtain a consciousness of the reality [unclear: of] existence of our fellow-creatures, that [unclear: conio] itself presumes a very high degree of [unclear: know] without which indeed it could not be. [unclear: But] [unclear: interesting] or valuable it may be to expand these [unclear: subjects,] I pass them by, because we have now [unclear: reached] another platform, and from its elevation [unclear: more] glorious prospects open out before us, the [unclear: mountain] peaks of this landscape are aglow with a [unclear: celestial] radiance. Let us leave that which is behind and turn to these. In response, then, to the [unclear: impassioned] appeal of Job expressive of the anxious [unclear: longing] of the human soul, "Oh, that I knew where [unclear: I] might find Him," we are able now to answer, [unclear: Thou] shalt find Him in His word;" and turning [unclear: to] that word, we find not only spiritual principles [unclear: and] moral instructions coming forth from Him to [unclear: show] us what He is—not only declarations of [unclear: holiness,] righteousness, and peace; not only messages [unclear: querying] His will, or gracious invitations calling us, [unclear: with] more than mother's love, to come to Him; but we see there, as the great outstanding purpose of the [unclear: book,] proclaimed in every way by which we are [unclear: capable] of receiving such an intimation, the [unclear: intention] of God to make Himself known to us not by [unclear: word] only, but by a personal illustration—He would [unclear: visit] His people. Who does not recognise the force [unclear: of] personality? Example, attraction, influence—all these forces are in constant exercise by the contact [unclear: of] one personality with another. God condescended [unclear: to] use these forces to draw us to Himself; to use [unclear: them] always consistently with the freedom He has [unclear: given] us; and to this end He would become as one [unclear: of] us. When we accept Scripture as one means of knowing God we must accept the Incarnation too, [unclear: of] Scripture itself is meaningless; and, accepting [unclear: the] Incarnation, we have not only that manifestation of the Godhead to men which Plato considered [unclear: reasonable] but we have in this personality an example which is perfect, an attraction which is universal and all but irresistible, an influence which [unclear: reaches] most secret recesses of our being. Let the [unclear: unright] man associate with the upright, he will know [unclear: his] degradation. Let the vicious be a companion [unclear: of] pure, he will know [unclear: his] own repulsiveness in [unclear: behold] the attractiveness of virtue. Let the sin-[unclear: enthral] become intimate with the sin-conqueror, he [unclear: will] more loathe his own slavery by beholding the [unclear: glo] liberty of the children of the God. And thus [unclear: be] knows Christ comes to know him self, and [unclear: knows] self because he knows God—"the only [unclear: begotten] who dwelleth in the bosom of the Father, [unclear: he] revealed him." "He that hath seen me," it is assertion of this revealer, "hath seen the [unclear: F] also." "If ye had known me ye should have [unclear: kn] the Father also, and henceforth ye know [unclear: Him] have seen Him." It is no new answer, [unclear: perhaps] it is still the true
one, to the question [unclear: "How] know God?" to say the "light of the [unclear: knowledge] the glory of God is seen in the face of Jesus [unclear: Ch]

But the subject is not yet exhausted. [unclear: These] still other agencies by which God may be knows who made us [unclear: knoweth] whereof we are made—it knows the complexity of our manifold [unclear: nature,] is, even yet, the shattered image of His [unclear: own] presents Himself to every part of it that [unclear: the] man may be satisfied, and not some [unclear: faculties] us only; God must be embraced not by the [unclear: ind] only, by a dry assent of the logical understand but by a vital act of the whole inward [unclear: man.] in flesh the Godhead is presented to us [unclear: objective] Standing, as it were, upon a very sea of [unclear: corra] in a corrupt age, He exhibits the [unclear: holiness] "Which of you convinceth me of sin?" [unclear: Desy] and rejected of men, enduring all [unclear: things-] torture, spiritual anguish, bodily suffering—[unclear: He] plays the long-suffering of God, surrendering Himself to death—as in this holy week we seem to see Him—He shows at once the justice and the love of God. It is a wondrous illustration; the world should never tire of seeing the Father through the Son. But all is objective, it is knowledge of God through [unclear: external] facts. Another work is needed yet to bring [unclear: the] knowledge of God to the spirit of a man within. To accept God as He is, reason and observation [unclear: must] be seconded by heart and conscience; there must be subjective reception as well as objective [unclear: vision] and rational perception. To know God truly requires a preparation of the heart, a certain temper of the will and the affections, as well as the conviction of the mind; and all this too has been provided for There is a Spirit who speaks to our spirits if we leave any door open by which He may gain success there. If we have not encased our hearts with adamant; if we are still seeking to find eat God—not with our brains only, but with a conscious yearning of our whole nature—"Oh, that I might find Him, that I might come into His seat!" that Blessed Spirit will calmly as in visions of the [unclear: might] take of the things of God and show them unto you. Your whole body will be full of light; you will know God as the loving child the parent on whose breast he leans.

There are still higher flights of knowledge yet to be attained. They will be reached by those who in faithful obedience follow the God they knew in part, for they shall know the doctrine, the deeper things of God, and they will find their highest glory and their highest bliss not in a knowledge externally derived, even though that know-ledge come from God, but that in a mystic union with God through Christ and sacramental operation by the Holy Ghost they have become partakers [unclear: of] Divine nature. Christ in them and they in [unclear: Chrischrist] in God; they know Him now, [unclear: because] know their regenerated selves in Him.
Of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute (founded September 14th, 1874) for the Year ending 31st January, 1884; with a List of Office-bearers and Members, for the Year 1884.

During the past Winter Session the full complement of Ordinary Meetings (6) have been held in the Society's Room, Napier.

But only one complete Paper written by a Member was read, and that at the last meeting, (and only then through the meeting being held a month later than usual,) viz.:

**BOTANY.**

"A description of several newly-discovered indigenous Plants, mostly Cryptograms of the Orders *Filices, Musci, Hepatiae,* and *Fungi,*" (with specimens of the same,) by W. Colenso, F.L.S.

This Paper has been duly forwarded to the Manager of the N. Z. Institute, with a view to it being published (if approved of) in vol. XVI. of the "Transactions."

Other Papers, however, that were partly written, would have been also read but for an untoward and unlooked-for circumstance,—of which it is right the Members should know. Indeed the first part of a curious and interesting historical legendary Paper, "On Hawaiki and the Green-stone Myths," also by Mr. Colenso, was read by him at the first Ordinary Meeting in May,—"to be followed by the remainder in 2 or 3 Papers"; but shortly afterwards, on his finding that his 3 papers on Maori matters, read last year:: before the Society, were excluded from the annual volume (XV.) of the "Transactions," he declined to read or to write any more on Maori subjects for the Institute.

*Note.*—Those 3 Papers however were subsequently returned by the Manager N.Z.I., on official application being made for them; and were published here (for Members kindly subscribing), with the approval of the Council H.B. Ph. Inst.

Notwithstanding the absence of written Papers, something not wholly unsuitable was provided for each meeting by the Council, in the shape of oral addresses and observations on Natural specimens shown; among them were the following,—

- Respecting the smaller indigenous wild yet valuable Vegetable products of the Country: by W. Colenso.
- Notes and Observations on several small indigenous Animals and Marine Sponges: by A. Hamilton.
- On the Men of Science who preceded us in these Seas and Lands, with particular reference to their labours, adventures, and tragical ends," by W. Colenso. (Several of them he had personally known, and seen here in N.Z.)
- The able Lecture on *Evolution* lately delivered by Professor Huxley before the University of Cambridge, and printed in; the June number of "Nature," was read by the Hon. Secretary at the October meeting.

A large number of curious and interesting specimens,—Zoological, Botanical, Geological, and Palæontological,—were also exhibited at all those meetings; several being new and hitherto unknown to science.

During the year 13 meetings of the Council were held; for the election of new Members,—the selecting and ordering of Boob from England for the Library, and of Glass Cases, &c., for the Museum,—and for the general advancement and benefit of the Society. There were also other Meetings of Select Committees appointed by the Council for various matters.

After due consideration by the Council, it was deemed advisable in the winter to light up the Society's Room and to have a fire kindled in it on two Evenings of the week (Monday and Thursday) from 7 to 10,—for the convenience and benefit of Members and their friends, particularly of the younger Members of the Society; due notice of the same having been publicly given by advertisement in the local Evening Paper; but after a month's trial it was abandoned, with regret on the part of the Council.

Vacancies having occurred in the completed list of Honorary Members of the N. Z. Institute, through the lamented deaths of Dr. Darwin and others, your Council was again called on (in accordance with the N. Z. Institute Act,) to elect one Foreign Honorary Member to fill up one of those vacancies; when the Rev. M. I. Berkeley, M.A., F.L.S., of Kingscliffe, England, was unanimously chosen,—‘on the grounds of his many and extensive researches, discoveries, and publications in Cryptozooic Botany during more than half-a-century, and with especial reference to what he has done for the Fungi'sology of New Zealand, Tasmania, Australia, and the Antarctic Lands."

Also, (and in accordance with the N. Z. Institute Act.) the Vice-President, Dr. Spencer, was again chosen to vote in the annual election of elected Governors to the Board of the N. Z. Institute.

Of the 108 Members whose names were published in the Report of last year,—two died during the year, Mr Robert Stuart and Mr. George Rearden; (the former gentleman being one of the earliest Members of the
Society, and for some time its President; and the latter a rising young townsman of promise in his profession of Architect, and a regular and interested attendant at our Ordinary Meetings,—he was unfortunately drowned in the harbour with two other young men while boating;) 3 have resigned; and the names of 2 others have been struck off the Roll for non-payment of their subscriptions, (in accordance with the By-law of February, 1881,)—thus leaving of that published number 101 on the Roll; to those, however, have been subsequently added 13 new Members, who were elected during the year (one of them having since resigned), and so making a present total of 113 Members.

During the past year a variety of interesting Natural Specimens were received from several Members of the Society, chiefly residing in the Country,—also from several friends; some of those specimens were exhibited at the Ordinary Meetings of the Winter Session, and were not unfrequently the cause of pleasing and profitable discussion and enquiry. Among those specimens were:

- **ZOOLOGICAL**: 1. **Mammalia**: the lower jaws of Dolphins, and the bones of a Whale (*Kogia breviceps*), from Mr. Hamilton.
- 2. **Aves**: Skins of *Huia* birds (*Heteralocha acutirostris*), from Mr Hamilton and the Honorary Secretary;—of a Crested Grebe (*Podiceps cristatus*), a rare bird in the N. Island, shot at Waikare Lake and presented by Mr. E. Tuke; of a small Rail (probably *Ortygometra affinis*), and of a species of *Spheneaevus*, both from Te Aute Lake locality, presented by Mr. C. P. Winkelman.
- 3. **Reptilia**: Several Lizards, one being a very fine green one; and the rattles of a Rattlesnake from California; presented by Mr. D. P. Balfour.
- 4. **Pisces**: Specimens of the rare and curious Torpedo, *T. Fairchildii*, and of other novel Fishes (some probably not yet known to Science) caught here in our harbour and bay, purchased from the Fishermen, and also procured by Mr. Hamilton.
- 5. **Mollusca** (recent): A rather large number of N.Z. Land and Marine shells (various genera) from Mr. Hamilton, Mr. C. P. Winkelman, and others:—several handsome shells from Jervis' Island, near the Equator, collected there by Mr. Henry Winkelman and kindly presented through his brother Mr. C. P. Winkelman:—a pair of fine shells (*Murex* sp.) from Fiji, kindly presented by a young townsman, Mr. C. S. Thomas.
- 6. **Crustacea**: Several small but novel Marine Crustaceans, collected by Mr. Hamilton.
- 7. **Arachnides**: Many and various specimens of this class, principally Spiders (*Araneides*), collected by Mr. D. P. Balfour, the Hon. Secretary, and others.
- 8. **Insecta**: Several valuable specimens, mostly *Coleoptera*, from Mr. D. P. Balfour, the Hon. Secretary, and others; also a complete series of the handsome N.Z. Butterfly *Pyrameis gonerilla*, in all its changes—larva, chrysalis, and imago,—captured in its larva state in the forests and reared by the Hon. Secretary.
- 9. **Echinodermata**: Specimens also of this class, as Starfishes (*Asterias*. various genera,) and Sea-urchins (*Echinus*, &c., both indigenous and tropical, from Mr. Hamilton and Mr. C. P. Winkelman.
- 10. **Spongiodae**: Of this now numerous family many interesting specimens obtained in Hawke's Bay, including some novel "Cup Sponges,"—from Mr. Hamilton.
- 11. **BOTANICAL**: Comprising sundry specimens of all the classes, but mostly Cryptogams of the orders *Filices, Musci, Hepaticae, Fungi*, and *Lichenes*, chiefly however, *Hepaticae*; of which order there are eleven new species of the curious (and hitherto small) genus *Symphyogyna*; together with several new species of the allied and curious genus *Aneura*, one species being (perhaps) by far the largest yet known. A few and more rare Ferns were also shown, collected in various and distant N.Z. localities;—as from Mangonui near the N. by Mr. Norton,—from the Great Barrier Island (Thames) by Mr. C. P. Winkelman,—from the interior (Taupo Country) by Mr. Hamilton,—from the "70-mile Bush" by the Hon. Secretary,—and from near Christchurch and Akaroa (South Island) by Mr. Enys, and kindly presented by him. There are also some elegant and novel Orchids both terrestrial and epiphytical; a fine new large-leaved *Fagus*,—a singular *Panax* with minute I leaves,—a second and large-leaved species of the aberrant parasitical genus *Tupeia*,—and a handsome shrubby *Metrosideros*. These were collected by several Members, and largely so by Messrs, Hamilton, C. P. Winkelman, D. P. Balfour, and the Hon. Secretary: the *Metrosideros* (quite an acquisition,) was discovered by Mr. Horace Baker.
- 12. **FOSSIL**: Sundry specimens of this class were collected and presented to the Society by Members and friends; particularly by Mr. John Stewart, of Takapau, and Mr. D. P. Balfour, of Glenross.
- 13. **GEOLOGICAL**: A quantity of interesting specimens were also collected and sent to the Society by Mr. J. Stewart, Mr. C. P. Winkelman, and Mr. D. P. Balfour; and a few foreign ones were presented by Mr. J. Harding, of Mount Vernon.
- 14. **PALÆONTOLOGICAL**: Stone axes and chisels of various kinds and of different shapes and sizes, and other implements in wood and bone of the Ancient Maoris were collected and presented to the Society by...
Messrs. D. P. Balfour, C. P. Winkelman, and a cast of the antique E. Indian Bell by Dr. Hector.

The thanks of the Members present at the Ordinary Meetings were repeatedly voted to those kind and mindful (though absent being country) Members of the Institute,—and to other friends of the Society,—who had so largely and so laboriously contributed to their pleasure and information, as well as to the enlargement of the growing Museum of the Society,—by their generous donations of specimens.

Besides those donations to the Society there were several others, interesting and valuable loans to the Museum in the shape of Deposits; among which may be chiefly noted,—the lower jaw of a Sperm Whale caught in Hawke's Bay, complete and in excellent preservation, from Mr. E. B. Bendall, of Te Mahia; and the jaws of a large Shark (Carcharias, sp.), caught in the harbour, from Mr. J. G. Kinross.

Much more, however, it is believed, could easily and profitably be done in this direction by Members generally, and by the friends of the Institute; especially by those residing or staying in the immediate neighbourhood of forests, and of the Sea-shore. Natural specimens of all kinds—particularly of the smaller plants (including mosses, etc.), reptiles, insects large and small, spiders, slugs, worms, and shells—are still greatly desired; among them are still many new forms wholly unknown to Science.

It is hoped, that as every year this Hawke's Bay branch of the N.Z. Institute grows and increases in the number of its Members, they will also severally do something more in the way of collecting and preserving natural specimens for their Museum; especially now that they have a place secured for their keeping and exhibition. The Hon. Secretary, or the Assistant Curator, will thankfully receive any and all specimens of every kind which Members and their friends may send to them; such may also be left at the Athenæum in the charge of Mrs. Gaulton.

A word of plain directions may here be given respecting the simple handy preservation of any insect, or spider, or worm, or any other small zoological specimen, which may be met with accidentally, or while travelling, &c.,—particularly as such not Unfrequently turn up both rarely and by chance. Make up loosely a small cone of paper, and put the animal into it, twist over the top edges, and carry it, without squeezing, in handkerchief or loosely in pocket, and on reaching home, put it into any common fide mouthe[d bottle containing a little spirits (of the common and more handy sort of spirits, whiskey is perhaps the best); of course a butterfly or moth cannot be so dealt with, but should be merely dried without pressure; also of a plant which may seem to be a novelty,—gather a flower or two and a couple of its leaves, or a small sprig containing both; or if it be a fern, then, if small, a whole plant, or if it be large, a small portion of a frond or leaf, (often a transverse section,) which may be folded over twice, or so,—or, if it be a moss or a liverwort, then a small tuft; and wrap the specimen up loosely in a little paper, or put it inside of an old letter, or anything handy in the pocket for the time, taking care not to squeeze or press it much. Many valuable and interesting specimens have been originally made known by this easy and simple way.

In forwarding small specimens of any kind by post to the Hon. Secretary, (which can be both easily and cheaply clone at the low postage rate of 1d. for every two ounces,) take care not to put the postage stamp on the packet or parcel, but on a small cloth or card label containing the address and loosely attached to the packet by a string; and don't spare a little extra wrapping of dry moss or old soft paper, around the specimens. A common tin match-box, of either the large or small size, is a very good means of conveyance for small specimens.

Several select and valuable Scientific and Historical Books have been received from England during the past year; others, to the extent of £50, lately carefully chosen by the Council, are now on order.

The Library is in the Society's Room in the Athenæum I Building, now leased to the Philosophical Institute for a term of 1 years, and is open for reading and for reference at all times (luring hours to Members and their friends, on application to Mrs. Caulton, the resident Librarian of the Athenæum. As very many of the! N.Z. birds, fishes, butterflies, and shells, and trees, and plants (grasses, ferns, mosses, liverworts, fungi, lichenes, and alge), are I in those several works depicted, (most, too, being coloured from nature.)—also, all British and European birds, with their eggs, British quadrupeds, fishes, insects, plants, and shells (recent and fossil), together with the birds of America, and the marine mammals of its N.W. Coast,—also, the fish and polyzoa of Victoria, the marine alge of Australia and Tasmania, and the gorgeous flora of the Fiji Islands; those works will be found both highly interesting and suitable for Scientific research, reference, and verification. The growing Library already possesses a very fair amount of first-class works on Natural Science pertaining to the British Isles and to Europe,—as well as to America, Australia, and Polynesia, including the latest magnificent volumes of the "Challenger" Expedition, publishing under the auspices of the British Government.

Further: In addition to the valuable first-class Standard Works in the Library, the Museum of the Society has been during the year put in order; several glass cases and other necessaries for that purpose having been purchased by the Council; and the able and hearty assistance of Mr. Hamilton has also been obtained. Mr. Hamilton has been appointed to the office of Assistant Curator.

Now that the room containing the Library and Museum is our own, it will be found highly suitable for quiet reading and for study; and it is especially hoped and desired by the Council, that during the long winter
evenings in particular the rooms may be often visited and the Library used by the Members, particularly by the
younger ones residing in the town, who will find therein stored many a rich and satisfactory intellectual treat.

Suitable written papers for reading, and remarks and observations on all Scientific matters generally,—and
natural specimens of all kinds for Scientific information, enquiry, and discussions at the Ordinary Meetings of
the approaching Winter Session of 1884, are much desired and would be heartily welcome.

The audited statement of accounts just read, shows a balance of £220 17s. 11d. remaining to the credit of
the Institute; besides about £112 0s. 0d. now due for subscriptions payable in advance for this current year and
for one year's interest on the Bank Fixed Deposit now nearly due, from this, however, will have to be deducted
the sum of £50, advanced as a loan to meet the Draft lately sent to England for the purchase of Books; this sum
of £50 being our only present liability, and this debt for a short period was incurred rather than draw out the
Fixed Deposit and so lose the Interest thereon, or overdraw our account with the Bank. And here Members may
be respectfully informed that had they paid their subscriptions for 1884 (due, in advance on the 1st instant),
there would not have been any necessity to obtain that loan.

Members would do well in kindly bearing in mind, that, by the laws of the Society, their annual
subscriptions are due (in advance) on the first day of January in every year, and should therefore be paid to the
Hon. Treasurer as early in the year as convenient; by their so doing no small amount of unnecessary expense
and trouble is saved.

Probably Members are not aware, that at the beginning of every year the printed list of their names is sent
in to the Manager of the N.Z. Institute, Dr. Hector, for publication in the forthcoming volume of Transactions,
and as a guide for him to furnish the requisite number of copies,—which, however, can only be issued to those
Members who have paid their subscriptions.

Wm. Colenso, Hon. Secretary.

Napier,

31st January, 1884.

Statement of Accounts of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical
Institute for the year ending January 31, 1884.

RECEIPTS. £ s d By Balance in hand, 1st Feb., 1883............................. 15 0 7 By 1 back
Subscription for 1881.............................. 1 1 0 By 3 Subscriptions for
1882........................................ 3 3 0 By 85 Subscriptions for 1883............................. 89 5 0 By 17
Subscriptions for 1884.................................. 17 17 0 By Interest received on F.D., 12 months to Feb.
1883, @ 4%........................................ 8 0 0 By Fixed Deposit, Bank of New Zealand ........................................ 200 0
0 By Loan, advanced for Draft for Books............................. 50 0 0 £384 6 7 EXPENDITURE. £ s d
To paid Advertising........................................ 3 7 0 To paid Printing Reports............................. 4
10 0 To paid London Booksellers for Books, 1882-83............................. 17 6 8 To paid Melbourne
Booksellers for Books, 1882-83............................. 0 15 0 To paid Dinwiddie & Co., Binding
Books........................................ 0 16 0 To paid Kinross & Co., freight, duties, &c., Books, &c., per 4 ships,
To paid 1882-83.................................... 10 7 10 To paid Waite, and others, cartage from
Port........................................ 1 2 0 To paid Rent of Room............................. 5 0 0 To paid
Furniture and Museum cases and fittings...................................... 44 9 0 To paid Insurance of Books,
Specimens, &c..................................... 2 10 0 To paid Assistant Curator (1
year).......................................................... 10 0 0 To paid Librarian and Caretaker............................. 6 6 0 To
paid Carriage copies Transactions........................................ 0 15 0 To paid Postage
stamps............................................ 2 16 0 To paid Moroney, freight, wharfage, and cartage, whale's
jaw............................................. 0 11 9 To paid Stationery............................. 0 15 6 To paid Barnaul & Co., Spirits of
Wine, &c........................................ 0 14 3 To paid Manager Bank of New Zealand, Draft on London, Books,
40 0 0 To paid Manager Bank of New Zealand, Expenses on same........ 0 18 6 To paid Mr. Locke for a 4to Book
.............................................. 4 0 0 To paid Sundries (small sums as shown to Auditor)............................. 0 8 2 163
8 8 To Balance in Bank, cash account........................................ 20 3 9 To Petty cash in Treasurer's
hands.............................................. 0 14 2 To Fixed Deposit in Bank............................. 200 0 0 220 17
11 £381 6 7 Examined and found, correct, February 1st, 1881. T. K. NEWTON, Auditor. E.E., January 31st,
1881. w. COLENSO, Hon. Treasurer.
Officers of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute.

President:
- The Right Rev. The Bishop Of Waiapu.

Vice-President:
- W. I. Spencer.

Council:
- H. Hill
- S. Locke
- J. Kirker
- T. K. Newton
- F. W. C. Sturm
- C. H. Weber

Honorary Secretary:
- A. Hamilton.

Honorary Treasurer:
- J. N. Bower Man.

Auditor:
- T. K. Newton.

Members of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute.

*Life Members.
- Baker, H.
- Balfour, D. P., Glenross.
- Balfour, T. W.
- Balfour, W., Mohaka.
- Banner, H. A.
- Beamish, N. E., Okawa.
- Bell, M. S.
• Bendall, E. B., Te Mahia.
• Birch, A. S., Patea.
• Birch, W. J., Stonycroft.
• Bowerman, J. N.
• Brown, J. H., Whakakii, Wairoa.
• Campbell, H., Poukawa.
• Caro, J. S.
• Carlile, J. W.
• Carnell, S.
• Carr, J. T., Kopua.
• Carroll, T., Clyde, Wairoa.
• Chambers, J., Te Mata.
• Chambers, J., jun., Te Mata.
• Chambers, W. K., Poverty Bay.
• Coleman, J. H.
• Colenso, W.
• Colenso, R. L., England.
• Colenso, W., jun., England.
• De Lisle, F. I.
• Dennan, J. J.
• Dobson, R.
• Dolbel, P., Springfield.
• Drummond, J., Taradale.
• Gallien, H. L., Hastings.
• Gannon, M. J., Poverty Bay.
• Gilberd, H. J., Taradale.
• Glass, B., Waiau, Wairoa.
• Gollan, D.
• Gollan, K., Tarawera.
• Gosnell, Mrs. L., Wairoa.
• Gow, P., Waipukurau.
• Grant, J., Burnside, Ruataniwha.
• Hamilton, A., Petane.
• Harding, R., Mount Vernon.
• Harding, R. C.
• Hardy, S. W., Hampden.
• Heslop, W.
• Hitchings, T.
• Holder, H. R.
• Hovell, De Berdt.
• Hutchinson, M.
• Joseph, Brother.
• Kennedy, C. D.
• Kinross, J. G.
• Kirker, J.
• Knowles, E. W.
• Large, Miss L.
• Leonard, J.
• Lessong, L.
• Leyland, E., Clive.
• Livesey, J. N.
• Locke, S.
• Luff, A., Wellington.
• Mackinnon, J.
• McLean, R. D. D., Maraekakaho.
• McLean, P. S.
• Maney, R. D., Wairoa.
• Matthews, J. F.
Constitution and Rules of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute.

Constitution.

- The Institute is founded for the advancement of Science, Literature and Art, as well as for the development of the resources of the Colony.
Any person desiring to become a Member of the Institute, shall be proposed in writing by two Members, and shall be balloted for at the next meeting of the Council.

If any Member elected into the Society, shall have omitted to pay the contribution for the year, within two months after his election has been notified to him by the Secretary, his election shall be void.

The annual subscription for each Member shall be One Guinea, payable in advance on the first day of January in every year.

Any Member failing to pay his Annual Subscription for two successive years, shall thereby *ipso facto* cease to be a Member of this Society, and at the next following meeting of the Council, after the second subscription becomes due, his name shall be removed from the Roll.

Members may at any time become Life-members by one payment of Ten Pounds ten shillings in lieu of future annual subscriptions.

All sums received for Life Subscriptions shall be invested, and the interest only arising from such investments shall be applied to the uses of the Institute.

Non-residents in the Province may be elected Honorary Members by the unanimous vote of any meeting of the Society in acknowledgement of their contributions to Art, Science, or Literature in general, or to this Society in particular;—such Members to have all the privileges of Members without the payment of any fees.

Members of Societies incorporated with the New Zealand Institute when in the Province of Hawke's Bay, shall be entitled to all the privileges of Members of this Society.

One-third of the Annual Revenue of the Society shall be applied towards the formation or support of a Local Museum or Library.

An Annual General Meeting of the Members of the Society shall be held on the first Monday of February in each year, at which Meeting not less than ten Members must be present, otherwise the Meeting shall be adjourned by the Members present from time to time, until the requisite number of Members is present.

At such Annual, or adjourned Annual Meeting, a President, a Vice President, an Honorary Secretary and Treasurer, and six Members shall be elected by ballot to form a Council for the ensuing year; of which four shall form a Quorum.

Any casual vacancy that may occur during the year may be filled-up by the Council: but the Council may act whether such vacancy be filled-up or not.

At such Annual, or adjourned Annual Meeting, a Report of the proceedings of the Society for the year shall be laid before the Meeting, and also a statement of the Funds and Property of the Society, and of the Receipts and Expenditure for the year.

The Council shall have the entire conduct and management of the affairs of the Society, subject to the Resolution of any General Meeting of the Society attended by not less than ten Members.

Meetings of the Council or Society shall be called by the President, the Secretary, or upon the requisition of any five Members of the Society.

At all Meetings of the Society or Council any Resolution must be passed by a majority of the Members present,—the President or Chairman having a deliberative as well as a Casting Vote.

### Rules.

- At Ordinary Meetings of the Institute, each Member shall have the privilege of introducing two friends.
- Any Member desirous of reading a Paper shall give (in writing) to the Secretary, ten days before the Meeting at which he desires it to be read, its title, and the time its reading will occupy. The Secretary shall lay this communication before the Council at its next Meeting. Papers shall be read in such order as the Council may determine.
- If any discussion should occur after the reading of a Paper, no person shall be at liberty to address the Meeting more than once, except when called upon, through the Chairman, for explanation. The Member contributing a Paper shall have the right to reply to observations made upon it.
- Any original Paper read before the Institute and approved of by the; Council, or at a General Meeting of the Members, may be forthwith published, here, in Napier, wholly or partly at the charge of the Institute as may be found necessary for the purpose.
- The Session of the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute shall be during the winter months from May to October, both inclusive;—and Ordinary Meetings shall be held on the second Monday in each of those six months, at 7.30 p.m.

### Library.
That a Catalogue of the books belonging to the Institute be kept in the Library, in a place convenient for Reference.

That the Books be divided into two sections:—

Books of Reference.

Books of General Utility.

Books in section 1 not to be removed from the Library without special permission from the Secretary (to be given in writing), and then only if required for the purpose of preparing Lectures or Papers to be read before the Institute, or for the objects of special research. Books entered on section 2, may be borrowed on application to the Custodian by signing a receipt for the same in a book provided for the purpose.

No Book to be kept for a period exceeding 14 days. All Members taking Books from the Library shall be responsible for their safe return, or in event of damage or loss shall be liable to replace them at their own cost.

Front Cover

**Woman's Work and Destiny.**
By "Jenny Wren."

Paper Read Before the Thames Mutual Improvement Association, APRIL 7TH 1884.

*decorative feature Printed at the "Evening Star" Office Thames, N. Z. Albert Street. 1884*

Price Sixpence.

**Preface.**

**WOMAN** has been called "The helpmeet of man," "The guardian angel of the young," "The mistress of the two eternities in Heaven and Earth."

Her work, her special mission on earth, is: To redeem Man from error, to rescue him from social and moral degradation and suffering, and to train her children in the ways of Truth, Peace, and Purity; to elevate the mind of Man, and to aid him in the work of social regeneration and progress, by the power of her devoted, loving nature in the peculiar relationships of her sex.

Thus, by the faithful fulfilment of her mission, she is destined to become the saviour of her children's happiness; the equal and co-worker with Man in the field of Progress and Reform; and the chief Architect, under God, of the beautiful Kingdom of Peace and Love, which He has promised to establish among men.

These are the ideas I have feebly striven to follow out in this paper, showing, under the guise of a personal vision, or dream the principles of

"**WOMAN'S WORK AND DESTINY.**"

Jenny Wren.

**Woman's Work and Destiny.**

BY "Jenny Wren."

*Paper read before the Thames Mutual Improvement Association, April 7th, 1884.*

It was the close of a hot summer's day, just when the crimson hints of sunset were softly fading from the western sky, and the grateful shades of evening gently falling over the weary world of labor, that I sat me down beneath a spreading tree, to rest, and think awhile. For I, too, was weary, and more than that, dependent; for it seemed to me that life was full of fruitless labor; that those who scattered the precious seed very seldom gathered the harvest thereof; that the ways of the world were hard, and unjust; and that after all our boasted civilization and advancement, we had indeed very little to glory in; for in days of old, "Might was right;" and, now, what bettered are we? for in our day, "Wealth is power," and a man is honored more for what he has, than for what he does. I thought of florae old lines I had seen somewhere, and to me they seemed to express a truth which we see daily enacted in Society—

"In ages back
When the nobility wore formed of those
By fortune favored and in valor famed,
There also then, lived the same benefit
For those born lowlier, who in their, lives
Had greatness shown in word and gon'rous deed;
But from this height the world hath fallen now
And moots her largess with unequal hand,
She gives to those who have, not those who want
Or are deserving, and the great in wealth
Grow from their gold to be the great in name."

And as I thought of this, my heart grew sad, for I had children growing up around me, and it seemed to me that the future held forth little hope for their welfare or advancement.

The question of the age,—the mighty problem that engrosses the attention of the laboring-classes at the present time,—had seized upon my mind, and I longed to enlist in the struggle of the producer, as he strives to obtain the just return of his labor. I felt my pulse beat high with hope that perchance even yet the right would prove victorious, and Land and Labor shake themselves free from the bondage of Wealth and Power.

Put the very thought produced a pang, for after all, What was I?—only a woman! What could I accomplish? "'Tis for men to work, and women to weep," says the poet.

To what purpose was my life, with its ceaseless round of care and toil? I was powerless to perform any of the noble deeds of which I fondly dreamed; so presently I ceased to question or perplex my mind with tiresome problems, but submitting to the soothing influence of that quiet hour, I fell asleep. . . . And then there came to me a dream that surely had much of reality in its vivid representations, as it taught my troubled spirit to review the past, with its follies and failures, and look onward to the future, with its responsibilities and sacred obligations to God and Man.

I thought I stood upon the summit of a lofty mountain: the world beneath me looked exceeding fair,—so beautiful, indeed was the prospect, that my heart bounded with uncontrollable delight as I exclaimed, "Oh! beautiful, beautiful, world; fitting home for the children of Him who once looked upon the work of His hands and saw that it was good!"

I seemed to be gifted with a great expanse of vision, being able to look at once upon the fertile valleys, verdant slopes, and shady woodlands, and upon the busy, thickly-peopled towns, when Man’s skilful labor converted the products of Nature into the material comforts, or costly luxuries, which his daily need demanded. And as I gazed, I grew perplexed, for here a strange problem presented itself to my mind.

On every hand were displayed the evidences of Nature’s beneficence to Man. As far as the eye could reach her treasures were enfolded to my enraptured view, in a perfect panorama of wealth and beauty, until deep in my own heart were echoed the sentiments of the poet, as he exclaimed—

"The leaf tongues of the forest, the flowrets of the sod,
The little birds that hymn their rapture in the car of God,
The summer wind that bringeth music over land and sea,
Have each a voice that singeth this sweet song of songs to me
This world is full of beauty as unseen worlds above,
And if we do our duty, it may be full of love."

—Gerald Massey

The golden grain was waving in the sunlight as the reape prepared to gather in its rich harvest; the laden trees bending to earth the burden of their luscious fruits; the hill-sides were dotted with flocks of fleecy sheep, suggestive of and raiment for the use of man; and the lowing of the kin sounded pleasantly in my ears from the pastures in the valley. around were displayed the evidences of the All-Father’s careful provision for His children’s need, and yet, What is that sound from yonder busy city?—a sound that contrasts strangely with the pleasant scenes of Nature’s amply-stocked provision ground; an exceeding great and bitter cry, that neither the ceaseless clash and clatter of commercial industry, nor the merry laughter and joyous song of the wealthy and prosperous, can drown or palliate. "Tis the moan of the great mass of humanity; the protest of the producers of all Earth’s natural products against the bitter portion of misery and want allotted to them as the requital of their life-long toil.

"Why, oh! why is this?" I cried. "Why do those lack and suffer hunger, while Nature’s storehouses are running over with goodly fruit?"
Even as I spoke, a voice that seemed to wake the echoes, replied, "'Tis because Man has forgotten his sonship to God, and his kinship to Man; because Woman has failed to accomplish her work in the world, to fulfil her destiny as Man's helpmeet and co-worker in society: how is Man fallen from his high estate! selling his birthright for a mess of pottage! Wealth, instead of Love, rules the world, and Woman hides her aching heart beneath a silken robe, content to suffer thus at the hands of him she fondly calls 'her hero.' The heritage of her children is bought and sold ruthlessly before her eyes, and she raises no protest. Wealth shall atone for every lack of sacred duty, and Wisdom is not justified of her children!"

I turned to look upon my accuser, and beheld a lovely being, whose face, though at first stern and reproachful, anon beamed with compassionate love, as she gazed upon a world of sin and sorrow. Greatly wondering at this strange visitant, I cried out, "Who art thou? whence comest thou?"

"My name is Thought," she replied, "I am a messenger from the King's palace of Eternal Wisdom, sent hither to show thee thy mission, to comfort thee concerning thy brother, and teach thee how to accomplish his deliverance."

"But," I exclaimed, in troubled tones, "you speak hard things; how can Woman be responsible for this evil that is abroad in the world? and how can Woman's feeble intellect grasp or solve the weighty matters that, have so long perplexed the mind of the superior creature, Man?"

"In the world from which I come, there is no inequality of the sexes," answered my strange instructor; "neither should it be so here, as one of your own authors John Stuart Mill, has truly bid, 'The principle which regulates the existing social relations between the two sexes—the legal subordination of one sex to another—is wrong in itself, and now one of the chief hindrances to human improvement, and this ought to be replaced by a prin- ciple of perfect equality, admitting no power or privilege on the one side, nor disability on the other.' Neither do we allow that Man's intellect is so immeasurably superior to that of Woman; she was created by the Divine Power to be the helpmeet of Man, his friend, companion, and co-worker. Such was the design of the All-Father, but Woman has mistaken her mission. Hitherto she has taught her sons to regard themselves as superior beings, gifted with higher intellectual power and moral strength than Woman: she has established a form of hero-worship in society, whereby Man has been placed in a false position, and learned to regard Woman, either as a frivolous toy, whose beauty charms his eye, and whose accomplishments grace his home, and gratify his love of pleasure; or, as a kind of household necessity, a living machine of whom the whole economy of the home depends, and little thought of, or appreciated, except as she ministers to man's comfort—sharing his trials and joys may be, but not expected to take an interest in his higher, nobler pursuits; not recognised as his equal and co-worker in the busy social world, where man's strong hand and fertile brain the fruits of land and labor claim. Her daughters have been taught to regard themselves as vastly; Man's inferior in intellectual ability, therefore they have seldom striven to excel in those higher branches of wisdom which have been regarded as Man's special province. Receiving (as a general rule) a higher superficial education, Woman has remained [unclear: unfitted] for a higher sphere of labor, and contenting herself with homely duties or pleasures, or indulging in the foolish frivolities of fashionable society, she has neglected, or fallen short of, the higher, nobler destiny she was appointed to fulfil. 'Tis true there have been noble, gifted exceptions to the rule, women who have overcome every difficulty, and attained a high position among the learned thinkers, or philanthropic workers of our day. Women who have set their mark upon the time in which they lived, and accomplished much to aid their brethren in the struggle of social reform. But these have been comparatively few, bright examples of what woman's loving nature and gifted mind could accomplish when every talent was devoted to the cause of Truth and Charity."

I bowed my head in sorrowful acquiescence, for I felt the truth of the declaration, but my strange friend gave me a look of such re-assuring tenderness, as she continued, "Be not discouraged come with me, and I will show thee the work that has been [unclear: given] thee to do, that thou mayest fulfil thy glorious destiny, and prove thyself the saviour of thy children's happiness;" that I rose and followed her, with hope rekindled in my stricken soul, as she led me to a still higher range of vision.

I looked down upon a vast plain, bounded on either side by long ranges of dreary hills, while far away towards the east, lay a great and beautiful city, beyond which could be discerned nothing but a wide expanse of ocean. Beautiful appeared the reflection of the setting sun upon the white towers and turrets of the distant city, peacefully the shadows fell over hill and plain, while all around seemed hushed in Nature's softest lullaby of tranquil serenity. "Watch!" cried my guide, and to my surprise the scene slowly changed.

'Twas morning: faint and dim at first the light appeared on the distant horizon, but as it strengthened, I saw that far away on the calm surface of yonder ocean a great fleet of vessels were preparing for action, and presently the silence of the morning hour was broken by the heavy boom of distant guns. Nearer they came, nearer, nearer, until the whole valley and mountain sides reverberated to the terrific thunder of the bombardment, that would speedily reduce the beautiful city to a heap of smoking ruins.

I looked again, and lo! the plain was covered with lines of troops, whose bayonets flashed in the morning
sunshine with a deadly lustre, as they answered to the bugle-call to battle and to death. Then ensued a dreadful scene; on, on, they came, with all the awful machinery of War, sweeping that lovely plain, where Nature had so lately smiled in benificent beauty; until the green earth was strewn with the wounded and the dying, slain by the command of their brother, Man. Then to my woe-struck ears was borne the sound of bitter weeping, the cry of the widow and the orphan, the lament of an over-taxed people, protesting against the demands made upon them for the support of this warfare,—the pleading of the famine-famished for the restoration of the stalwart sons of the soil who had fallen in battle—the exceeding bitter cry of the prisoners of war, and their desolate kindred, upon whose innocent hearts and happy homes had fallen this withering blast of sorrow.

"Why, oh, why is this?" I cried in an agony of questioning grief.

The voice replied, in saddened tones, "Thou knowest, oh, woman! Doth not thy voice raise the victor, returning triumphant from the field with hands red in the blood of his brother? Doth not thy heart rejoice at the acquisition of wealth, fame, or position, gained thus by thy sons or brothers? This is but the price paid for thy hero-worship, that thou teachest the prattling boy at thy knee, telling him of the glories of the blood-stained victor, the prowess and chivalry of the valiant knights of old. For this a queenly woman will descend from her throne to adorn the breast of the conqueror with medal or star, and bestow upon him titles, wealth, and royal favor, while thousands shout his praises, and rejoice over the added spoil. Say, is it tot so?"

I hid my face from her searching gaze, as I replied, "This is too awful! But canst thou show me the remedy?"

"Thou boldest it in thine hand," she replied pityingly, "to Woman is committed the sacred trust of saving Man from himself. This is thy glorious destiny, to be the saviour of the body, even as One who was born of woman is the Saviour of the soul. Teach man this great, seemingly forgotten truth. 'That God is our Father, and all men are brethren.' Behold he is in thine hand: to thee is committed a work that angels might envy—the training and culture of the tender bud fresh from the hand of the Creator, the development of the mind and character of the future Man. 'Suffer little children to come unto me,' said Jesus; and I repeat, let them come; bring them away from the sphere of ignorance, animalism, selfishness, antagonism, and universal war, in which they are now growing up, and lead them through the delightful paths of ethical education to the perfect manhood of love, duty, and happiness. Yes! if there is ever to be a moral revolution in Society—if wrong is to be righted, truth asserted and maintained, and the reign of Peace and Love inaugurated among the children of men, the work must commence here, at the fountain-head of all social and moral good; even as the mighty river has its source in the gurgling brooklet on the mountain side."

"Ah me!" I cried, "tis a great and mighty task, who is sufficient for these thing? and how are they to be accomplished?"

"There has been thine error hitherto," answered my gentle teacher, "not by clamoring for certain privileges which woman calls 'her rights;' not by sacrificing every tender interest of home and family, and thus blunting the most lovely attributes of true womanhood, and indulging in vain excitement or idle display, is thy work to be accomplished, but in the home by the fireside, among the young hearts and minds that expand like opening flowers under thy tender influence and careful training; here is the grand standpoint of Woman's greatness the secret of her powerful agency for good. Has it not been truly asserted, 'she who rocks the cradle rules the world!' [unclear: The] Woman is committed the sacred trust of developing the tender germ of the Divine nature that is implanted in each human soul, of cherishing the fragile blossoms of virtue, and tending the growing plants in the Master's vineyard. See to it therefore, that thou art faithful to thy trust. Dost thou lack wisdom? seek it at the fountain-head of all knowledge, and He who hath said, 'Ask, and ye shall receive!' will give thee power, patience, and prosperity in this thine appointed work. Only thus canst [unclear: those] accomplish thy mission: by keeping thine own soul in an atmosphere of peace, love, and truth; by constant communion with the eternal heart of Love; by drinking in deep draughts of truth and wisdom from the eternal fountain of Light and Love, and thus learning for thyself the great lessons which Christ came [unclear: to] teach, lived to exemplify, and died to defend—universal love [unclear: to] God the Father of all, and universal kinship and loving sympathy toward all mankind.—There is an education of the mind, that tends to beautify and elevate the life that now is, and enables, thee to compass and unravel the mysteries of earth's geological and evolutionary development, or span the heavens by the mighty power of thought, and search out the hidden beauties of God's eternal plan of glorious, harmonious wisdom. How wonderfully each planet fulfils its appointed destiny in the measureless realms of sublime beauty! How complete is the glorious universe of creation! No gap, no blank is there; no blemish to mar the perfect beauty of the whole. All is perfect harmony and peace. Why, then, should'st thou fail to fulfill thy destiny? to accomplish thy appointed task? He whose mighty power rules the eternal and infinite, will also demand of thee the same conformity of beauty, the same harmony of perfection. And this thou canst only obtain by that higher, nobler education of soul, that should lead thee upward, onward, to higher spheres than these, and enable thee to emulate the mind and spirit of Him whose life on earth was one bright lesson and example of perfect love and purity. A purity that could not tolerate iniquity or injustice to the poor
and helpless, ignorant and oppressed, whom He came to deliver from the bondage of error, and priestly power, a love that compassed the whole human family with its golden chain, and knit the hearts of men by the mighty power of sympathy, breathing new hopes, inspiring nobler desires, establishing a new system of ethics, whereby Man should learn to live, not merely exist; but live for love and duty. These two combined, shall work out all thy need, and develop all thy slumbering powers, making thee a mighty agent for Progress and Reform, a co-worker with God and Man for the salvation of thy children. Go forth now, while the fields are white unto harvest, prove thyself worthy of thy glorious destiny, and raise up to thyself sons of Peace and Purity. Fear not to enter upon the struggle, to engage in the conflict, for surely thou shalt prevail, in the strength of Him who has said, 'O, woman, great is thy faith, be it unto thee even as thou wilt.' Deck thyself in thy beautiful garments of love and fealty, and go forth in the power of thy maternal influence, to raise and rescue man from the effects of his own error, taking for thy battle-cry such words as these,

"I come, the dawn of higher life,
An angel-goddess, yet a wife,
Come to lead on the eternal years,
In which are banished death and fears,
When joy and love shall reign at last,
And Wealth's cruel tyranny be past."

The gentle, earnest voice ceased, and when I raised my head my instructor had vanished, and I was alone. Yet her words still rang in my ears, and I looked fearfully towards the plain, where I had witnessed such scenes of carnage, and, lo! it was a dream; and I saw only the peaceful garden, the quiet landscape, upon which the silvery moonbeams were shedding their soft, hazy, light, and the evening air breathing sweet restfulness from the labors of the day. Then I thanked God and took courage, because I could no longer slight the privileges of my position, as woman, wife, and mother; and because I thus understood the sacred relations of woman, morally and socially, to her companion in life's arena of labor, thought, and progress—Man. No longer saddened by the shadow of supposed inequality and disability, my spirit rose to the comprehension of the Divine plan that had ordained man and woman to be complimentary beings; the one incomplete without the other, the twain merging together into perfect strength and beauty, love and power. Truly, Woman has failed hitherto to take her tree place as Man's co-worker in the great task of regenerating society; but this has been partly owing to the Man's depreciation of her intellectual ability, and her own timidity and false estimation of her God-vested power, as the framer, builder, and skillful moulder of the human character. But the time has come for her to awake to a sense of her responsibility as Man's help-meet and co-worker, and concentrate all her energies in the furtherance of the work he has begun in the wide and noble field of Social Reform.

It, may be asked here, "How is Woman to do this?" "In what way can she assist Man in this mighty work?"

The reply is: By so training sons, and educating her daughters, as to promote the future welfare and happiness of both sexes. By granting to both equal privileges and opportunities of culture, and thus disregarding the idea of inequality or disability, build up the beautiful fabric of "Woman's Kingdom," without intruding upon the special sphere of Man's physical or intellectual world. What says an able writer, Dr Buchanan, on this subject? "The world's welfare demands that Woman should be educated. First, she should have the industrial education to make her independent and strong in herself; secondly, she should have the broadest and deepest psycho-physiological education to qualify her for her grand position as the mistress of two eternities in earth and heaven. But before this can be done we need an immense purification of the moral atmosphere. We need that enlightened purification of soul which is obtained by the experience of maternity, in the study of the healing art in the temple of anatomy, in the studies of the highest arts—that purity which is found in the experienced mother, the faithful physician, the inspired artist, and which is found in the highest perfection in the angels of the highest heavens, who know nothing of impurity should be diffused in the public mind by religious, artistic, and anatomical education, until the highest functions of life, which link mortal clay with divine wisdom, may be studied by all as the chart of our voyage from social degredation to the heavenly life on earth. It is for this true fulfilment of her proper destiny that Woman should be educated. Justice demands it, common sense demands it, science, philosophy, and liberty demand it, the true spirit of religion demands it—the voice of Him who died on Calvary still demands that love shall rule the world, and children shall be reared for Heaven."

Thus educated, Woman will be able to take her stand as Man's equal and co-worker. Man being sustained by her faithful, loving counsel, and children wisely trained for future labour in the world's great field of progress by her earnest zeal and powerful influence. Education is opening the eyes of the people to a knowledge of their social needs, wrongs, and just claims, but the work of progress seems slow; the wheels of
social reform move tardily towards the desired goal.

It remains for Woman to exert all her influence, to arise in all her power of patient, loving zeal for those who are near and dear to her. Love must be the keystone of effort, pure and tender feeling the parent of deep, earnest, thought, and thus will she be enabled to solve the problems that are now engaging the attention of all philanthropic thinkers. Not for herself alone; no, there is a mightier incentive than mere self-interest needed to arouse all the latent fire in Woman's sensitive organism, and enlist her sympathies in this cause. The children are growing up around us on every hand; the darlings of our hearts and homes are slipping away from our tender care out upon the arena of life's toil and conflict. And what for them will be the issue of the struggle? What position will they occupy, and how will they maintain it?

In this beautiful land of ours we have not as yet to mourn over the hapless fate of the young children, whose earliest years know no childish joys, who are doomed to labour amid poverty and sorrow, for whom there is no sweet summer sunshine, green meadows or fragrant flowers, of whom one of our most beautiful poets speaks in tender pleading on their behalf—

"The young, young children, O my brothers,
They are weeping bitterly;
They are weeping in the playtime of the others,
In the country of the free.
'For, oh!' say the children, 'We are weary.
And we cannot run or leap;
If we cared for any meadows, it wore merely
To drop down in them and sleep;
For all day we drag our burden tiring,
Through the coal-dark under-ground;
Or all day we drive the wheels of iron,
In the factories, round and round!"

This was the sad heart-rending cry of hundreds of little children in the manufacturing towns, collieries, and also the agricultural districts of England, as testified by Sir George Grey's letter on "The Agricultural Laborer," lately published in an Auckland paper, in which he shows the heinous oppression of the children by the labor gangers in the country districts of the old country. Children's labor is now forbidden till they have attained their twelfth year, but that there is still enough of wretchedness among the young workers in the busy hive of labor is proved by the following extract, from the first annual report of Lawrence T. Felley, Inspector of Child Labor in New Jersey, that has just been printed:—"He found everywhere that the child-labor system had left indelible traces of mental and physical degeneration, as it is bound to do, in the care-worn children with dwarfed bodies. He saw countless young women who were physical wrecks from being employed at an early age for long hours amid machinery. The illiteracy of children whom he met in factories was shocking. Many of them had never been to school at all. Child-labor has increased in much greater ratio than adult labor has, and the increase has been at the expense of the latter, as it has decreased the wages of parents and adults. In many cases the wages have been so reduced that parents were forced to call upon their children to help to maintain their homes." Here is one of the sad consequences of concentrated Wealth, that holds Labour captive at her will, and while she gathers the rich products of industry into golden, gleaming heaps, reduces the value of labour to such a low minimum that the very children must needs contribute their mite to the earnings of their parents.

Not yet have we to suffer thus, but if we would avert such a direful consequence, and rescue the generations yet unborn from the crushing power of Wealth; we must impart in the minds of our children the priceless principles that shall secure their prosperity and happiness.

"Therefore, though few may praise, or help, or heed us,
Let us work on with head, or heart, or hand,
For that we know the future ages need us,
And we must help our time to take its stand."

—R. VAUGHIN

Wealth oppresses and depresses on every hand. The Land, with its untold resources, is slipping from the grasp of the people into the hands of capitalists, whose aim will eventually be to reduce the value of Labor, in proportion to the increased value of landed property; thereby causing the repetition of the old, sad story,
Poverty in the midst of Plenty; sorrow, suffering, and crime as the fruits of Wealth and Oppression. And is there none to deliver? none to lift the glorious banner of Liberty, and lead the mighty army of toiling producers on, toward the light that is slowly dawning on the horizon—the day-star of Emancipation from the bondage of Wealth, and universal freedom of Land and Labor?

Man has striven long and earnestly; brave, noble souls have taken up the work of Social Reform, but they have not been able to cope with the difficulties in the way, their most strenuous efforts have failed to produce the desired result. They need Woman's assistance and devotion to the cause; they need Woman's powerful influence and patient zeal, to help and carry forward the good work they have begun. Now then, while the fields are "white unto harvest," let us prove to Man that we are his equal, that in this work we will prove ourselves his co-workers and faithful allies! To do this we must lay aside every weight, shake off every frivolity, and allow deep and earnest "Thought," that mighty power that moves the destiny of nations, to control our hearts and minds, until we can solve for ourselves the problem of "Poverty in the midst of Plenty," and become thus enabled to promote the noble measures of Reform that shall stir the souls of the people to their very-depths.

With all our soul moved by the gracious influences of Love and Duty, let us think upon these things, and thus, as Mrs Browning says so beautifully—

"With reachings of Thought we roach down to the deeps
Of the souls of our brothers.
We teach them full words with our slow-moving lips,
'God,' 'Liberty,' 'Truth:' which they harken, and think,
And work into harmony, link upon link."

Freedom of Land and Labor must become every-day, household topics. The children will thus often become the auditors of deep and stirring argument, their enquiring minds will take hold of the question, and come to "Mother" to answer it; and thus slowly and surely, the work will progress, unostentatiously, but clearly and fully the matter will be brought to light, and presently there will spring up a different class of thinkers, and Society will necessarily be cast in a new mould of opinion on these vital subjects. Out into the world will pass our sons, carrying with them the principles instilled into their minds while under our daily influence. Into the workshop, into the fields, abroad in the noble forest, and in the busy centres of civilization and labor, will these truths be scattered, until the seed sown shall take deep root, and bring forth a plentiful harvest of blessing.

To give a child Henry George's book, and bid him read it, would be little use, unless we were able to explain its problems, and answer all the questions that might arise in his mind. The youth would pronounce it "dry," and "unattractive," but if "by careful study of the Social Question, we could grasp the truth of the author's assertions, and catch the spirit of his endeavour to enralvel the tangled skein of our social condition, we might hope so to influence his mind as to induce him to consider step by step the mighty truths of "Progress and Poverty."

"Mother," said a little schoolboy one day, "Who does all the world belong to?"

His mother was silent a moment, then answered, "To God, my son; He made it and placed man in it, with everything he needed to make him happy."

The child looked up, and replied, "Then why does my father have to pay rent?"

Ah! why? Because Man has hitherto proved himself an "unjust steward" of the Father's bounty, and forgotten two of the most notable declarations of His will,—"Behold! I have given thee the land for an heritage;" and, "The laborer is worthy of his hire," Does not Nature herself teach the glorious truth, that "the earth is the Lord's, and the fulness thereof?" and hath not the all-loving Father provided most plentifully for the wants of all His children? 'Tis not God, but Man, who-withholds from the producer the fruit of his labor, and produces poverty, suffering, and crime, as the result of selfish accumulation and hoarded wealth. 'Tis not our loving Father, but our cruel brethren, who command the wholesale slaughter and carnage of warfare, with all its attendant ills. Oh, my brothers! let us ask ourselves this momentous question, in the midst of our boasted civilization and advancement: 'Is Christ or Moloch the ruler of modern society? Are the men of Christendom ever to live as jealous banditti, with one hand grasping the sword, the knife, or the gun, to the neglect of every righteous duty—and the toilers of Christendom ever to be robbed of all that would enable them to escape poverty and beggary, aye, and even of the amount that would save them from dying of famine?" Surely it were a mistake to tell "our boys" bright stories of England's greatness, of her prowess in war, her boundless wealth, her blood-stained heroes, her vast possessions? Rather let us tell them of the direful evils of war, the misery, famine, and sorrow it entails upon the people; let us show them the poverty and crime caused by concentrated wealth, by private property in land, and the inequitable exchange of labor. Let us strive to lay bare the hideous "glories" of the past, and boast not to our sons of that greatness that has cost such a fearful price. Let us show as
clearly as possible to these enquiring minds, the truth so beautifully expressed by him whom the children loved-

"Were half the power that fills the world with terror,
Were half the wealth bestowed on camps and courts,
Given to redeem the human mind from error,
There were no need for arsenals and forts."

—LONGFELLOW.

Let us strive to instil into their young hearts the sublime truth that God is our Father, and all men are brethren: pointing out to them the great and crying evil of warfare, the heinous crime of "man hiring man to slay his brother." Let us show them the evils that are rampant in society, and teach them to shun them, and lend all their energies to their subjection: Crime of all shades—drink, with its hideous train of horrible consequences; gambling, with all its attendant results of robbery and fraud, and the thousand other wrongs which are but the various branches of that deadly up as tree, the tendrils of which are twining themselves round the hearts and homes of the people, and making their lives one weary round of misery and sin; poverty, the source of so much sorrow, the parent of so much crime, the hindrance to moral and intellectual advancement, the bitter fruit of concentrated wealth, the production of the iniquitous system of private property in land, and the subjugation of labor to the bondage of capital. Let us teach them the true dignity of Labor, the honor and glory of a life devoted to the furtherance of the happiness of the universal family of our Father, the high and noble privilege of fulfilling the Divine command, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself;" and thus let us strive to lead them on in the pursuit of higher, nobler aims than vain, worldly distinctions or selfish aggrandisement.

So, by judicious home-training, let us strive to produce our ideal, perfect manhood—not weak hirelings of wealth, nor self-opiniated despots; but strong, true-hearted men, who shall rise up to fill their places in society, and carry forward the noble work of Social Reform: True, noble-hearted statesmen; faithful, honest representatives—innocent, earnest-minded citizens, who will not stoop to sell their votes to the highest bidder, but will prove themselves true men in the interest of their country and the people's weal. Then will arise strong, heroic minds, who shall be able to overcome all obstacles—pressing forward, upward, onward, climbing step by step the golden-runged ladder of Progress, bearing aloft their streaming banner, "Exclusior," until its highest step be gained, and society becomes free from the thraldom of Wealth, and the producer no longer grovels in the dust of poverty. Then will the sons of freedom appreciate, honor, and bless the faithful devotedness of their intellectual, truth-seeking mothers, and Woman will assuredly rise to her true position, her rightful recognition as Man's equal and co-worker.

Thus shall we have accomplished our allotted task in God's great plan, and fulfilled our mission to our brother Man. Oh, the joy of it! oh, the blessing of it! to see our sons forsake the errors of their ancestors, and follow the glorious teachings of Him who said, "Seek ye the truth, and the truth shall make you free." To know that henceforth all true, honest labor shall receive its equitable reward—all faithful disinterested service for the public weal, its loyal recognition and recompense; that no longer shall our country groan under a burden of taxation grievous to be borne and iniquitous in its exaction—but that the days of moral slavery are ended, and the peace and prosperity of future generations secured and attested. Thus shall Man rise to a higher level of intellectual and moral power; Art, Science, and Literature shall receive full recognition and universal appreciation, and the spirit of true religion, purity of thought, and equity of life promote the peace and happiness of the entire human family. Is it not worth a struggle? Let us forget the trivial enjoyment of Fashion and Pleasure, and grasping the silver flagon of Knowledge drink again and again from the crystal fount of true Wisdom, until we are able to work out our own salvation by leading our loved ones into the ways of Peace and Plenty.

"So others shall
Take patience, labor, to their heart and hand,
From our hands, our hearts, and our brave cheer,
And God's grace fructify through us to all."

—BROWNING.

Glad shall be the Divine recognition—glorious the recompense of the reward—when having patiently labored for, and diligently attained unto, the very height of our soul's ambition, we shall hear the commendation of the Great Master:
I have been invited to deliver a lecture on the subject of a State Bank of Issue, and have much pleasure in complying with the request. The subject is important at all times, but more especially in a time of depression such as we are now labouring under. It has been a long continued state of depression, lasting now for five years with slight variations, and this leads every thoughtful man to investigate the cause in order to provide a remedy. Various theories have been propounded, and it is probable that each of the causes assigned has had something to do with the present untoward state of affairs. Over importation, speculation in land with borrowed capital, low prices for grain and wool, personal and colonial extravagance, have all titter their share as factors in producing our unhealthy state. A general want of confidence has also been mentioned. We may trace the tap-root of the evil in the panic which ensued on the failure of the City of Glasgow Bank in 1878. In this panic confidence for the time was totally destroyed. A panic is the result of an unreasoning fear in the way of self-preservation. The merchant rushes to his banker with bills to provide funds for the dreaded scarcity; the banker, afraid of his own position, refuses discounts, and even withholding the continuance of the accommodation he had previously granted; business and enterprise are checked; men of wealth cannot obtain money at any cost; solvent men are involved in bankruptcy and ruin; and the result is a total prostration of trade. In the panic of 1847 banks in England boarded £4,000,000. The contraction of the usual circulation there produced disastrous effects, now a matter of history. This was exactly what took place in the colony in 1879. The banks, panic stricken and afraid of their standing in London, immediately proceeded to fortify themselves by calling in advances. In two years, from 1879 to 1881, discounts were reduced millions, and other debts half a million, being in all a reduction of three millions, nearly one half of the whole discounts. In 1879 the discounts amounted to 6¾ millions; in 1881 to 4¾ millions. In 1879 the total discounts and advances amounted to 14 millions; in 1881 to 11 millions. This led to a derangement and contraction of the ordinary circulation. In 1879 the note circulation amounted to £1,028,525; in 1880 to £907,084, a contraction of £100,000, or one tenth of the whole. This could not happen without serious mischief to everybody. Profits were restricted; labour was unemployed; property became depreciated; the savings of years disappeared. There was no elasticity in the money market; no demand for houses or land. Property was unrealisable even at a sacrifice. Mortgagors in numerous instances were in default. The help of the registrar was called in and valuable properties sold far below value—for what they would bring. In the restricted and defective circulation we thus see the main cause of the pressure which has existed. Relieve the defect and confidence is restored, trade resumes its wonted channels, men of enterprise can rely on funds being available to carry out their plans—prosperity ensues. In England when, by the Act of 1844, the bank is in such a position owing to an outflow of gold that it cannot issue notes, the Government interferes and authorises additional issues contrary to the law. Immediately hoarding ceases, confidence is at once restored, and the panic passes away. Here we have no such safety-valve. The banks continue under the fatal influence of fear until depression becomes chronic and ordinary business is limited. In 1881 one foreign bank had half a million of deposits unemployed. We have laboured under the trouble of defective circulation for five years.

On March 31

If our circulation had been in a healthy state it would have increased in five years in correspondence with our increase of population and production by at least £250,000. In 1865 it amounted to £661,735; then came five years pan, teamed the dark apes of N.Z., and in 1870 it only stood at £611,185. In five years after, in 1875, it had with our prosperity advanced to £895,518; and in 1879 it reached a million. In 1879 the population numbered 463,729; in 1882, 517,507. The increase of population in three years was 11 percent. The circulation should have been £1,110,000, but it was actually only £907,084, a decrease of 21 per cent. below the normal level. Take exports as a test of production. In 1879 the value of exports was £5,743,126; in 1882 £6,658,698—an increase of exports in three years of 15 per cent.; and there is a decrease of circulation at the
rate of five per cent., which brings the total decrease below the normal level according to value of exports 20 per cent. Take another test—that of the ordinary revenue, excluding territorial. The total in 1879 was £2,816,244; in 1882, £3,408,351—an increase of 20 per cent.; but there was a decrease of circulation of 5 per cent., and it was therefore 25 per cent, below its normal level. Economists recognise two classes of money:—1. Money current with the merchant, such as foreign exchanges, with which we have no concern. 2. Tribute money, or the internal circulation of a country with which tribute or taxes are paid, wages paid, and all the domestic transactions of the country carried on. It stands to reason that the amount of domestic currency must always be regulated in some degree by the amount of revenue drawn by the Government. If our internal currency has not expanded with the increase of tribute it follows that a still greater proportion of the money in the hands of the people will be withdrawn from its ordinary use, and great inconvenience will be the result of this abnormal condition of affairs. This is precisely the state in which the people of New Zealand have been placed. They have had two drawbacks to contend against, operating conjointly to their serious disadvantage:—(1). A contraction of the usual circulation by the banks. (2). Increased demands for taxes on the part of the State, still further lessening the amount in circulation. If you have followed me, you will agree with me in thinking that our continued depression is the result of a deficiency in the circulating medium. The body politic requires a certain amount and activity of circulation to be kept in health, just as our natural bodies require proper quantity of the vital fluid to be maintained in vigour. We know the miserable condition we fall into in our frames if the circulation be defective, and I am fully satisfied our present commercial depression is mainly to be attributed to

Defective Circulation.

The banks in this colony having the domestic circulation entirely under their control are responsible for the situation in which we are placed. Actuated by fear, they restricted accommodation, with the usual results following a short-sighted course. They precipitated a lowering of values, and in consequence they have been obliged to make large advances in the way of dead loans to avert loss to themselves in the depreciation of their securities. I know one instance where a bank has had to take over a run at £82,000 to save itself, and I believe the greater part of recent advances by the banks have been so applied. This is not legitimate banking, and is of no service to the commerce of the country. I have already said the amount of discounts in 1879 was £6,725,726. A reduction of discounts took place in two years of 2½ millions. For the year ending March 31st, 1884, the amount was only £4,444,299, being 2½ millions below what was found necessary in 1879. The disease under which we labour being defective circulation, the remedy is obvious: there must be an increase in the circulation. This is the proved remedy in the case of commercial panics in England. An able writer on banking and finance says:—"It must be kept in mind that notes possess value as being the representatives of material wealth: and at such time as we have described (that of a panic) note issues should be based, not upon gold, but upon material wealth itself. How-can this be effected? We think in the following manner: That, on the Bank of England rate for money rising to 7 per cent., every joint stock bank should be permitted, on depositing with the Government a preferential bond on a fixed amount of its uncalled-up capital, to issue notes to that amount; that these notes shall be so issued until the bank rate falls to 4 per cent., when these special issues shall cease, and the amount be repaid by the various banks to the Government within three months afterwards. That these notes shall be issued only at the Bank of England, and bear the name of the bank on whose behalf they are given out; that they shall be issued for so small a sum as £1; that the bank issuing shall be liable for converting them into gold; that the Government shall charge a small commission on the total amount of such notes issued by each bank; and that private bankers depositing deeds of real property shall also possess this privilege. Panic or pressure could not then continue, for this general issue would at once relieve the circulation; such a note issue would have a real as well as a preferential value, being guaranteed by the banks' shareholders, and their property the base on which it would securely rest." All experience proves that if the circulation can be relieved by an additional issue the evils of a panic are quickly alleviated. We now arrive at the important question: How is this relief to be attained here? From the history of the "wretched past" we know that we cannot trust our existing banking institutions. With one or two exceptions, they are not native-born, or indigenous to the soil. They are branches of foreign companies, settled here to make the best of the colony as a happy hunting ground, without any sympathy for us, or our trade, or our enterprise, or our local institutions. There are not even local directors to whom application can be made in an emergency. The local managers may be kindly genial men, but they are under the control of an invisible inspector, who again is guided by policy prescribed by gentlemen thousands of miles away, who often are incapable, from ignorance, of judging the best course for either themselves or the public. It appears to me to be an act of monstrous folly to commit the control of our national life-blood to such parties, who if their bank is safe do not care whether we are depleted to death or not. The issue of and control over our paper currency has been quietly seized by them, and made the best of, not for our advantage, but their
own. This is contrary to all sound policy.

The Right of Issuing Money Belongs to the State.

In constitutional law the right of coining has always been held to be one of the peculiar prerogatives of the Crown, and it is a maxim of the civil law that monetandi jus principus ossibus inheret (the right of issuing money is an essential of the Government). The late Professor Jevons in his admirable work on "Money" (p. 308), says:—"As to the right to issue promises, it no more exists than the right to establish private mints. For our present purposes that alone is right which the legislature declares to be expedient to the community at large. As almost every one has long agreed to place the coinage of money in the hands of the executive Government, so I believe the issue of paper representative money should continue to be practically in the hands of the Government, or its agents acting under the strictest legislative control. M. Wolowski in his admirable work on banking has maintained that the issue of notes is a function distinct from the ordinary operations of a banker; and Mr Gladstone has allowed that the distinction is a wholesome and vital one." He also says (p. 341):—"We must deal with the paper currency in an analogous manner, and regulate it both more and less than hitherto. Private issues should disappear like private mints, and each kingdom should have one uniform paper circulation, issued from a single central State department, more resembling a mint than a bank." In the debate in the imperial Parliament occasioned by the great crisis in May, 1866,

Mr Gladstone

said briefly but emphatically:—"The profits of issues (banking issues or notes) belongs to the State, and what is much more important than the profit, the responsibility of issues also belongs to the State." Mr R. H. Patterson, an eminent economist, in his valuable treatise on "The Science of Finance," admits the principle "that the State itself ought to be the fountain of paper currency—assuming the cost and responsibility of the issue of notes, and thereby entitling itself to the profit which may accrue from such issues," to be intelligible and quite justifiable. The clear-headed Henry George, in discussing the functions of Government in his "Social Problems," says:—"It is the business of Government to issue money. This is perceived as soon as the great labour-saving invention of money supplants barter. To leave it to every one who chose to do so to issue money would be to entail general inconvenience and loss; to offer many temptations to roguery, and to put the poorer classes of society at a great disadvantage. These obvious considerations have everywhere, as society became well-organised, led to the recognition of the coinage of money as an exclusive function of Government. When, in the progress of society, a further labour-saving improvement becomes possible by the substitution of paper for the precious metals for the material of money, the reasons why the issuance of such money should be made a Government function becomes still stronger." He adds—"The legitimate business of banking—the safe keeping and loaning of money, and the making and exchange of credits—is properly left to individuals and associations; but by leaving to them, even in part, and under restrictions and guarantees, the issuance of money, the people of the United States suffer an annual loss of millions of dollars, and sensibly increase the influences which exert a corrupting effect upon their Government." The late Mr Walter Bagehot, in his interesting volume, "Lombard Street," indicates an opinion that a Government should as a rule keep its own money, and that it should not give peculiar favour to any one bank, and by entrusting it with the Government account secure to it a mischievous supremacy above all other banks, An able writer on our monetary system, "The Author of the People's Blue Book," in an excellent treatise on "The Bank of England and the Organisation of Credit in England" (2nd edition, 1866) states that it is "a gross error that issuing notes has some relation to banking, whereas there is none whatever; the issue of notes, representing the coined money of the realm, being a sovereign or State prerogative, to be exercised only for the benefit of the community." He characterises the notes of a private bank, not being a legal tender, as being "of the nature of a spurious coinage practically forced upon the ignorant and unwary." If the State, then, resumes its sovereign right over the issue of currency, it is doing no wrong to the banks, who have usurped a privilege to which they have no just claim, and the exercise of which is found to be prejudicial to the public, especially in the time of panics, when the ordinary and necessary internal circulation is hurtfully contracted and restricted by them, causing insolvency and loss even to men of wealth and substance. Besides, as has been already observed, and is also stated by Jevons, "It is no necessary function of a banker to issue promissory notes, and a great many banks exist in England without any power of issue." The London joint stock banks, doing a far large? business than any similar institutions in the world, issue no notes of their own. Every year, by the application of

The Clearing-House System,

a greater amount of business is transacted without the intervention of a single coin or note. In London
business is completed daily to the amount of 20 millions sterling through the clearing house, which could not otherwise be done. If settled in coin the gold would weigh 157 tons, and require 80 horses for its conveyance. Indeed the prohibition of issue by private banks would actually be beneficial to them, as they would be saved the necessity of keeping a reserve of gold to protect their issue. Apart from these considerations there is another and more important reason for the State assuming the responsibility of the issue. The legal maxim salus populi suprema lex, (the safety or security of the public overrides all law) renders a change imperatively necessary. When we consider the risk incurred by the public generally, especially the wages-receiving portion of the public, in a currency issued by private parties, and not absolutely protected or guaranteed against loss, we may express our surprise that such an anomalous condition of things should exist for a single hour. A few months ago in Sydney £58,000 in notes became in a moment valueless through the stoppage of the Oriental Bank. Similar inconvenience was felt in Melbourne, and many of us in Dunedin can recollect how thankful we were to receive 15s in the £ for notes of the Commercial Bank in 1867. If any of us deal with a bank and deposit money in it, we can select our bank, and if it should fail we can blame no one, and only can lament our want of judgment. We are voluntary creditors of the bank. But if the notes of the bank circulate from hand to hand the holders become involuntary creditors of the defaulting bank. This is a position in which the state ought not to permit any citizen to be involved, and it is the result of the improper influence upon our Legislature exercised by moneyed men and moneyed institutions. I affirm unhesitatingly that there ought not to be the most remote possibility of loss to the public in the master of its currency. I daresay many think we are properly protected now. This is not the fact. In the event of the stoppage of a bank the holders of notes have

No Preferential Claim.

Indeed they are certain to lose. I notice that Mr Dargaville has introduced a Bill this session to provide that bank notes shall be a first charge upon the banks assets within the colony. The danger of the present system is thus admitted, but there is only one efficient remedy, which will be afterwards mentioned. When a run takes place on a bank it is the depositors and holders of cash balances who make the earliest and heaviest demands. At this moment a single bank in the colony has now money at call than the total amount of gold held by all the banks. The only limitation placed on the issue of paper by the banks is that the amount "shall not at any onetime exceed the amount of the coin, bullion, and public securities which shall for the time being be held (by the banks) within the colony, nor shall the proportion of coin he less than one-third part of the amount of the coin, bullion, and public securities so held." Bat the said securities are not ear-marked to protect the issue, and note-holders have no preferential claim thereupon. In competition with other to editors in the event of a run, they are certain to come off second best Banks, in the conduct of their business, is order to be safe, require to keep a certain reserve in gold in proportion to their liabilities. This proportion varies according to the prudence of the management, some having a reserve of 30 per cent., others 20 per cent., and sometimes less. The amount of liabilities against the banks in the colony if 10¾ millions; the amount of gold and Government securities held 2¾ millions. The average reserve is therefore 20 per cent. Government securities would not, however, be realiseable in the colony; and specie being taken as the only tangible security, the proportion is only 16½ per cent. The total amount of coin in the colony is £1,775,000, and the amount of the circulation and deposits is 10¾, millions. Deposits not bearing interest, and held at Call amount to nearly 3½ millions. In these circumstances the public are placed in a position of unnecessary risk as regards the present paper-currency which cannot on any pretext be justified. The banks have it in their power also, on the occasion of a run, to decline payment of their notes in gold except at particular places. By their private Acts the notes are only "payable in specie to bearer on demand at the place of date, and also at the principal banking establishments of the corporation." A bank in Dunedin could therefore refuse payment of a note dated at Auckland, and as a matter of fact the notes in circulation are dated at various principal towns, so that on a crisis the note-holder's chance of obtaining immediate payment in gold, as compared with depositors at call, is rendered still more remote. It is clear, therefore, that whether the present system be considered in the view of the inexpediency of the public currency being under the control of private and irresponsible parties, or in the view of the absolute safety of the public as involuntary creditors, there is an urgent necessity for a thorough change. This is a matter which does not admit of a doubt. We are not discussing any of the vexed questions connected with the currency—such as whether there should be a paper currency at all, or whether it should be convertible or inconvertible—but we have been considering a matter which is fairly within the common-sense judgment of business men. We are not occupying ourselves with vague theories about which financiers are continually puzzling themselves. We have, as a matter of fact,
in our hands. We find it is essential to the conduct of our business, but unfortunately we find also that owing to its being under the control of private parties, chiefly foreign shareholders of banks, it is not free from risk, and that it is apt to fail us at the very time when we need it most. It is a staggering fact that the public of New Zealand, by accepting the promises to pay of these strangers as currency, are actually lending the bank shareholders one million sterling without interest, while at the same time we have to go to the London market and borrow for our own necessities at 4 per cent., besides paying heavy charges and commissions. Our internal circulation should now require a million and a half, which should be equivalent to a loan to the State of that amount, instead of an advance to the bank. The fact that stamp duties are payable by the banks on their circulation does not affect the question. If we sell our bills or our gold to the banks we are paid in this paper, and absentee shareholders are enriched with profits which ought to remain in our own pockets. The whole matter is so anomalous and so contrary to the dictates of common sense that I will be greatly surprised if the public, when fully informed on the point, allow themselves to be deluded any longer. It may be argued that banks are a mercantile necessity, but I do not propose to interfere with legitimate banking. I am satisfied there is much room for reform in banking practice, but that will all come in good time. Instead of our commerce being under the thumb of foreign banks, who will make advances from our deposits to foreign mercantile houses by the hundred thousand of pounds and refuse the discounts of a local trader or settler, we may look forward to the development of co-operation, the abolition of middle-men, and the establishment of local banks using our local deposits for the benefit of local commerce and enterprise, and thus rapidly adding to the capital belonging to ourselves, instead of sending it away to swell the profits of those who are strangers to us. This will happen all the sooner if we lay the foundation for a complete change of system. The radical change which I advocate is the resumption of our sovereign right of issuing paper money. This can only be satisfactorily effected by the establishment of

A State Bank of Issue.

The proposal is not a new one. One year before Otago was founded the Legislative Council of the colony passed an Ordinance (16th October, 1847) of which the following is the title—"An Ordinance to Authorise the Establishment of a Colonial Bank of Issue by the Government of New Zealand, to Make and Issue a Paper Currency, and to Prohibit the Making and Issuing of Paper Money by private Individuals." By this time a foreign bank or two had gained a footing in the colony and their influence had prevented the law referred to being carried into execution. It, however, remained the law for thirty years, and was only repealed in 1878 by a general repeal Act which purged the statute book of several hundred Acts which had fallen into disuetude. It has been a reproach to our leading men—I can scarcely call them statesmen—that they themselves have been too much under the powerful sway of our monetary institutions to work out any amendments beneficial to the public. The bitterest debate I ever listened to in Parliament was that in which a Minister, in language more vigorous than polite, was asserted to be more subservient to the interest of a leading bank than to the interest of the community. It is not surprising that the Paper Currency Act was allowed to remain a dead letter. As a rule the mass of the people has been so well off as to be regardless of reforms of any kind, but now, when the pinching of adversity is felt, its teachings will receive more attention, and we may expect our common rights will be more closely scrutinised and looked after.

The Advantages of a State Bank

are manifold, and would be felt in every direction. One chief result would be that our domestic circulation would expand with our necessities. We would no longer be subject to have it contracted by the fears or caprices of foreigners. It is absurd to think that the active industry of our small community should be liable to be checked because there is a drought in Australia or an exodus of sovereigns from the Bank of England. We reside in a group of islands peculiarly self-contained, affording free scope under proper legislation for the exertions of ten times the population we at present number. We have no territorial neighbours to trouble us in the way of our circulation. We might therefore hope to prosecute our varied industries and productions unaffected by the ups and downs which trouble more complicated communities. We can always find a ready market for our production in raw material—in gold, wool, minerals, mutton, and other marketable commodities. Our local industries would supply our own wants, and the exchanges speedily turn in our favour. Capital would accumulate more rapidly locally, and afford the supplies necessary for the development of our coal and iron fields, and our other manifold mineral resources. Our merchants would effectually grasp the commerce of the Pacific. The great drawback under which we labour in consequence of our present arrangements, namely, high rates of interest and fluctuations in these rates, would disappear. A moderate and steady rate, not above 5 per cent., would be the rule. We need not follow Canada, where the banks are prohibited charging more than 6 per
By the operation of sound natural laws our rates of interest would be equalised and remain moderate. The advantages of a low rate of interest were thus summed up by the famous financier M. Isaac Pierre in giving evidence before a Parliamentary Committee in Paris in 1867:—"The lowering of the rate of interest is a thing desirable in all points of view. It gives rise to enterprises which could not exist if the interest were too high; it contributes consequently to the development of industry, to the increase of public wealth; it augments the share of labour, while at the same time it permits all the products to be delivered cheaper, whereas the charges for interest enter for a considerable part in the profits and in the price returned; it facilitates the amelioration of capital of all values, landed property as well as public funds." You must have noticed that I have been careful not to make rash assertions proceeding from my own inner consciousness. All the chief propositions I maintain have been supported by eminent authorities quoted. Interested parties might pooh-pooh my suggestions as being unpractical and [unclear: in-expedient]. It is an ordinary mode of [unclear: argument] in Parliament when anything new [unclear: is] started for an opposing Minister to say that it is not within the region of practical politics, but I hold generally that whatever is for

**The Good of the People,**

however much it may be contrary to an existing condition of things, is of practical importance, and ought to be carried into effect at once. I will now supplement the authorities adduced by referring to the opinions of two members of Parliament, given on the currency in the committee of the Imperial Parliament which sat in 1858, the accuracy of which opinions has been fully verified by subsequent events. Mr Spooner said:—"The only remedy for the evils in question (extreme and rapid fluctuations producing alternations of prosperity and adversity) will be found in having a domestic circulation not liable to be influenced by the state of foreign exchanges—the creation of a national paper money, suitable for the disbursements and receipts of the Government; the issue to be limited to the amount required for these purposes." Mr Cayley said:—"Our system, both of money and trade, is one of credit, and based on confidence. What therefore is wanted for the benefit of commerce is that confidence should remain unshaken. Confidence has never yet been shaken, except under a heavy drain of gold, and then only because gold is the sole legal tender in the last resort; and what therefore is wanted for the support of confidence is a legal tender that never threatens to be unallowable; in other words, a legal tender always attainable in an amount equal to the due fulfilment of all the financial engagements of our national exchequer. If then Government would only provide a sufficiency of legal tender money for duly facilitating their own receipts and disbursements, the parties engaged in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce would have no difficulty in finding an ample medium for the equitable fulfilment of all the other monetary engagements of this nature." A well-known writer, Mr James Platt ("Money," 1881) states his opinion in reference to the legislation of Sir Robert Peel thus:—"There can be no doubt his ultimate intention was to provide for the supply of notes for the whole kingdom from a single central Government office as soon as possible." I submit that a case for the establishment of a National Bank of Issue has now been substantiated. I propose, therefore, that the Government shall establish a State Bank of Issue to supply a paper currency sufficient for our wants in

**Our Domestic Circulation,**

leaving to the banks their legitimate business of regulating the foreign exchanges. I had prepared a Bill for that purpose, to be introduced last session of Parliament, but, as you know, Parliament was prematurely dissolved, and I did not effect my purpose. I did not expect that this measure would have been at once carried, but I hoped the subject would be fully ventilated, public attention drawn to it, and that the Government would have been compelled by the force of public opinion to take it into serious consideration. I will not now trouble you with the details of that proposed measure, because if these are imperfect or unworkable they are capable of being readily amended. It will be sufficient if I state the leading principles of the Bill under which all the details would have been duly regulated. First, the Governor in Council would be authorised to establish a bank for the purpose of conducting the financial business of the colony, and of supplying a paper currency, with power to appoint all necessary officers, and make all rules and regulations required for the proper management and working thereof—the bank to be a corporate body under the name of "The N.Z. State Bank of Issue;" the Agent General to be the agent for the bank in London, and the Bank of England banker there. 2. Circulating notes of not less value that one pound sterling to be issued in exchange for specie, bullion, approved drafts on London, Government debentures or stock or other usual securities affording undoubted margin and in payment of salaries, wages, and other debts due and payable by the Government in the colony in terms of any Appropriation Act. 3. The notes to be
A Legal Tender

4. The issue of private circulating notes by any bank or company to be prohibited. 5. The State bank-notes to be redeemable in specie or by draft on the Bank of England. 6. The money received for notes to be applied (a) in maintaining a reserve on hand to suit the convenience of the public; (b) in exchange for debentures issued under the authority of Parliament; (c) in maintaining a credit with the Bank of England; (d) in such good and sufficient securities at three months' notice, as may be allowed in terms of law; (e) in advances to landowners for improvements, repayable by way of annuity in such amount as may from time to time be fixed by Parliament; (f) in the purchase of exchequer or deficiency bills issued under the authority of Parliament. 6. The State Bank to be the Clearing House for all other monetary institutions in the colony. 7. The present misleading and defective quarterly returns to be amended so as to afford more clear and reliable information. 8. Foreign banks to have a defined portion of their capital in use in the; colony, and to issue half-yearly balance-sheets applicable only to their business within the colony. 9. The capital of foreign banks, and their assets in the colony, to be subject to a preferential claim on the part of creditors within the colony. 10. Every bank or monetary institution receiving deposits from the public to be subject to periodical inspection on the part of a public officer. 11. Penal clauses. Several of these points may not be approved of finally, but their postponement or rejection would not interfere with the operation of the vital principle that the control of the currency should be vested in the State under proper safeguards and suitable conditions. Almost all these provisions are in force in countries where the Government possess the controlling power of the currency, and before a law could be passed on the subject in New Zealand we might have the benefit of the experience already obtained elsewhere—I would especially allude to India and Canada The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce has at my desire already written to the Chambers at Toronto and Calcutta on the subject. There is no fear therefore that the required legislation would be of a crude, impractical, or untried character. To show the advantages of a State circulation, I cannot do better than refer to the system in force in India. On July 16th, 1861, an Act was passed by the Government of India providing for the issue of a paper currency through a Government department of public issue, by means of promissory notes, varying in amount from £1000 to 10s. The notes are a legal tender, and rendered payable at the place of issue and the capital of the Presidency. Further legislation was consolidated by Act III, of 1871, and from a very small beginning, the circulation has now reached the enormous sum of 14 millions sterling, with great advantage to the commerce and production of the Empire. What may be accomplished by a State paper currency may be illustrated by the instance of the Guernsey market. Danielle Broc, the governor of the island, determined to build a market in St. Peter's, but not having the necessary funds, issued under the seal of the island four thousand market notes for one pound each, with which he paid the artificers. When the market was finished and the rents came in, the notes were thereby cancelled, and not an [unclear: ounce] of gold was employed in the matter. The Governor thus obtained a loan for the construction of the market without interest, and as the expenditure was immediately reproductive the whole transaction was one of pure gain. Whatever amount of paper currency this colony requires, the excess above the reserve of gold is a loan without interest, and it is surely more just that the community should enjoy this advantage than that it should go to swell the dividends of absentee shareholders.

One word before we conclude as to the expediency of a general clearing house. The banks in the colony being for the most part branch establishments are jealous of each other, and slow to adopt any plan for their common benefit. Accordingly we see this anomalous state of things every year, namely, one bank sending coin out of the country and another importing an equivalent. It is a remarkable fact that, with rare exceptions, the exports and imports balance one another. In 1881 the imports were £153,000, the exports £166,000—a difference of £13,000. In 1882 the imports were £4265,320, the exports £262,000—a difference of only £3320. In 1883 the imports were £195,000; the exports £83,760, so that the I balance was in favour of the colony to the amount of £111,240. But if there were once an adequate reserve of coin in the colony it is difficult to see what is gained by the absurd system of sending away with the one hand and drawing back with the other. Indeed it would be a decided gain to the banks themselves were they compelled to settle their exchanges by drafts on a central clearing house. In Scotland, where the amount of business conducted is ten times that of this colony, never a sovereign passes, the balances being settled by drafts on London. I have already referred to the benefits which would secure from the establishment of a State bank of issue in the relief from unwise and unwarrantable restrictions, in freedom from distrust which would ensue, in the maintenance of public confidence, in abundant scope being afforded for legitimate enterprise, in the lowering of the ordinary rates of interest; but I believe other advantages would follow. There might be assistance rendered to industrious settlers at present crushed down by heavy interest and commissions by special institutions established for their benefit, and our tradesmen might also be benefited by encouragement given to People's Banks in every centre of industry. Under proper organisation the state bank might be a vast machine confer- ring incalculable blessings on trade and production.
by securing the use of cheap money through the interposition of its support. In Germany, where 30 years ago a working man could not obtain an advance except at [unclear: usurious] interest, he can now get what he needs at 5 per cent, through the People's Banks, which now number nearly 2000, with a capital of six millions, and deposits of nineteen millions. Our State loans might be more economically managed. The immense tide of surplus wealth in England would break freely on our shores; our own accumulation of capital would proceed rapidly; our progress-dependent on our abundant resources of all kinds—would advance with accelerated pace, and public works of productive power would be prosecuted vigorously, unhampered by the capricious and perilous timidity which is the characteristic of bank institutions not indigenous to the soil. But without looking too far forward, there is no doubt that a State bank of issue would afford us instant benefits by rendering our trade and commerce wholly independent of fluctuations outside our own borders, and every man would have the prospect of receiving the full reward of his hard work and intelligent industry.

In conclusion, I beg to say that in the suggestions I offer for reform in our monetary arrangements I disclaim all hostility to the banks established in the colony. The [unclear: pole] object I have in view is the good of the public and the prosperity of the colony. Any measure which leads to such ends must place banking business on a more safe and satisfactory footing, and be more profitable for the shareholders and more useful to all concerned. I therefore claim the assistance of the banks in carrying these suggestions into practical effect. They must march with the times if wisely guided. I have no desire to interfere with their legitimate business. If a bank of issue were established, banks and finance companies who might be members of the clearing-house, would form the intermediaries between the State bank and the public. No bank need then fear a run for gold. There would be no drawback to the proper expansion of business. The knowledge that notes could always be obtained in return for any available form of wealth offered in security would make us independent of outside panic, and an industrious and energetic people, numbering half-a-million, having abundant resources and a fine climate, and possessing property after deducting all incumbrances of the value of one hundred millions sterling would never again be placed in the anomalous position of having to encounter the troubles which always follow a feeble or restricted circulation.

On the motion of Mr C. S. Reeves, a vote thanks was accorded to the lecturer.

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Oh Fountains! when in you shall I Myself, eas'd of unpeaceful thoughts, espy? Oh Fields! oh Woods! when, when shall I be made The happy Tenant of your shade? Here's the Spring-head of Pleasure's Flood, Where all the Riches lye that she Has coin'd and stamp'd for Good.

—Cowley.

"And everywhere a doleful and monotonous spectacle, the women and girls who toil all day with feverish energy for their miserable wage. Every where the life that is not life; the same slavery, the same oppression. The Children of Gibeon (Besant)."
he sends it forth in the hope that it may contribute something at all events towards the general good.

George W. Cole.

Wellington, New Zealand,

August, 1887.

The Financial Condition of New Zealand.

"Salus populi suprema est lex."

There remains an aspect of this question not yet sufficiently investigated, concerning which it is my desire to draw attention.

It is quite clear from the Financial Statement of our Colonial Treasurer that this Colony is in grave monetary difficulties. It is true that, by a skilful manipulation of figures, the Colonial Treasurer has done his best to hide the gravity of the situation, and for our Colonial credit, perhaps we ought to be grateful to him for having tried to shield us from outside criticism. But many are of opinion that the time has come when the people should know the worst, so that a remedy, if remedy there be, may be now applied before a worse condition arises, and that a worse condition may rise there is very little doubt, unless something be done to stem the tide of national misfortune which is apparently threatening to overwhelm us at no distant date.

What that something may be is the purpose of this letter to indicate. Meanwhile, referring to the Financial Statement, it is bound that our

Now, what means have we of liquidating this enormous liability. Here are our official assets:—

True, in the Financial Statement we have other assets, such as Crown lands, £13,800,728; railways, harbours, telegraphs &c., but as none of these are available assets, they cannot be used for the purpose of liquidating our outstanding debts. Indeed, two items that we have already included, namely, household goods and debts owing to persons, are not really assets. As to the former, we cannot live out of doors nor in empty houses; and as to the latter, everyone is aware how little reliance can be placed upon receiving anything like what is really due.

We may fairly assume, therefore, that we are at least about thirty millions upon the wrong side of the ledger! It may very naturally be asked, how has this great deficiency come about? Doubtless it will be answered that the construction of railways harbours, building, &c., have placed this debt upon us, and it is usual to blame our present Colonial Treasurer for all the trouble. Nothing to my mind can be more unjust. Certainly at present it would at first sight appear that the Colony has undertaken these huge responsibilities before it was financially able to [unclear: bear] the burden. But I think it can be shown that the Colony is quite able to afford those public conveniences, if its affairs be properly managed.

It follows, therefore, that the originator of these public works is not to blame, but that there are other causes in operation to account for our present embarrassments. No doubt we have squandered large sums of money in various unproductive directions, in wilful extravagance, and in other questionable undertakings, but the chief trouble is not to be found amongst any such circumstances, but rather in the fact that successive Governments have allowed vast tracts of land to be alienated from the public estate without any adequate return.

In former days huge blocks were sacrificed for a mere nominal sum, till no less than seventeen million acres of land have now become alienated from the Crown. It has come about, therefore that a goodly portion of these private lands is lying comparatively unproductive.

Everyone knows that the Property-tax valuation is anything but excessive, and yet, according to its returns, there are individuals owning land in this Colony valued at nearly half a million sterling, and I could mention the names of 37 persons, none of whom own land of less value than £100,000; the 37 owning, in the aggregate, land valued at pretty nearly £6,000,000 sterling!

I am perfectly aware of the difficulty and danger in approaching all such questions, especially as both our legislative chamber are occupied by land-owners, the money value, as far as the land is concerned, of the Lower House being something like £897,324, and of the Upper £1,266,472 sterling. But that is no reason why public attention should not be drawn to the question.

It may be as well to state in this place that there are 1140 absentees. A knowledge of this will be an important factor in our calculations by-and-by, for it can be readily understood how little such persons contribute towards the public revenue.

Then there are 11,000,000 acres leased, from which the public revenue derives only some £192,403, being
an average of something like 3¾d per acre!

It comes to this, therefore, that large fortunes have been made by individuals out of the public estate.

I am not one of those who would confiscate land, nor would I prevent any man holding a freehold in the country in which he resides; but what I, in common with many others, do object to is that vast tracts of land should be given to speculators and landsharks.

And now for the practical bearing of these remarks.

In the Property-tax returns, Crown lands in 1885 were assessed at £13,675,516, whereas in 1882 they (including over 1,000,000 acres since sold) were assessed at £8,500,000.

Now, how comes it that with over 1,000,000 acres less, land is worth £5,175,516 more? Simply, of course, that owing to settlement and public expenditure the land has risen to its present value.

Very well, then, add the value of the land sold between those periods, namely, £358,962, and we obtain £5,534,478 sterling, as being the actual rise in value of the Crown lands within the period of three years. The Crown lands consisted of something (like 49,000,000 acres (for the sake of simplicity, let the mention of all lands of no value whatever, such as the tops of mountains, &c., be omitted).

Then this instructive and suggestive circumstance becomes manifest, that if the 49,000,000 acres of Crown lands have advanced in price to the amount of five and a half millions sterling, then the seventeen million acres of private lands must have advanced proportionately.

In round numbers, the gain would be two millions sterling, altogether apart from the enormously enhanced value of town lands!

This would equal a little more than one shilling per acre per annum as the unearned increment, and would constitute a fair basis for taxation. Now this portion of wealth is showered into the land-owners laps, altogether apart from any exertion, merit, or expenditure of their own.

Is it not just, therefore, that wealth so obtained should submit to be taxed, and taxed heavily?

Supposing one-half only were handed over to the public estate, our revenue would then be enriched by half a million a year, and as a contribution from country lands only, by the imposition of such a tax, the vast tracts of land lying idle and comparatively useless and locked-up from the people, would be made to bear a more equable share of the public burden. Add to this the natural increase that will accrue year by year in the value of Crown lands not yet alienated, and it will be found that a yearly revenue of at least three and a half millions sterling may be thus secured. And this without taxing the product of labour nor the necessaries of life one farthing.

Carrying our investigation somewhat further, we gather from official statistics (1882) that the total freeholders in this Colony number 71,240 persons, out of a population of 517,507 individuals.

These figures indicate, therefore, that 87 persons out of every hundred are without land, and deducting all those whose holdings are of less extent than five acres, it will be seen that the principal portion of the land already sold is apportioned amongst 5 per cent, of our people.

Looking at the question in this way, our dangerous approach to that undesirable state of matters, which in Great Britain has resulted so disastrously to millions of her inhabitants, becomes manifest. In that country comparatively few have any proprietary interest in the soil, one-half of the country being owned, it is said, by a thousand persons, and four-fifths of it by less than six thousand individuals.

The following tables (from Mulhall, page 272) will illustrate how such an iniquitous state of affairs has come about.

No one need be surprised to learn, therefore, that, out of a population of thirty-four million, there are a million destitute people, that is to say, of course, that one person out of every thirty-four within her borders is absolutely without the means of subsistence. That this destitution actually results from land monopoly may be still further illustrated by comparing Great Britain with some country where no such monopoly exists.

Take France for example, where three-fourths of her inhabitants have a proprietary interest in the soil, then, what do we find?

We find that with a population of thirty-seven million she has 417,000 paupers only. That is to say the United Kingdom has three million less inhabitants to feed, and yet she possesses nearly three times as many paupers as her neighbour.

It must be admitted that these facts and figures are of grave import to ourselves, for have we not already tasted the fruits of a like mismanagement, as evidenced by our present monetary embarrassment and premature poor-rate? Just think of the circumstances which, in a fruitful and sparsely-populated country like our own, can have brought about the necessity for a poor-rate!

A cry has arisen, however, which, oblivious of the circumstances we have endeavoured to bring to light, seeks to cast the blame upon the assumed backwardness of our industries, and it is stated by men of undoubted ability that all we require is more protection for these, by a general increase in our import duties, in order that universal prosperity be established.
The assumptions we have now to examine are:—

- First—"That our present financial difficulties arise from undeveloped industries," implying, therefore, that they are comparatively backward, and that the prosperity of a country depends upon their diversity and magnitude.

- Second—"That our industries, and our country, would be benefitted by a more highly protective (?) tariff."

There is no great difficulty in proving these suppositions utterly without foundation.

Take, for example, the number of persons already engaged in those pursuits in this Colony, and what do we find? We find that our industries give employment to 76,427 persons. That is equivalent to a proportion of 13.21 per cent. This will be found to compare very favourably with the number of those similarly employed in other countries. Take the United States, and, contrary to all expectation, we find the percentage actually below our own. In that country, after one hundred years of a so-called protective tariff, the proportion of her inhabitants engaged in industry amounts only to 12.0 per cent! Then, take any country you like. Russia indicates 5.0 per cent.; Italy, 7.0 per cent.; Austria, 13.0 per cent.; Spain, 8.0 per cent.; Holland, 12.0 per cent.; Scandinavia, 9.0 per cent.; and Portugal, 8.0 percent. The only countries, in fact, bearing a larger proportion, being Belgium, Germany, France, and England!

So much for the backwardness of our industries.

If, upon the other hand, we institute a comparison of those engaged in agricultural pursuits with those similarly engaged abroad, the difference becomes very startling indeed. Thus whilst our proportions percent, amount to 11.27, the following is the percentage of some other countries, namely—England 14.6 per cent.; France, 51.0 per cent.; Germany, 43.0 per cent; Russia, 81.0 per cent.; Austria, 55.0 per cent.; Italy, 70.0 per cent.; Portugal, 45.0 per cent.; Belgium, 40.0 per cent.; Holland, 58.0 per cent.; and Scandinavia, 61.0 per cent.

But we shall have to refer to this further on. Meanwhile we proceed to enquire as to the truth of the statement that the national welfare depends upon the diversity and magnitude of its industries.

We are told to look abroad and note that where wealth and prosperity abounds, there we shall find diversified industries. Astounding discovery! But let us not mistake cause for effect.

"The development of industry is of the nature of an evolution which goes on with the increase of population and the progress of society, the simpler industries coming first and forming a basis for the more elaborate ones. In new countries the industries which yield the largest comparative returns, are the primary or extractive industries which obtain food and the raw materials of manufacture from nature. The reason of this is, that in these primary industries there are not required such costly tools and appliances, nor the co-operation of so many other industries. The people of new countries can, therefore, get the largest returns for their labour by applying it to the primary extraction industries and exchanging their products for those of the more elaborate industries that can be best carried on where population is denser. As population increases, the conditions under which secondary or more elaborate industries can be carried [unclear: or] gradually arise."

Just so; to say then, that a nation's progress depends upon industries, is to reverse the order of things, to assert a manifest absurdity. It would be as sensible to say that the growth of our bodies depends upon the development of our nails! or that the stability of a plant depends upon the luxuriance of its foliage. Doubtless, in the latter case, the one reacts upon the other; but in the first place the foliage is an index merely as to the vitality of the plant.

How idle then the cry,
"Encourage local industry."

except by such means as shall legitimately bring vitality to the nation, and how preposterous to assert that this can be accomplished by any such form of increased taxation!

We are now led to approach the second assumption put forth namely—

"That our industries and our country would be benefitted by a more highly protective (?) tariff."

You notice, I have myself inserted, an interrogative note after the word protective, in order to express my dissent from the assumption that high duties are protective. As I wish to handle this question from a new stand-point, I do not intend to dwell upon any arguments such as are commonly employed, and which admit of endless elaboration. Thus we might follow out in detail the injurious effect upon industries themselves, owing to the increased cost of the raw materials entering into the product of their manufactures. Upon this point I shall content myself by quoting an American writer of modern date. He says—"If there is one country in the world where the assumption that protection is necessary to the development of manufactures and the 'diversification of industry,' is conclusively disproved by the most obvious facts, that country is the United States. The first settlers in America devoted themselves to trade with the Indians and to those extractive industries which a
sparse population always finds most profitable. . . . But without any protection, and in spite of British regulations intended to prevent the growth of manufactures in the Colonies, one industry after another took root, as population increased, until at the time of the First Tariff Act, in 1789, all the more important manufactures, including those of iron and textiles, had become firmly established. But so heavily are our manufactures weighted by a tariff, which increases the cost of all their materials and appliances, that in spite of our natural advantages and the inventiveness of our people, our sales are confined to our own protected market, and we can nowhere compete with the manufactures of other countries. In spite of the increase of duties with which we have attempted to keep out foreign importations and build up our own manufacturing industries, the great bulk of our importations to-day are of manufactured goods, while all but a trivial percentage of our exports consist of raw materials! Even where we import largely from such countries as Brazil, which have almost no manufactures of their own, we cannot send them in return the manufactured goods they want, but to pay for what we buy of them, must send our raw materials to Europe!"

That this is not the language of exaggeration will be conceded by those who are familiar with American history.

Were you to ask me to give an example warranting such a serious charge against protection in America, I would refer you to her shipping industry.

Everyone knows that at one time her stately and beautiful vessels roamed the sea in numbers second only to those of Great Britain. But as protective duties have increased her shipping has decreased, until that industry has been well nigh ruined. Should anyone desire proof of this, let him consult the work of the Bight Hon. Henry Fawcett upon Freerade, page 35, and he will find these words:—

"Rather more than twenty years ago 75 to 80 per cent, of the total commerce of the United States was carried in American vessels. The protectionist policy of the United States has received its greatest development since that period, and within that time the mercantile marine of the United States has so diminished that about 80 per cent, of her commerce is now carried in foreign vessels, chiefly English!"

I shall trouble you with one other example, and I give it you upon the authority of an American artisan. He says—

"We are constantly making improvements upon the tools, methods, and patterns elsewhere in use. These improvements are constantly starting a foreign demand for American manufactures which seems to promise large increase. But before this increase takes place the improvements are adopted in countries where manufacturing is not so heavily burdened by taxes on material, and what should have been peculiarly an American manufacture is transferred to a foreign country. . . . The American inventor, if he hold an English patent, finds more profit in manufacturing it abroad."

A protective tariff then, instead of encouraging local industry and insuring employment of labour, tends directly in an opposite direction.

Since such is the case, it cannot be said that it is beneficial to the people. That it is not so, becomes still more apparent from a consideration of the extreme danger incurred by the community, consequent upon the ease with which trade monopolies may be established by its aid.

Everyone knows what happened in the United States, when the output of copper, for example, was limited to certain mines. Why, for this product of their own soil, the American citizen was actually charged 2d per pound more than the foreign purchaser! Then, would it be to the interests of the people for such a state of matters as the following to be rendered possible?—

"Half-a-dozen representatives of the anthracite coal interest' met last evening (24th March, 1880), in an office in New York. When they separated, they had come to an understanding among gentlemen to restrict the production of anthracite coal and advance its price!"

Half-a-dozen gentlemen, aided by protection, deliberately determining to cast out of employment hundreds of men, unmindful of the consequent suffering and distress that must necessarily follow, in order that they might enrich themselves.

Permit me to go one step further, and point out this undesirable feature, inseparable from all import dues, whether [unclear: assessed] in the interests of protection or revenue, namely, the unequal pressure sustained by various classes or the community under its tariff. This will readily appear by an analysis of the different items of revenue contributing to our annual expenditure.

For the year ending 31st December, 1885, our expenditure amounted to £6,962,799 sterling. Out of this, Customs contributed £1,422,052, an amount equal to one-fourth of the whole expenditure, as against one-twenty-fourth contributed by the Property Tax.

That this is not a fair distribution becomes all the more certain when we consider the relative value of the imports upon the one hand, and of the contributing property on the other.

The value of the imports contributing £1,422,052 was between seven and eight millions sterling, whilst the property contributing £281,257 was upwards of £90,000,000. Then, according to Table 8, Property-tax returns,
there are 34,450 persons possessing freehold land valued at £53,658,687. Now, what do you suppose the revenue receives from this great wealth? Why, something like £181,657 only.

I have roughly estimated the area of lands so held at twenty thousand square miles. Now, as the total area of this Colony only amounts to a little over one hundred thousand square miles, these 34,450 persons, therefore, hold one-fifth part of it.

It follows therefore that, were the whole of the lands of our Colony assessed at a similar rate, then the entire revenue obtainable would fall short of that obtained through the Customs by half a million sterling!

We find from another official table that there are 768,281 acres of freehold land returned as unoccupied and unused, that is to say, there are 1200 square miles of country held by private individuals or companies absolutely going to waste!

Notwithstanding these comparatively neglected sources of revenue, and the severity of our present Customs tariff, it is seriously proposed to increase the latter by £186,000. We may consider the effect of this in several ways.

Distributing the State's yearly expenditure, per head of the population, we find £12 represents the annual indebtedness of every man, woman, and child amongst us, and out of this £2 10s is already charged to Customs. An increase by £186,000 would bring up the tax to £2 16s 4d. Dividing the value of imported goods in the same manner, we ascertain that the amount per head would be £13 per annum. Now, mark what follows—

Property is charged at the rate of 13-16th of a penny in the so that for every £13 of property one would be charged 11¾d, whereas for every £13 of imported goods one would have to pay £2 16s 4d! That is 4s 4d in the £, an amount in excess of that I charged upon property by 442 per cent! Is this a fair distribution of taxation?

Suppose property were charged at the same rate, what would the revenue gain in place of the £281,257 now yielded by the £90,000,000 of taxable real and personal estate? The revenue would gain £18,000,000 sterling.

The consumer of Customs imports has to pay this enormous tax upon his goods whether he be in credit or the reverse, whereas the property-owner pays no tax except upon his credit balance.

A person imports, we will say, goods to the value of £1000, upon this he pays a toll of £216 13s 4d, even if his liabilities swallow up the whole of it; upon the other hand a person owning property to a similar amount, if it be all to credit, pays a toll of £3 6s 8½d only, and were he in debt to a similar amount he would contribute absolutely nothing!

Clearly, then, so far as there may be any protection in the matter of increased Customs dues, it is a protection of the estates of the wealthy at the expense of the commodities of the poor. A weekly contribution of 1s 1d,

In addition to Customs and other taxes, amounting in all to about 5s. a week.

extracted from the toilers amongst us, from those who receive no compensating advantages, and who are conscious that the tax thus paid is for interest on money borrowed to enrich the land of the speculator and monopolist!

In a former letter I drew attention to this remarkable circumstance—that, whereas the percentage of those amongst us engaged in industrial pursuits was very large, being, in fact, fifth upon the list, of all nations, the percentage of those engaged in agriculture was very small, being, in fact, at the very bottom of the list.

Now, this is a matter of the most vital importance for our consideration. What is the meaning of it?

Looking abroad, we note that next to ourselves Great Britain has fewest thus employed. The reason is not far to seek.

In Great Britain only some half per cent, of her people have any proprietary interest in the soil, as against from 4 to 14 per cent, in other countries. The result is that it does not pay to cultivate the land under such circumstances, and as rent is gradually rising, so is agriculture gradually declining. How can a farmer profitably employ his labour, having to pay a rental of 24s an acre?

What then is the lesson for ourselves?

One often hears it remarked that farming does not pay Quite true; how can it pay when in too many cases the farmer has to pay a heavy royalty to the money-lender?

Here, then, we have the secret revealed. England's agricultural depression and our own are due to similar causes.

Liberate the land from the extortionate landlord upon the one hand, and from the money-lender upon the other, and prosperity will be restored.

Can this he done? Certainly it can be done.

Has it not been done already by several Continental nations? Germany took sixty million acres from the nobles, and apportioned it out amongst her serfs, compensating the former.

If nations are to prosper, a mighty revolution in land administration must be brought about.

Industries or no industries, protection or no protection, no permanent prosperity will ever be accomplished until the people Become bona fide cultivators of the soil, and until that soil is brought down to such a price as
will reward its cultivation.

And how much happier and beneficial such a life would be than one spent in the drudgery of manufacturing industries.

The latter are no doubt necessary, but a necessary evil. What have they done for England? Crowded 60 per cent, of her Emulation into the towns, assisting in the creation of wealth, no doubt; but at what a cost? At the cost of millions of joyless, rainless lives; dwarfed men and women, blighted children, and a large residuum of paupers!

Yes, Great Britain can boast, perhaps, of more industries than any other nation, but she also can show a larger list of destitute people.

Taking all other nations and striking an average of their paupers, Great Britain can exceed it by half a million souls.

We are told that to encourage local industry is to give employment to our male adults, who now, unfortunately, are compelled to walk the streets.

Let me tell you this: that in this Colony there are at present employed in her industries 5000 women, 5000 girls, and 11,000 boys! What more encouragement do they seek? Is it to the in more women and children to their wheel?

If the manufacturer is so anxious to provide employment, let him dismiss the girls and boys and take on the men. And will it be believed that, in addition to employing children, we like-wise employ, to the detriment of our colonists, over 4000 Chinese!

These facts need no comment; they speak for themselves; but they indicate unmistakably the hollowness of the cry, Encourage local industry for the benefit of the unemployed.

And, finally, let me say that from what has already been written, it may be concluded—

• That our Customs duty should be gradually decreased instead of increased.
• That some machinery should be devised whereby it should be rendered impossible for exorbitant rents to be charged either in town or country.
• The present *bona fide* cultivators of the soil should be liberated from the grip of the money-lender.

And, lastly, land should be treated altogether apart from other property, and dealt with upon its merits, the value of its unearned increment being made a basis for its taxation, and by land I mean all land, whether town or country.

". . . Let the axe
Strike at the root, the poison tree will fall;
And in its place a garden shall arise
In loveliness surpassing fabled Eden."

decorative feature

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Front Cover

In Memoriam

An Account of Visits to, and Crossings Over,
The Ruahine Mountain Range, Hawke's Bay, New Zealand,
And of the Natural History of that Region;
PERFORMED IN 1845-1847: *cum multis aliis*,
In Two Papers Read Before the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute, 1878:
With Additional and Copious Notes,
BY W. Colenso, F.L.S., ETC.,
Member and Hon. Secretary of the Society,
"For out of the old feldis, as men saieth,
Comith all this newe come fro yere to yere;
And out of oldè bokis, in gode faieth,
Cometh all this newe science that men lere."
CHAUCER.
"similis—patrifamilias, qui profert de thesauro suo nova et vetera." *Bill. Sacr.*
—"Qufe fuit durum pati meninisse dulce est." *SEN.*
Printed at the "Daily Telegraph" Office New Zealand Tennyson Street, Napier. 1884
To the Early Settlers in Hawke's Bay,

(Who have also experienced both privation and toil, inseparable on the first settlement in a wild and uncivilized country.)—And particularly to those of them whom I have with pleasure personally known, and to their descendants,—

Is this little book heartily dedicated by their pioneer in this land,

W. Colenso.

NAPIER, May 15th—50 years ago!—That I left my native homo for now Zealand.—W. C. 1884.

Dedication.

As one who, walking in the twilight gloom,
Hears round about him voices as it darkens,
And seeing not the forms from which they come
Pauses from time to time, and turns and hearkens;

So walking here in twilight, O my friends!
I hear your voices, softened by the distance,
And pause, and turn to listen, as each sends
His words of friendship, comfort and assistance.

* * *

Not chance of birth or place has made us friends,
Being oftentimes of different tongues and nations,
But the endeavour for the self-same ends,
With the same hopes, and fears, and aspirations.

Therefore I hope, as no unwelcome guest,
At your warm fireside, when the lamps are lighted,
To have my place reserved among the rest,
Nor stand as one unsought and uninvited.”

(Longfellow.)

Preface.

It is probable that some who may read this little book may very properly wish to know, why these two papers were not published in the annual volume of the Transactions of the New Zealand Institute for 1879?
seeing they were written purposely for and read to the Members of the Hawke's Bay branch of the Institute at
their ordinary meetings in 1878. This question can be briefly and truly answered.

The two Papers were duly forwarded to Wellington to the Manager of the New Zealand Institute; who,
some time after, informed the Hawke's Bay Society, that the Board would only publish an *abstract* of them.
This, however, could not be agreed to by myself as well as by the Society; and the Manager was officially
informed, that the Hawke's Bay members of the N.Z. Institute greatly wished to have them published in their
entirety; and, that if it were a matter of money (the cost of printing the whole), the surplus expense would be
readily met by them: this overture was also refused by the Board: And, after some further delay, the two Papers
were obtained from Wellington.

In their original state they were not so long as they are now; most of the copious Notes, and a few of the
poetical extracts have been added; at the same time nothing has been omitted. The Poetry has been mainly
taken from my favourite modern poet, Longfellow, (whose bust has lately been placed in Poet's Comer,) in the
hope of their beautiful and expressive thoughts and language striking a latent and sympathetic chord in the
hearts of some of our young Colonists; and possibly inciting them to seek to know more of the beauty of
Poetry, and in particular of that of our National British poets. And it is still further hoped, that the Notes
(particularly those in the Appendix,) will be especially appreciated by the Settlers of Hawke's Bay.—

In my longer journeys I always carried a few choice books with me, and among them a pocket edition of
one of our Poets:—Ossian, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Thomson, Gray, Goldsmith, Burns, Wordsworth, Keats,
Shelley, Byron, Walter Scott, Longfellow, Tennyson, &c.

In my originally writing these two Papers, and in preparing them for the Press, it has again been my aim, to
stir up the younger folks among us to the study of Nature's works, with which we are profusely surrounded, and
wherein is a rich mine of intellectual wealth! Of these studies it may be truly said in the impressive words of
Cicero, (as I myself have proved and Am Now Dailt Proving,)—"*Hœc studia adolescentiam alunt, senectutem
oblectant.*"—These studies invigorate youth and solace old age.

"Ye who love the haunts of Nature,—
Love the shadow of the forest,
Love the wind among the branches.—

* * * *

Ye whose hearts are fresh and simple,
Who have faith in God and Nature;
Who believe, that in all ages
Every human heart is human,—
That in even savage bosoms
There are longings, yearnings, strivings
For the good they comprehend not;
That the feeble hands and helpless,
Groping blindly in the darkness,
Touch God's right hand in that darkness
And are lifted up and strengthened;—
Listen to this simple story."—

LONGFELLOW.

**PAPER I.**

**Memorandum of my First Journey to the Ruahine Mountain Range, and of the Flora of that Region.**
With Additional and Copious Notes.

"One is useful to science, however, not only by work finished but also by work began. I will therefore make a commencement, though I may advance but a few steps."


"Pleon hemisu pantos." = The half is more than the whole.

HESIOD.

BEING, the only European who has crossed the Ruahine mountain range, and that several times, (and at an early date in the history of the Colony of New Zealand,) I have been often asked to give some account of what I had seen there.

It was in the summer of 1843 that I first saw this part of New Zealand (Hawke’s Bay). In that year the late Bishop of Waiaupu (Dr. Williams) and myself—as Missionaries of the Church Missionary Society—left Poverty Bay in a small schooner for Port Nicholson (Wellington), intending to make the unknown and somewhat adventurous journey from that place overland and on foot back to Poverty Bay. (I having, also, only then recently arrived at Poverty Bay overland and on foot from Wharekahika (Hicks’ Bay); where, in landing in stormy weather, the ship’s boat was upset in the breakers, and I had to swim for life to the shore; and shortly afterwards had the further consolation of seeing the vessel I had come in down the coast, that was at anchor outside, cut her cable, and sail away S. before the gale, leaving me behind!) But after a whole fortnight at sea, battling with the adverse winds and waves, and suffering no small hardship from want of water, to say nothing of peril, which on two occasions was imminent, (ship in great distress, every sail torn to rags, passengers batten down, helm lashed, and ship given over!) we were glad to be landed on the shores—any where—and this was effected at Castle Point, then wholly unknown, entering the little cove with a narrow entrance of only a few yards directly under “the Castle”; and this we only just barely managed to do with extreme difficulty, after several hours severe pulling against the strong West wind blowing off the land in our very teeth! with only 3 oars, (one having early snapped in pulling,) and ten men, a large dog, and two big watercasks in the boat! At first, we had made the high perpendicular and weedy cliffs of the [unclear: is let] (at high tide) Kapuaarangi, which forms the N. head of the little cove, and there, under its lee, we breathed a while, and our captain was for trying to scale the smooth and slippery precipice—all hands! not knowing what it might turn out to be to the N. and S. of that cliff, himself and his men (that I say not all in the boat) being quite worn out; and afterwards, when we had landed on the sandy beach and the boat drawn up, the captain climbed to the top of “the Castle” to see after his ship, and lo! she was hull down! which caused him greatly to despair. It was, indeed, a time to be remembered. Landing, we named with gladness this snug little place, “Deliverance Cove”; being, as we supposed, the first Europeans who had trod its sandy shores. Then we anxiously sought about for water, which we had for some days greatly needed, and only found it by digging in the sand at the base of the cliffs, to which spot our attention was drawn by some small water-loving plants growing there;—little dreaming there was a small river a short distance further N. Our Captain having filled his two huge watercasks with water and sand, sailed away bravely before the wind into the main ocean in quest of his vanished ship! which he fortunately found. From that place, or rather from Mataikona,—a village where several Natives (nearly 100) were then residing who received us very hospitably—though they had little to give us save pigs, after a fortnight’s sojourn among them,—we travelled on slowly to Ahuriri [unclear: in] Hawke’s Bay, the present Napier. During our stay there we sadly needed several common necessaries,—as potatoes, flour, tea, sugar, soap, and salt!

I have particularly emphasised "salt";—this was for some time our greatest [unclear: want] we could not relish our unsavoury pork for want of it, and were beginning to feel the need of it. At length we hit on the plan of boiling down sea-water; the natives of the [unclear: plan] having a tolerably good-sized iron pot, which they lent us. At first, however, we were puzzled with the mixing of the two salts,—crystals of Sulphate of Magnesia (Epsom [unclear: such] and of Chloride of Soda (common salt),—which made our Salt terribly bitter; but this [unclear: we] ultimately got over by watching for the exact moment of crystallization, as the salt of [unclear: Such] crystallized earlier than that of Magnesia, and so, by quickly removing the pot from [unclear: the] fire, and pouring away the bittern, we succeeded in getting a little tolerably edible salt, [unclear: at] which we rejoiced! but it required several boilings and evaporations to obtain even a [unclear: soul] quantity; partly, perhaps, owing to the freshness of the sea-water along shore, [unclear: Who] we got our salt and added to it the
green fruit of the N.Z. Pepper (*Piper excelsum*), we wonderfully improved our cooking of pork! For plates and cups we used the large shells of the Paaua (*Haliotis iris*), plugging the holes with bits of wood; while, for not a few of: little common things, we realized, that "Necessity was the mother of invention."

Our large company of travelling Natives from Poverty Bay, (who, from food and water falling short, had nearly all been landed long before at Pamotaeo,—a bluff near Cape Palliser,—in the night when the W. wind went down, and who had thence gone on to Wellington, expecting to find the ship there), arrived at the end of a fortnight with a few supplies. It was during that journey, and while in Hawke's Bay, that I first saw the Ruahine range, looking sublimely grand under its crest of virgin snow! This, alone, was to me a strange unusual sight; for although I had lived 10 years at the N. (Bay of Islands), and had also visited the E. Cape district, and had twice travelled from Hicks' Bay to Poverty Bay by the coast, and from poverty Bay through the interior back to the Bay of Islands, I had never seen snow in N. Zealand before. It was then, too, that I first heard of the natives living secluded in the interior, beyond the snowy Ruahine mountain range, in the country lying between it and the famed central volcanic mountain Tongariro.

On that occasion Bishop "Williams and myself travelled together to To "Wairoa (Clyde of the present day) when we separated; the Bishop going overland to his home at Poverty Bay, and I going to mine in the far North, by a long inland circuitous and unknown route; first to Waikare Moana, Ruatahuna, and Te Whaiiti; thence, returning again to the E. Coast, to Whakataane, Maketu and Tauranga; and thence again inland by a zig-zag route from coast to coast,—to Waikato (down the river to its mouth) and by beach to Manukau, thence to Kaipara, Waipu and Whangarei,—on to the Bay of Islands and Te Waimate. A copy of my dotted track on this occasion, which I had taken by compass and mapped, with the names and positions of places and rivers (till then unknown), was sent by Bishop Selwyn to London, and was subsequently engraved and published by Arrow-smith in the maps of New Zealand.

In the following year, 1844, I finally left the Bay of Islands, and came to Hawke's Bay to reside. During the summer I saw pretty nearly all the Maoris of the immediate neighbourhood, dwelling between Tangoio and Patangata, who were then numerous; and I also wished to see, or to know something more of, those dwelling in the inland Patea country, beyond the Ruahine mountain range, of whom I had formerly heard. Of them, however, I could learn but little, save that they were believed to be there, isolated completely from the outer world, and that no way, or track was open, or known, by which they could be reached, except the long roundabout one by way of Taupo lake; which, it was further said, would be of itself 2—3 weeks journey. For a long time I could not hear of a guide, or of any one who really knew anything of the mountain passes, which evidently had never been visited from this (the Eastern) side. At last I found a middle-aged maori named Mawhatu, who, when very young, had been *unclear: takes* away prisoner into the interior from Hawke's Bay by a fighting party, and who had subsequently escaped from slavery. Mawhatu had therefore gone twice *(unclear: in)* (going and returning) through the mountain forests; but, as several years had elapsed since, and the journey was difficult, for some time he was very unwilling to go. The resident natives, too, especially the principal chiefs, Te Hapuka, Tareha, Puhara, Te Moananui, and others, were greatly against my going thither, believing I should never return; representing the mountain passes as being frightful, where several maoris had from time to time been lost through attempting the journey; particularly a *taua* (an armed party), which had left Taupo to invade Hawke's Bay, south, a few years ago, and were all lost to a man in the dreadful passes on the snowy summits, where their bones now lay bleaching! And, also, though many years before,—a famed ancestor of theirs, named Te Rangitauira, who, in peacefully travelling from Patea, to Hawke's Bay, (and yet not by the mountains,) had also miserably perished with his people in a snow-storm.

For a further notice of this event, and of this ancient chief, see "Transactions N.Z Institute", vol. XI. p. 86.

However, by dint of perseverance, I succeeded in getting Mawhatu, *my [unclear: quas]* guide, and some other stout young natives to accompany me; and we were to start soon after the snow should be completely gone,—by which time I should also have finished building my chimney, a matter of very great importance to me. The snow was late that summer before it wholly disappeared; it was still there glistening white in the mornings' sunbeams up to the middle of January, 1845.

And here I would make a short digression, which may not prove uninteresting to Hawke's Bay settlers in general, however improbable such may seem to not a few of the later ones among them. I have mentioned the trackless mountain forests of the Ruahine range; but, if anything different, some of the open *unclear: swampy* plains near the sea in Hawke's Bay were worse,—all but impassable. I may particularly notice, in passing, the present well-known extensive grassy level plain lying between Farndon, or the sea, and Pakowhai, a long
peninsula bounded by water on three sides. Words would fail me to shew the original state of that land! At this time I resided at Waitangi, a place near to what is now called Farndon,—the two large Fir trees (Pinus pinaster) and also the [unclear: new] of "Cabbage trees" (Condylina australis), raised from seed and planted there by me, mark the spot. The principal native villages near me, were at Waipureks (East Clive), and Taanenuiarangi, Whakatu, and Pakowhai, on the banks of the river Ngaruroro; this last village though greatly reduced and altered still remains. In those days there was no communication overland between those villages and Waitangi, and Te Awapuni, (the large maori pa, or village, nearby, on the W. bank of the Waitangi creek where Karaitiana and his sub-tribe long resided,) simply because it was almost impossible to travel through the dense interlaced old jungle of "Cutting-Grass," (Arundo conspicua,) and other swamp-loving plants, as the N.Z. Flax (Phormium) and several large Carices, which grew there. The maoris came generally in small parties, almost every day, (indeed, too often!) from those villages to the Station; everything being new and strange to them, and having nothing to do; but they invariably came and returned in their small canoes, taking advantage of the tide to paddle up and down the river. I have travelled a good deal in New Zealand, but I never knew of a worse piece of low country to get through; neither have I seen anywhere else "Cutting-Grass" of so large a size, and growing so closely together, and forming such a dense mass, so that a man, a cow, or a horse, could not be observed even in looking down from a height (as the top of a house or a long ladder, or a chimney), when among the immense tussocks. Hence, too, it was, that I lost some of my first few cattle, before the place got cleared.

See Note A, appendix.

The whole of the low delta, or tongue of land, lying between the two rivers, Ngaruroro and Waitangi, was rigidly tabooed (tapu) by the Maori owners, as a wild pig, and swamp hen (Porphyrio melanotics), and eel preserve; hence it had never been cleared or burnt: off, and the sun did not shine upon the soil, which was just as wet at midsummer as in winter, with water and slippery mud in the narrow deep pig channels or I rate, and pools among the tussocks. I well recollect on two occasions, when out Tisiting sick natives at Pakowhai, having also domestic natives from the neigh-I; borhood with me, and having lost the tide were returning overland rather late in the day, we were actually obliged, after much fruitless effort and sorely against I our wills, (being utterly unprovided with any thing,) to remain out in the swamp ill night!—with wet feet, hungry, no fire, and sadly cut hands,—through not being able to find our way through the impervious jungle. I have often of late years asked myself, when contemplating from the hill (Scinde Island) the rising township of Napier, and the inland level grassy plains with their many houses, gardens and improvements, and the fast growing town of Hastings,—which of B the two wonderful alterations, or changes,—the building of the town of Napier, I or the great transformation in those swamps,—I considered the most surprising, and I have always given it in favour of the plains.—And this great change was bought about much earlier than I could reasonably have anticipated, through several causes operating together, viz.—my own few cattle,—the introduction of grass and clover seeds, and, also, of wheat for the natives,—and through the natives around generally embracing Christianity; the chiefs taking off the [unclear: tops] from the land, and so burning off the jungle,—their catching their numerous wild pigs which infested it, and their cutting and scraping the flax, for sale to the shipping and traders,—who soon after my residence came to Ahuriri to trade.

The question may reasonably arise,—Why did I make such a bad selection for a residence, seeing that at that early period I had the whole land open before me?—But [unclear: then] was no choice in it! And it was only after some days spent in talking over it, with the five principal chiefs of the S. side of Hawke's Bay and their relatives, that we (Bishop Williams and myself) got that small piece of land (10 acres) assigned at all. And it was gravely and perhaps (as things then were amongst them) judiciously decided, that I could only have a piece allotted me there; such being a tabooed spot (as I have already stated, and so belonging to them all, and therefore in residing there I should be equally open to them all; for if I had been located on a better site near to one of their pas, then I should be considered as belonging to that sub-tribe resident therein, and so not free to all,—especially in their often jealous squabbling among themselves; and as to my residing any where inland—away from one of their pas—such was not to be thought of, and could not be allowed. At the same time, my business was to be as much as possible among the bulk of the people.

But to return:—Having made ready all my little preparations, and got my travelling party of six baggage-bearers together on Monday, the 3rd February, the next morning at 8 we started from Waitangi,—and after a long and weari-some journey by Okokoro (near the present Pakipaki) and the Taheke (on the E. side of Poukawa lake

In those days the only narrow maori track inland lay on that side of the lake. No maori then lived at To Aute, which was all a dense extensive forest; neither was there any road or track that way, from Te Aute (where Te Hapuku's pa and marble bust [unclear: is] to) Kaikoura and Waipawa. 

), we gained the islet in the lake Rotoatara by 8 p.m., all hands being pretty well knocked up; the whole country being so rough and wet, and the slippery maori foot-track through the dense scrub so very narrow!
(from their turning-in their feet, and, being without shoes, never deviating from it,) that it often caused me to slip, and to stumble right and left.

I noticed but few interesting plants this day; among them, however, was a *Veronica* with blue flowers, which grew in the water and was not unlike our English *Veronica Beccabunga*, or *V. Anagallis*; (I mention this particularly, as I fear, it has of late years quite disappeared from this district, not having seen a plant any where for more than 20 years;) —a couple of *Carices* which were new to me (*C. C. ternaria*, and *breviculmis*);—the scarce fern *Nephroidium thelypteris*, var. *squamulosum*, which I had hitherto only observed in two places in N. Zealand, *viz.* near Paihia in the Bay of Islands, and in a bog near Mount Edgecombe in the Bay of Plenty; (this also has long disappeared;) the fragrant little New Zealand Mint (*Mentha Cunninghamii*), named by Bentham after its discoverer my clear Botanical friend Allan Cunningham,—this sweet little plant grew profusely on a grassy hillock at Te Taheke, I had not before seen it so far S.; but this year (1884) it was again detected by me in the 70-mile Bush, between Norsewood and Danneverke; and, in- the same neighbourhood, in damp spots, *Mazus pumilio*, (or a smaller closely allied species,) and *Mimulus repens*,—both rare plants; indeed this sub-order of Antirrhinidœ is but poorly represented in N. Zealand;—and, also, a small peculiar plant, a new species of *Nertera* (*N. setulosa*), which I obtained at Okororo, and which is very rare; I never found it save in that one spot until last year (1883) when I again met with it at Whaka-ruatepa between Matamau and Danneverke.

After a restless night, the next morning I found myself too unwell to rise early, but as I wished to get over the range before Sunday (so as to spend that day quietly somewhere at Patea), we started afresh at 11 o’clock, and travelling slowly on in a Westerly direction halted at sunset on the banks of the river Mangaonuku, in Te Ruatanihwa plain.

Thursday morning was ushered in by heavy rain! which, to my great regret, continued to pour throughout the whole day.—My situation here was very uncomfortable, for my old tattered summer tent (as we were not near any forest and not carrying poles) had been but slightly pitched, supposing when we halted that we were only here for a few hours, and intending to leave early in the morning,—but there was nothing better. To add to one’s misery was the oft-repeated statements of my natives,—that the rivers would be flooded and so prove impassable after this downpour!—they were already getting disheartened.

A night of heavy rain was followed by a dirty-looking lowering morning, but as we hoped the rain was over we started at 9 a.m., making directly across the great plain, through the long dripping grass, every now and then stumbling across some wild pigs, which here were both numerous and large, and in some instances were quite prepared to stand and shew fight! which they invariably did whenever we came suddenly upon them without their seeing us, or we, indeed, them. On reaching the river Waipaoa,—which we did not far from the present I Tillage of Tikokino,—(there were no natives residing in those parts then,) we travelled up its stony bed, wading across it with difficulty several times, as it was nearly three feet deep and rapid withal. At 3 p.m. we reached the junction of this river with the river Maakaroro, and proceeded up the stony bed of the latter until 6 p.m., when, it being nearly dark where we were, we halted for the light in the bed of the river.

I was gratified in finding several new and interesting plants on the banks of this river. Here the drooping *Carmichaelia odorata* (which I had first detected in 1843, inland from Te Wairoa,) grew plentifully on the immediate banks of the stream, filling the air with its fragrance;—here, also, especially on low banks subject to winter floods, was the pretty *Euphrasia cuneata*, nestling in graceful little clumps among the larger shrubs and trees; this plant presents a really elegant appearance in its native homes, but I fear it will prove impatient of culture in the open garden; I often tried it and failed;—on the shaded cliffy sides of the river two or three species of the peculiar Orchideous genus *Corysanthes* (*C.C. triloba*, *rivularis*, and *macrantha*,) were more plentiful than I had ever seen them, and of large size, shewing that this was their true habitat; provocingly, however, they were mostly found in the cliffs over deep water, in the angles and bendings of the stream, where they were snugly ensconced in their mossy beds, and could not readily be got at;—while here and there among the cliffs, whereever a rill of water was found trickling down its stony and mossy bed, the elegant white *Oxalis* (fitly named by Allan Cunningham its discoverer, *catactæ* ) was to be found;—

"Where flows the fountain silently  
It blooms a lovely flower;  
White as the purest virgin snow,  
It speaks like kind fidelity,  
Through fortune’s sun and shower:"

this plant, said to be the same as a species found at Cape Horn, is now the *O. Magellanica* of Dr. Hooker's Hand Book. Although Sir W. Hooker, who knew the Cape Horn Plant, had published this species as a new one and under A. Cunningham's name of *O. catarractae* in his *Icones Plantarum*, vol. V. pl. 418, (in 1842,) giving also a highly characteristic drawing of it. I also detected this graceful plant growing very near the summit of the range, among the snow in full bloom. The whole of the N.Z. species of the genus *Oxalis* need revision: I believe that several valid species will be found. A. Cunningham, in [unclear: 1839] (who knew only the Northern plants,) made 9 species; those I also subsequently found, and I am pretty certain of having discovered two additional ones since here at the S. Dr. Hooker, however, gives only two species as belonging to N.Z., although he allows of several varieties. Further on, in the thickets on the river's banks, I noticed that pretty and neat species of Myrtle, [unclear: Myrtas] *pedunculata*, bearing a profusion of small edible fruit, its hard stony seeds however, are a great drawback to its use; growing with it was the very handsome Southern species (or variety, according to Dr. Hooker,) of *Hoheria, (H. [unclear: popalnea], var. lanceolata,)* which when fully in blossom is a most lovely flowering tree; here, also, it was that I discovered another species of Carmichelia (*C. flagelliformis*), a tall shrub of peculiar growth, with long pendent thong-like branches, bearing only few flowers. Very fine specimens of the large leaved *Fagus (F. fusca, var. = "Black Birch" of the colonists,) were also com- mon on both sides of the stream; and the neat little species of *Arthropodium (A. candidurn)*, which I had first detected at Tolaga Bay in 1838, was not (infrequent in rocky spots on the river's sides; but wholly unlike its allied species, *A. cirrhatum*, in never being found growing in tussocks or clumps.

Early the next morning we resumed our journey, as before keeping in the bed of the river, and every now and then wading its cold stream from side to side, so as to escape the prostrate trees, and drift wood, and boulders, and to have a little easier walking. Several times, both yesterday and to-day, we were so dissatisfied with our course, from being continually wet and very cold from the icy water, and without the rays of the sun in the deep narrow bed of the river, and also from the little progress we were making in spite of all our continued efforts,—that we tried to force our way through the thickets and "Bush" growing on the river's banks, but found that we could not get on that way, so had to take to the cold river again. At 3 p.m. we arrived at what appeared to be the immediate base of the upper mountain which rose steep before us; here two rivers met, each nearly of the same size, and coming from opposite directions; we tried both for a short distance but found their beds so narrow and steep, and partly choked with dead trees and shrubs, and masses of stone, that we gave up all thoughts of going any further in that way, and so prepared with a good heart to climb the face of the narrow tongue of land which lay between the two streams. It was easy to see, here, that our guide Mawhatu was at a loss; evidently he had been in the main river below before, but where to turn off from, or to leave, it, he knew not. About an hour before we had arrived at the fork, we had on a sudden a fine clear view of the summit towering high above us, yet, apparently, not very distant; it seemed a round-topped hill, and is called, by the old Maoris, Te Atua-o-mahuru.

See Note B, appendix.

This had been often pointed out to me when at Waitangi (it being one of the conspicuous peaks of the range,) as the head over which our course lay; it had now, however, a slight coating of snow on it, no doubt from the late rains. There it stood alone, uprearing its proud crest in solemn grandeur!—

"Soaring snow-clad through its native sky,
In the wild pomp of mountain majesty."

But the sight of that snow there on the ridge before us did not increase our comfortable feelings and thoughts.

As we were now leaving the river and entering into the dense mountain forest, I travelled with my pocket compass in my hand, having taken bearings occasionally during the day in the river, where also, we had, at times, seen for a few moments the sun peering down through the trees. It was of no use now (as it then seemed to us in our happy ignorance) to think of drawing-back, although had we known clearly what was before us we should certainly have done so,—therefore we persevered and kept on steadily in as straight a course as we could until 6 p.m., when, it being nearly dark, we halted in the forest, not knowing where we were; but believing we had not much further to go to gain the wished for summit. I immediately sent two of my companions to seek for water, which we had greatly needed for the last three hours, and fortunately they found some in a declivity in the side of the spur not very far off. This spring, I afterwards learned, is called Te Wai-o-kongenge—fit name!—

That is, The spring, or water of weariness,—or, of being quite worn out!

Our journey this day was a very fatiguing and disagreeable one all the way we had come, for it lay in the river's bed, either in the water or along its [unclear: stony] and rocky banks, which gradually contracted. In
some places the sides of the river were perpendicular, and in others impending, and from 100 to 250 feet high, with fine forests of *Fagus* on the top; the trees of which were continually falling down along with the earth into the river beneath. Here and there immense mass of earth had slipped quietly down the upright cliffs bringing the large trees with it, standing as they originally grew; these had been arrested in their descent when about half-way down, and there they stood in the side of the cliff fair and flourishing; in two or three spots during the day I noticed a double slip or subsidence of this nature, in which there were two tiers of living trees standing in the side of the cliff; adding not a little of a novel and picturesque nature to the scene. I had fully intended in passing-on to take on my return a sketch of this unique landscape, but (as it will be seen) pressing circumstances prevented me.

I had carefully examined the earth and stones throughout the whole journey up this river on both sides, and also for some short distance up the two smaller ones at the fork, but I found no indications of anything save the common rocks the limestone formation of Hawke's Bay had long disappeared; the cliffs being composed of a yellowish argillaceous clay with red veins, reminding me of those of the Bay of Islands and of Pencarrow Head in Cook's Straits. In one place only in the Eastern bank did I discover a few traces of fossils, not however in limestone (as is so common in Hawke's Bay) but in a kind of dark indurated clay, resembling the clay formation of the East Cape; but though the matrix was not very hard, I could not get a single specimen perfect or nearly so; and as I knew I should return by the same course, I left them for my return journey down the river.

I noticed several pretty spots during the day: some under the fine large spreading Beeches (*Fagus fusca* = "Black Birch"), having the ground beneath dry and carpetted with their own deciduous leaves, and with a sheltering bank and nook at hand, strongly reminded me of Milton's wish:

—"*When the sun begins to fling
His flaring beams, mo, goddess, bring
To arched walks of twilight groves,
And shadows brown, that Sylvan loves,*

* ***

*There in close covert by some brook,
Where no profaner eye may look,—
And may at last my weary age
Find out the peaceful hermitage,
The hairy gown and mossy cell,
Where I may sit and rightly spell
Of every star that heaven doth shew,
And every herb that sips the dew."—

Other spots, where we briefly rested,—at the foot of a handsome tall Beech tree by the side of the brawling stream,—brought Gray's stanza fresh to mind:

"*There at the foot of yonder nodding Beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
And pore upon the brook that babbles by.*"

We passed several fine symmetrical Beeches of this species on the banks of this river both yesterday and to-day, some were of a very large size having straight clean trunks, while their foliage, etc., looked charming. The poet's truthful description of the Beech of the N. hemisphere has often appeared to me, on many occasions when travelling through the Beech woods inland, to be just as applicable here; for instance, when he says:

—"*bursts are seen
Of beauty on the beech tree; a rich shade
Of crimson teeming life; buds sanguine hued,*"
As though the sunset clouds had o'er them play'd
Until they left their dye upon the cone
Tipping each slender branch with beauty all their own."

In Botany this day in the bed of the river I did but little: near the cliff at the fork I noticed a fine plant of *Dianella intermedia* with its lovely turquoise blue berries; the first I had seen since I left the Bay of Islands, where, in fern lands it is not unfrequent; I welcomed it as an old acquaintance! A *Loranthus*, too I detected parasitical in a tree in the side of the stream, which was new to me, of this I took a specimen, intending to take more on my return; this species is, I think, *L. tenuiflorus* of Dr. Hooker. On first climbing the steep ascent and entering into the forest I was surprised to find the sweet-smelling epiphytical Orchideous plant *Farina mucronata* growing very profusely on the damp fallen crags, where it had also assumed a short grassy appearance. Subsequently, at Cape Turakirae, (the S. Cape of Palliser Bay,) I again detected this Orchideous plant in similar situations in stony hollows among crags; and growing with it a closely allied genus, *Dendrobium*, (perhaps *D. Cunninghamii*, but with undeveloped flowers and apparently distinct,) both wearing the same low stunted cespitose grassy appearance, but very healthy.

Of these two Orchids I have recently (1882) made two new species, *Earina* [unclear: quandrilsbata] and *Dendrobiun Lessonii*, having last year re-discovered them growing pretty profusely and in flower in a few spots in the "70-mile Bush." (Vide Trans. N.Z. Inst., vol. XV., pp. 325—328, for full description.

At first I thought it must be a new species, as I had never before found it off a tree, where it usually grows long. With it, also, grew plentifully, a species of *Astelia* bearing short leaves, which I considered new, and from its prominent markings I named it *A. trinerra*. This species is possibly included in *A. nerrosa*, of Dr. Hooker, from which species, however, I think it will be found distinct. This peculiar and eminently N.Z. genus, greatly needs careful revision. Here, too, pendent from its tree, in which it grew parasitically, hung a most lovely species of *Loranthus* (*L. flavidus*)—the elegant leaves of this plant are of a glaucous light-green colour with a dark margin, and greatly add to its unique beauty in its living state. I never found this species in any other locality; but, subsequently, (whenever I passed this way, which I did several times in the following years,) I took specimens repeatedly from this one plant; I was much pleased with this discovery. Ascending in those forests I found a new herbaceous *Senecio* (*S. lagopuss*), with fine large yellow flowers and peculiar simple cordate leaves, growing plentifully. We soon left the large serrated leaved *Fagus* with its rough elm-like bark behind and got among another species, *F. Solandri*, having small entire leaves and smooth bark; this is the common tree of those forests, its trunk is literally covered with elegant *Hepaticœ* and beautiful foliaceous and coralloid and other *Lichens*, of several genera and of many colours, and all charmingly healthy,—prominent among them are the genera *Sticta*, *Parmelia*, and *Sphœrophoron*, with many smaller kinds. Linnæus has truly said,—"Natura maxime miranda in minimis."—

"Some are reddish, some brown, some grey, and some black,
And they are puckered, edged, button'd, or fringed, front and back:
Some are lying like leather close under your feet,
Some waving from trees in the forest you'll meet."

—MISS TWAMLEY.

Lichens are perennial; they also grow very slowly and attain to an extreme age. It has been stated by eminent Lichenologists, that some species growing on the primitive rocks of the highest mountain ranges in the World, are estimated to have attained an age of at least 1000 years; and one author mentions, "after the lapse of nearly half a century, having observed the same specimen of [unclear: Sticts] pulmonaria on the same spot of the same tree." I myself have noticed in the mountain woods some that I had early marked, as having increased but very little in size during many years. This Order of plants, humble and minute though it appears to be,—

"Holds a rank
Important in the plan of Him who framed
This scale of beings; holds a rank which, lost,
Would break the chain and leave behind a gap
Which Nature's self would rue."—
On many of these trees grew parasitically another fine *Loranthus* (*L. tetrapetalus*) in dense bushes bearing crimson flowers in profusion, so that, in some more open spots among the closely-growing trees the whole forest wore a reddish glare, especially when such was so situated on a western slope as to be heightened by the beams of the setting sun. I have noticed this on several occasions in passing through those woods; and, also, that at, or near, sunset, all flowers or leaves of a red colour, throw out, as it were, a profuse kind of red glow at that particular hour: this I have also often observed here in our Napier gardens. Another peculiarity pertaining to this species of *Loranthus* was its generally being found at a pretty uniform height from the ground, some 15—20 feet, seldom lower or higher. At the spot where we halted I discovered a fine bushy: Compositaceous shrub of stout diffuse growth, having peculiar dark-green leaves, thick broad and serrated, reminding me at first sight, of those of the *Hydrangea*; this plant has been named by Dr. Hooker *Olearia Colensoi*.

It was now Saturday night, and, our slender supper and prayers over, we sat for a while in the deepening gloom of the forest to talk, or, rather, to ruminate moodily over our position.

"Within the solemn wood,
Solemn and silent everywhere!
Nature with folded hands seemed there,
Kneeling at her evening prayer!"

Our supply of food was running short, and there was nothing eatable in those forests. We, however, supposed and hoped we had not much farther to go ere we should reach the summit; and then to descend to the native villages on the western side, of which we had heard and where we looked for food and welcome, would not take us long. One of my party was distantly related through his mother with the Patea tribe, although he had not seen any of them for many years, if it all! And so, after some talk, we arranged, that he (Paora) and my quasi guide, Mawhatu, should rise at break of day and start away without any load over the mountain tops for Patea; and, if possible, get some of those natives residing there to come to see us, bringing a supply of provisions with them. We had also feared that the mountain passes if still under snow would prove impassable to my baggage-bearers.

Without doubt we all slept soundly that night, being helped thereto by the constant serenading of the Weka (*Ocydromus australis*) and the Owl (*[unclear: Athene] Novœ Zealandiœ*)! No other sound was heard, for there was no wind, not even the plaintive sough of the night-airs; and I could not help thinking, with Cowper, that "Sounds inharmonious in themselves and harsh,
Yet heard in scenes where peace for ever reign
And only there, please highly for their sake."

And also, at intervals, that,—" Silence in its depth speaks."

We, who were to remain there, did not wake and get up till 10, a.m., and when we did we found ourselves completely invaded! A large blue-bottle fly inhabits that zone of forest in countless numbers, and is most audacious and teasing. Our blankets and woollen clothing had been attacked and were literally filled with its eggs; the hair of the natives' heads had also similarly suffered. We were not long in doing all we could to save ourselves, our provisions, and our clothing from this new foe, which I, in all my travelling, had not before met with. Had it not been for these blue-bottles we should have passed a most tranquil day of rest! everything there was so delightfully cool and still, fit emblem of the Sabbath; barring the plague of the flies, it literally was a "calm and secure retreat
Of sacred silence, rest's eternal seat!"

"—calm and secure retreat
Of sacred silence, rest's eternal seat!"

We left the tent, &c., and retreated some distance into the dry woods, and there sat on the soft thick moss, where we held Divine Service,—in all likelihood the first Christian service on that mountain. Here " a dim
"The groves wore God's first temples. Ere man learned
To hew the shaft and lay the architrave,
And spread the roof above them; ere he framed
The lofty vaults to gather, and roll back
The sound of anthems,—in the darkling wood,
Amidst the cool and silence he knelt down,
And offered to the Mightiest solemn thanks
And supplication. For his simple heart
Might not resist the sacred influences,
That, from the stilly twilight of the place,
And from the grey old trunks that high in heaven
Mingled their mossy boughs, and from the sound
Of the invisible breath that swayed at once
All their green tops, stole over him, and bowed
His spirit with the thought of boundless power
And inacessible Majesty. Ah, why
Should we, in the world's riper years, neglect
GOD's ancient sanctuaries, and adore
Only among the crowd and under roofs,
That our frail hands have raised!
—————Be it ours to meditate
In these calm shades Thy milder majesty
And to the beautiful order of Thy works,
Learn to conform our lives."——

We spent the day quietly, sometimes reading together (in the N.T. our only vernacular book), sometimes thinking on and talking of our two absent companions; no one caring to move about. The water too, of our little spring, taken a little higher up, was delightfully cool and good tasted,—indeed delicious. My poor companions, however, had suffered much from their long walk with naked feet over those horrid stones and so much wading! and having but little to eat, and tobacco not yet being in fashion among them, they preferred sleeping to talking; so I was left in great measure to my own resources.

"To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
To slowly trace the forest's shady scene,
Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,
And mortal foot hath ne'er or rarely been;
To climb the trackless mountain all unseen,
With the wild flock that never needs a fold;
Alone o'er steeps and foaming falls to lean;
This is not solitude; 'tis but to hold
Converse with Nature's charms, and view her stores unroll'd."

Towards evening my friends were all on the qui vive, expecting every moment to bear the absent ones returning; but, after many false alarms, and no small display of superstitious fears on their part, dark night again enshrouded us, and they went to sleep,—leaving me once more to my meditations.—

"There is a quiet spirit in these woods,
That dwells where'er the gentle land wind blows.
—————And here, amid
The silent majesty of these deep woods
The next morning we were awake and up very early,—to escape our foes, which commenced their persecution with the sun, and to receive our absent friends and, it might be, visitors; for no Maori likes to be taken unawares. Our scanty meal and prayers ended, we agreed to go on towards the summit, thinking it was near, and hoping soon to meet those whom we were so anxiously expecting. Leaving our tent and all baggage there, and taking our axe with us, (my natives each only wearing a shirt,) we started. Hour after hour, however, passed in arduous toil before we gained the top; the primeval forest being so filled with decaying trees and prostrate limbs and tangled shrubs and herbage, that we could scarcely get through it. We had some difficulty also in finding and keeping in the track of our two companions who had preceded us; this, in an untrodden forest is curious, and deserves mention;—the guide, or foremost one, (if he is right in his course,) every now and then half breaks through the top or conspicuous side branch of a shrub or small tree, and allows it to hang down; this operation, called pawhatiwhati,

That is, Touch and break gently.

is of great use to those behind, and to strangers and stragglers, who, of course, look out for it, taking care not to do the same. And these marked trees so remain and are of service for several years, as I have often proved. Care, however, must be taken not to confound those broken or bent purposely by man, with those broken accidentally by big falling branches of the higher trees, or bent down by the weight of the snow in the winter. Certain thick stemmed and tough shrubs, in particular those having large leaves, are well fitted for the purpose, and are always selected, if at hand:—as various species of Panax, and of Coprosma;—for the half broken and reverted branch dries gradually and so retains its leaves on it, which, after a little experience, is easily caught by the sharp eye of the Maori. At times (in after years) when puzzled as to our course in the forests, I have both known of, and joined in, a consultation over the broken branch of a shrub;—whether it was done purposely by man, or accidentally through natural causes; and times have been with me and my party when even life depended on it! In the event of branches wrongly broken, and so having to retrace one's steps and alter one's course,—first, the hanging branches are plucked away, and, secondly, a handful of tops of leafy branches, or big fenns is placed on the moss athwart that erring path or opening, which serves to warn those who come after; this also remains in tact for years.

There is yet another means of forming and finding a track through those mountain forests, particularly of those high up where Fagus Solandri is the common or only tree. For in those sub-alpine woods the trees sometimes are widely apart, and there the ground is densely carpetted with an erect closely-growing perennial moss, resembling in texture a Turkey carpet. Some of [unclear: grow] un trodden undisturbed spots have appeared to me so enchantingly beautiful, especially when extra adorned with the lovely compact Hymenophyllum [unclear: feras], that I have thought it a desecration to tread on or to disturb them. This [unclear: moss] if trodden on by a travelling party never afterwards rises to its former [unclear: pristine] state; not that it dies, or that the eye of man can detect the difference,—the difference is detected only by the touch, by the practised foot of the woodsman. I was some years in learning before I succeeded in mastering it, but I eventually did so; but then I wore boots. Here, in this case, the only enemy is the wild pig; but, fortunately, he does not generally keep so high up on the mountains. [Vide, vol. I. "Transactions N.Z. Institute", 1st Edition, Essay "On the Maori Races," by the writer, p. 6:—and, 2nd Edition, p. 342.]

In our ascent we passed over two of the worst of the "passes," and they were bad indeed! frightfully so. One in particular, as if an avalanche of half the mountain's side had suddenly slipped down into the distant gulph below, leaving a ragged razor-back edge of loose loamy sandy soil at a very acute angle. On this, which extended for 300 yards, connecting two peaks, nothing grew, as the sand and earth was continually rolling down. The old Hawke's Bay natives had informed me, that the bones of a taua (a fighting party) composed of some: 12—20 men lay bleaching at the bottom; the taua having attempted the pass when snow lay on it, through which they were carried off their legs down to the bottom and miserably perished! Some of my companions, whose hearts beat high on arriving at the famed spot where the deadly enemies of their tribe had been lost, declared, on gazing down, that they could see some of their white bones below jutting up! which tale they told with great relish and with many embellishments on their return. The stream which ran bounding through the narrow valley beneath was so far distant, that, though we could see its waters sparkling in the sun, we could not hear it. This pass was never attempted in the winter season, nor yet immediately after heavy rains or the melting of the snow, nor in windy weather.

In after years I crossed and recrossed this pass several times, the last time being in May, 1852,—and...
always, by taking care and only travelling in the summer season, with-out loss or great danger. On two occasions, however, we met with little adventures, which may be here mentioned as illustrations of the place. One happened in returning late that season from Patea; we had seen from where we were at Maketu (a village of Patea), that E: snow had fallen on the range, (which fell as rain where we then were,) and so we had to wait a few days until it was melted; this taking place we started. On the pass, however, I, in boots, slipped down a yard or two, but holding my ground through my long and tough maori spear, which I invariably carried, was helped out.—The second also happened on returning to Hawke's Bay on another occasion,—when one of my maoris, who had often gone with me, seeing the pass looking so clear and firm and tempting, with the sun, too, shining on it, took a run down the high slope from the "W. side leading to it, and keeping too much down was carried off his legs by the treacherous wet and slippery debris for a moment we feared for him, but I called out to him to stop, if possible, and make no exertion, when, by joining hands and ropes and with my tent poles, we got him safely up on surer ground. He had a good fright, however, which was also salutary to him, and to all—for the future. I had ample proof of the deceptiveness and danger of the place; which fully bore out all the old maori relations of it.

Here, on the open western summits, we lingered until 3 p.m., (the natives with me not knowing what course to take, and all fearing to go astray,—for, after gaining the high table-land to the W. of the pass, we found it open, flat, and intersected with shallow snow-runs, and low bushes, and boulders, so that one might easily have proceeded in almost any direction,) and though we kept up a good constant look-out,—the maoris with their keen eyes, and I with my telescope,—we failed to discover any signs of natives approaching, or of any human habitation or cultivation, or fire or smoke, in all that enormous tract of open country of several score miles in extent, that lay like a desolate wilderness panorama before us!

"Far in the distance dark and blue,
Each hill's huge outline you might view;
Clothed with brown fern, but lonely bare,
Nor man, nor beast, nor house was there.
Yet even this nakedness has power
And aids the feeling of the hour:
There's nothing left to fancy's guess
You see that all is loneliness:
And silence aids,—voice sounds too rude
So stilly is the solitude."

From Scott's "Marmion", Introduction to Canto II., altered to suit the scene.

We had, however, no doubt as to our two absent companions having passed on; here were their footsteps, plain enough on the pass; one, evidently, having had a rather ugly slide downwards, before that he recovered himself. We, being thus doubly warned, kept nearer to the ridge; but the earth was much firmer to-day at noon, than it was to them on yesterday morning. Being warned, however, by the declining sun, we, unwillingly and with heavy hearts, and hungry and thirsty to boot, returned to our cheerless encampment, regaining it in silence by 6 p.m. Soon after, however, we heard voices! and our two absent companions bounded into our midst. We welcomed them heartily, but they sat down and burst into tears, crying bitterly yet quietly, in which we all more or less joined, as we knew the action was symbolic of bad tidings; and it was some time before the two newly-arrived ones could speak, they were so dreadfully exhausted. Having drank a little water and recovered themselves, they soon told their tale. They had travelled all day yesterday from early dawn till dark, when they lay down among the fern, without even the common solace of the pipe; arising again this morning by daylight to renew their tramp. In the whole of the country through which they had travelled (and they must have travelled many miles), they could not find a living being,—neither man nor beast. They had, indeed, gained outlying eastern village of Patea, called Te Awarua, situate on the upper Rangitikei river, but it was without inhabitant, and without cultivations or stored food; the natives, evidently, had gone away some time before, they knew not whither. Paora wrote on a piece of bark with a bit of charcoal to let them know of us, and of his visit,—if, perchance, any one among them could read writing, They would not have returned, however, had it not been for me, left with their companions in the forest. Poor fellows! it was painful to look at them; they were sadly worn and torn, both in body and in mind, and in clothing, too, with their long journey over such
a desolate and rugged country, and with their great exertions, and want of food. We soon got them a small supply out of our little rapidly lessening store; and, after they were refreshed, we considered our situation, and determined una voce, that as we had but little food left (a mere handful of rice), and the nearest village was at Te Rotoatara Lake, we would retrace our steps without delay, and hasten thither early to-morrow.—

I have told the story of our troubles, I will also give that of our joys,—or, rather, (speaking correctly,) of mine,—for I was quite sure that my companions: shared it not with me,—quite the contrary;—so I had it all to myself.

On quitting our encampment this morning and ascending through the forest, the first novelty I discovered was a handsome fern a species of Alsophila, (A. Colensoi,)—a genus new to N.Z., though plentiful in Australia; some specimens of this fern took the form of short tree-ferns, with a stem or trunk 2—3 feet high; while here and there, peeping amid the mosses, in little nooks at the bases of the larger trees, were those two pretty little plants, Callixene parviflora, and Libertia micrantha,—just as I had formerly found them on the Mountains of Huiarau, on the western side of Waikaremoana, in 1841. Several new species of Coprosma were also here in great plenty and variety, especially in the more open spots; indeed, they grew so compactly together in some places, more like a clipped old Hawthorn hedge, that it was impossible to get through them, and so we had to walk on them! (This reminded me of what Dr. Hooker and the officers of the Antarctic Expedition had told me, in 1841, they had found in Auckland and Campbell Islands.) In many places those shrubs bore our weight and tread pretty well, but in some we slipped, and then it was really awkward and disagreeable, for we could not touch the earth below with our feet, and with all our exertions could scarcely extricate ourselves; fortunately they were not prickly. Here, too, grew abundantly, Forster's original species, Coprosma foetidissima, on which he had founded the genus, and which well deserves its doubly odorous name! I had never seen it before; and the natives with me greatly disliked its smell, calling it Hupiro, = double-strong-stench, its name in the interior. The Panax genus was also well represented here, a few new species I detected,—P. P. Sinclairii, Colensoi, and simplex. Here, but only in one spot, I discovered that beautiful fern Hypolepis millefolium; the only place in which it has yet been found in the N. Island. As we neared the summit,—which we were constantly expecting to see, and which, as we had never caught a glimpse of it through the long forest, we could not help thinking we had somehow missed by taking the wrong spur; still, although we occasionally descended over undulating ground, we were gradually ascending, there was no mistake about that!—as we neared the summit, and also the end of the great forest, we fell in with many beautiful and novel shrubs of the genus Veronica (as V. V. laevis, buxifolia, tetragona, and nivalis). I was much gratified in finding V. tetragona, as I had long been in quest of it.—for I had sent a few years before a very small specimen of it (which had been given to me by Mr. Bidwell,) to Sir W. Hooker, who published a drawing of it with description in his Icones Plantarum, (tab. 580,)—before that, however, Sir William had received a [unclear: barres] branch of the same species from Dr. Dieffenbach, who had obtained it in Queen Charlotte's Sound (S. Island), a drawing of that specimen with description had also been given by Sir William in that same Botanical work (tab. 547), who then supposed it to belong to a Pine, and possibly a Podocarpus, naming it P. Dieffenbachi. In its barren state it very much more resembles the branch of a Pine, than it does any other known N.Z. plant. Here were, also, several species of Pimelea, (as P. P. Gnidia,)

This is another plant I had long been looking out for, as it was originally discovered by Forster in the S. Island, when here with Cook, and on it he had established his [unclear: genes] Banksia, in honour of Sir Joseph Banks, (B. Gnidia,) and it had not boon met with since.

buxifolia, and Lyallii,—while a large [unclear: stout] species of the ever-to-be-remembered genus Aciphylla was, for us, alas! far too plentiful; but of this very peculiar plant more anon. Here too great plenty was Fagus Clifortioides, another Beech,—a species of much lower and more diffuse growth than the other N.Z. species of that genus, which we had left behind us, in our ascent. But when at last we emerged from the forest, and the tangled shrubbery on its outskirts, on to the open dell-like land just before we gained the summit, the lovely appearance of so many and varied beautiful and novel wild plants and flowers richly repaid me the toil of the journey and the ascent,—for never before did I behold at one time in N.Z. such a profusion of Flora's stores! in one word, I was overwhelmed with astonishment, and stood looking with all my eyes, greedily devouring and drinking-in the enchanting scene before me. I had often seen what I had considered pleasing Botanical displays in many N.Z. forests and open valleys, particularly at the Kerikeri waterfall (Bay of Islands),—before it was rudely disturbed by civilization!—and in a sweet well-remembered glen near the E.Cape,—again at Lake Waikare,—and on the mountains of Huiarau and of Ruatuhuna, far away in the interior—but all were as nothing when compared with this,—either for variety or quantity or novelty of flowers,—all, too, in sight at a single glance I Splendid [unclear: Celmission] and Ranunculus in countless number, intermixed with elegant [unclear: Wahlenbergijs] and beautiful Veronicas, Ourisias and Euphrasias, Gentians and Dracophyllums, Astelias and Calthas, Gnaphalliums and Gaultherias, and many others. Here were plants of the well-known genera of the Blue-bells, and Buttercups, Gowans and Daisies, Eye-brights and...
Speedwells of one's native land, closely intermixed with the Gentians of the European Alps, and the rarer Southern and little known novelties,—Drapetes, Ourisia, Cyathodes, Abrotanella, and Raoulia.—

"Flowers tell of a season when men were not,  
When earth was by angels trod;  
And leaves and flowers in every spot  
Burst forth at the call of GOD;  
When Spirits singing their hymns at even,  
Wandered by wood and glade;  
And the LORD looked down from the highest heaven,  
And blessed what He had made."

It was observable, also, that while all those plants already named with many others were small-sized dwarf plants, pretty nearly of a uniform height, only rising a few inches above the soil, and growing together as thickly as they could stow,—more indeed, in this respect, like short turfy Grasses, or Mosses,—there were also among them several new species of the common N.Z. genera,—the known species of which in other parts were mostly to be found as tall shrubs and small trees,—but here the new species were only of a very low rambling prostrate habit, resembling large trailing Mosses, almost hidden among the low herbaceous plants already mentioned; those new plants comprised Myrsine nummularia, Pittosporum rigidum
Discovered by me 2 years before on the mountains of Huiarau, during my second long journey through the interior; but there only as a shrub 4—5 feet high, being at a much lower altitude.

Podocarpus nivalis, Coriaria angustissima, Dracophyllum recurvum, and several elegant Alpine species of Veronica, such as,—nivalis, Lyallii, and catarractae.

Often, indeed, did the words of the great Teacher come to memory, (uttered, I perhaps, by him when reviewing a similar Floral display as to beauty in the lovely lilied meads of Palestine,)—"Consider the lilies!" And more than once I exclaimed,—

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,  
And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

Nor could I forget what is related of Linnaeus,—who, on his arrival in England, and first seeing the wild broken country covered with the common yellow Furze': in full blossom, fell on his knees in ecstasy at such a sight.

Having mentioned this, I may be permitted also to add, on the authority of our great English Botanist Sir J. E. Smith,—that Linneaus having taken a plant of our British Furze with him to Sweden, always lamented that he could scarcely preserve it alive through a Swedish winter, oven in a greenhouse.

Sure enough I am, that I then understood Linneaus' action, and fully sympathized with him.—

But how was I to carry off specimens of those precious prizes? and had I time to gather them? These mental questions completely staggered me for I realised my position well. We had left our encampment early that morning, as I have already said, thinking the crest of the mountain range was not far off, and, consequently, taking nothing with us; so we were all empty-handed and no "N.Z. Flax" (Phormium) grew there. However, as I had no time to lose, I first pulled off my jacket, or small travelling coat, and made a bag of that, and that (driven by necessity!) I added thereto my shirt, and by tying the neck, &c., got an excellent bag; while some specimens I also stowed into the crown of my hat. I worked diligently all the time I was there,—and, though I did all that I possibly could, I felt sure I left not a little untouched.

But probably secured in following years.

Fortunately the day was an exceedingly fine one, calm and warm, so that I did not suffer from want of clothing. That night I was wholly occupied with my darling specimens, putting them up, as well as I could, in a very rough kind of way, among my spare clothing, bedding, and books;

It may be worth recording for the N.Z. Colonist, and with the hope of encouraging the acquisition of specimens under difficulties, that of those specimens of Alpine [unclear: plant] obtained with difficulty on this occasion,—drawings of nearly 50 have been published, by Dr. Hooker, in his Flora Nova Zelandiae, and by his father Sir Wm. J. Hooker, in [unclear: his] Plantarum, and Species Filicum; and, further, for many years those specimens were the only ones known of these plants to the Botanists of Europe.

only getting about 2 hours sleep towards morning.

Of all the peculiar and novel plants which grew on that mountain the large new species of Aciphylla (A.
Aciphylla,—for it was small and soft (woolly), and only one was seen! not only on that occasion but on every
occasion sundry old cast clothing to use as defensive armour. Dr. Hooker, in his Hand Book N.Z. Flora, (1864),
says:—"There are apparently two varieties—both are called" [down S.], "Spear-Grass," and "Wild Spaniardi". Sir D. Munro states that it forms a thicket impenetrable to men and horses." p.92.
could never have got over those spots which abounded with the Aciphylla. One of these little open hills bore the
ancient name of Maunga Taramea (Mount Taramea)
Taramea being the Maori name of this plant; meaning, The rough spiny thing; not unlike, in meaning, that
given to it by Forster.
) from the plant growing so profusely there. The genus was founded by Forster, (one of the Botanists who
accompanied Cook on his 2nd. Voyage,) on a plant they found at Dusky Bay (S. Island), which, however, is
very much smaller in all its parts and with fine lax leaves, though sharp enough,—hence its fit generic name,
Aciphylla = needle-leaved.
In a subsequent journey I brought away living plants of Aciphylla (with several other mountain novelties),
which did pretty well in my garden at the Station at Waitangi for some 2—3 years, until a heavy flood came,
when they (with many other Alpine plants) were submerged and killed by the thick deposit of silt. Five species
are [unclear: we] known, and described by Dr. Hooker. Dr. Lauder Lindsay has also subsequently fully
described Aciphylla Colensoi, with coloured drawings and dissections in his "Contributions to the Botany of
New Zealand",—a work that I have only very recently seen.
Had our countrymen and fellow-colonists from Great Britain,—from

had they ever required an indigenous plant in N.Z. to supply the place of their National emblem,—" Old Scotland's symbol dear"—the Thistle, this one would have nicely suited them. For such another could scarcely be found so highly adapted in every respect to bear their well-known motto,—"Nemo me impune lacessit."
One other curious plant I should also like to mention; a plant in every respect the very opposite of the
Aciphylla,—for it was small and soft (woolly), and only one was seen! not only on that occasion but on every
other, for I have never met with it since, although I have often sought it diligently; nor has it since been found in the South Island (or any where else) save once by the late Dr. Sinclair, who, according to Dr. Hooker, met with it at Tarndale, at about the same elevation (5000 feet) and in a similar situation "growing in shingle," This little shrubby plant of only a few inches high, is a very peculiar one,—it scarcely seems like a living plant at all, being so dry and sapless and densely woolly, more like an artificial flower, or those which we may have sometimes seen projecting in alto relievo from thick floccose or rough dining-room wall papers. Every part of it, stem branches leaves and flowers, is alike covered with dense white wool, giving it a strange appearance. This plant, a species of Helichrysum, or Gnaphalium (G. Colensoi), grew on the edge of the top of the second ugly pass,—composed entirely of dry shingle of various sizes from big lumps to dust, (which was continually falling from the cliffy height above, where the rock and stones were undergoing rapid disintegration through the incessant action of the elements,)—up this it was difficult to climb from the softness of the pile of natural "metal" and the great steepness of its incline, in which we sank to our knees at every step, and sometimes were carried down a few feet by the rolling shingle. A drawing of it is given in the Flora Nove Zealandiae under the name of Helichrysum leontopodium; the difference however between those two geners (Helichrysum and Gnaphalium) being so very slight and tending to separate closely-allied species, they are now combined by Dr. Hooker in his Hand Book of the N.Z. Flora. This little plant is allied to the celebrated Edel-weiss of the Swiss Alps. Near to this plant grew another, a species of Geurn (G. parviflorum)* which, curiously enough, was also a solitary one of that species, it not having again been detected in the North Island,—though it has been found in similar localities in the South Island, both by Dr. Sinclair and by Dr. Hector; and Dr. Hooker also found it in the Auckland Islands group.

This plant was first described by Dr. Hooker in his Flora Antarctica, vol. I, as Sievmia albiflora; where a drawing of it is also given. it is also found in S. Chili and Fuegia.

Single plants, like these two last mentioned, found alone in their natural habitat, each, too, bearing a profusion of flowers and seeds,—raise a curious question in Geographic Botany; one causing much thought and not easily answered.—

I must not omit to notice the Grasses of the mountain. Of them I found: several species (more than I had expected) belonging to various genera, these have all been subsequently published by Dr. Hooker.

Plates of several of these Grasses are also given by Dr. Hooker in his Flora Nove Zealandiae.

A few of them are identical with some of our esteemed English pasture grasses,—as Festuca duriuscula (Hard Fescue), and Agrostis, species, and also Hierochloe alpina; while others of them are also found in Tasmania and Australia. Some are new, and have not yet been detected any where else in New Zealand; others of them have been since found in the South Island;—one, a new species of Poa (P. Colensoi), which I brought from the summit, is common in the South Island, and is said to be among the best of the indigenous food grasses of New Zealand;

Some time ago I received a letter from a friend, a Naturalist, travelling in the South Island; in it he says:—"For the first time I had some idea of the importance of those Grasses Poa Colensoi and Festuca duriuscula to the stock feeder. Thousands of acres of poor stony land are covered, or, correctly speaking, carry little else than these Grasses, mixed sparingly with Trisetum Youngii, Raoulia, Gentian, and Aciphylla Colensoi; but the stock feeding on such pasture is everywhere in good condition."

—and, curiously enough, one species, Catabrosa antarctica, has only been hitherto met with in the far off antarctic islet Campbell Island, where it was also found by Dr. Hooker. None, however, grew thickly together forming pastures,—like the well-known native grass here on our Hawke's Bay hills, Microlœna stipoides, and the common grasses of our meadows,—except here and there around a few snow holes, and snow water courses of gentle declivity, where a very short pale grass grew thickly.

Said, by Dr. Hooker, to be a depauperated variety of Festuca duriuscula; found also on the mountains in the South Island.

but only extending a few feet each way; it always bote a half-withered appearance, no doubt caused by the snow and the sun. Nearly all of the various species of Grasses were found in single plants or small tufts scattered among other herbage,—except the one short turfy species by the snow holes before mentioned; and one other small grass, a species of Erharta (E. Colensoi), which grew in cushion-like patches, or large tufts, scattered here and there on the tops.

There were also several new species of Mosses, Hepaticœ, and Lichens, obtained on this visit, some of them being highly curious; a few I may briefly mention. On the bleak topmost crags I found two species of Andrea, (a peculiar genus of Moss,) nearly the colour of the dark rocks on which they grew; this is a small genus common in arctic and antarctic lands, and these were the first specimens of that genus discovered in New Zealand,—one of them was also a new species; neither of them have since been detected in this country, although both have been found in Fuegia and the South American Andes. I also found there, on those exposed
stony summits, *Usnea melaxontha*, a remarkable and rare black Lichen of the Andes and of arctic and antarctic latitudes.—Growing with this was another curious plant, a fine species of *Stereocaulon (S. Colensoi)*

Named by me *S. botryoides*, from its clustered fruit; but altered by Professor [unclear: Babington], to its present name. And now, (1884,) finally removed to the genus *Piloohoros (P. Colensoi)*, by Dr. Knight.—*Trans. N.Z. Instit.,* vol. XVI. p. 400, with a drawing.

), both plants being highly indicative of rigour and exposure.

"This is the highest point,—
How bleak and bare it is! Nothing but mosses
Grow on these rocks.—
———Yet are they not forgotten;
Beneficent Nature sends the mists to feed them."

Numerous species of the beautiful Order of *Hepatiœ* I also managed to secure and bring away; the drawings of several of them with magnified dissections have also been given by Dr. Hooker in his *Flora Novœ Zealandiœ*; these, however, must be seen and studied in order to appreciate them; for, minute and insignificant as many of them appear to be at first sight, and to the untrained eye, no Natural Order of Plants more richly repay investigation, or more fully exhibit the wondrous and lovely variety skill and economy of Nature.

"**GOD made them all,**
**And what he deigns to make should no'er be deem'd**
Unworthy of our study and our love.
———**The man**
Whom Nature's works can charm, with God Himself
**Holds converse.**"

The view from the top on the Eastern and Northern sides was very extensive,—extending from Cape Kidnappers to Table Cape, and thence to Mount Tongariro and further. The whole of Hawke's Bay with all the interior plains appeared like an immense panorama spread out beneath us,—but much too distant low and flat, and too dull in its colours,—of rusty fern, and dingy [unclear: Raupo] (*Typha*), and pale cutting-grasses, and dry withered plains, with a lead-coloured misty-looking sea in the distance,—to present anything of a pleasing appearance. In the view from the summits looking towards the East I was greatly disappointed.

Two kinds of birds which we saw peculiar to that region deserve a passing notice. One was the pretty little blue-grey mountain cluck, or teal, the Whiio of the natives (*Hymenolaimus mclacorhyncus*). This bird is common in most of the retired mountain streams of N. Zealand, and is a graceful quiet harmless creature; we met with it on almost every turn of the river, but always swimming. I often stopped to admire their graceful movements, as they allowed me to get pretty close up to them, owing to their innocence of Man! in all probability never before having been disturbed by him in their native haunts. Their flight is but short, and they often dive. It was a pleasing sound in the night silence to hear their plaintive sibilant whistle—Whiio (the Maori word drawn out), hence their name. From the sound of their cry, by night, it seemed as if they were being carried down by the current; and I fancied it was done by them to keep up their companionship with each other in the dense darkness. The other bird was a small brown one of the size of a lark, but with a white head,—which, together with its mute familiar habit, gave it a strange appearance. This bird was only noticed in the thickets near the top of the range, where, on our sitting down or resting, several would soon come closely around us, looking inquisitively, and noiselessly hopping from spray to spray. It was wholly new to me; and the natives with me did not know its name. I often, in my subsequent visits met with this little bird, but only in that one particular locality. I never once heard its note. We named it Upokotea, and Pokotea,—from its white head. I could not prevail on myself to kill any of them to carry away as specimens.

Two other small animals captured during this journey may also be briefly mentioned. One was a very singular Spider, which I obtained in the lower forests, living in nooks and crannies in the earth at the foot of trees and shrubs; it was of a thick oblong shape, and black colour, much more arched in its back than spiders generally are, with several curious sharp jutting points in its back and sides, making it appear more like a beetle than a spider, and giving it a very strange appearance, altogether different from any species of Spider I had ever before seen: of this species I got several specimens. The other was a peculiar little molluscous animal, of the Limæan genus *Limax*,—a kind of slug about 1½ inches long, possessing a small external dorsal shell, and therefore probably belonging to the genus *Testacella* of Cuvier,—which, however, has its; shell near its
posterior extremity. This pretty little animal I found on moss on a living Beech tree, very near the summit of the range. I only obtained one specimen, which, I regret to say, I lost, and never after met with another.—

The remainder is now very briefly told.—

Tuesday, Feby. 11. At an early hour this morning we struck tent, ate our scanty breakfast, packed up, and commenced our journey back to the Station. We travelled on all day (as we had agreed to do,) in moody silence, until 7 p.m., when we halted for the night at a little wooded place on the banks of the Waipaoa river called Motu-o-wai, and not far from the present village of Tikokino—formerly well-known, but now that isolated wood of white pine trees is washed away! We were very tired and hungry, and sore with so much walking over boulders and stones in the bed of the river, and with the incessant wading: 108 times

In after years I travelled several times to and from Patea by this route, but always made, whether going or returning, 108 wadings. To make sure of their number, I always tied a cord to the button-hole of my coat, and every crossing made a knot in it. Wishing to find an easier route to the interior, having also tried several, I tried one leading from near the gorge in the Manawatu river, by the rivers Puhanginga, Oroua, and Rangitikei,—having been induced to do so from the representations of some old Maoris of Manawatu,—but that took me more than twice as long on my journey to Patea, and gave me, in two days, 237 wadings! we sustained much hardship on that occasion, in the dense forests on the W. side of the Ruahine range. After my return from this first journey, I suffered more than 2 months from sciatica brought on by those wadings in that icy river, bivouacking, and want of proper nourishment.

did we wade in this day's march across the main stream, in some places the current was so strong and the water so deep that we could scarcely keep our footing; the water, too, in the upper portion of the river, was icy cold. We lay down that night without much ceremony, and early the next morning we resumed our journey, reaching the western banks of the Lake Rotoaata at 1 p.m. Here we bawled to the pa on the island for a canoe, and made small fires of herbage (there being no wood) as signals, but were neither heard nor seen (the wind being against us). At sunset, however, we were fortunately observed; and crossing over to the island we got food and slept there. The next morning, public prayers and breakfast over, we started pretty early for the Mission Station, where we arrived at 8 p.m., very weary,—but, I trust thankful to God for His many mercies.—

And thus ends my first attempt to cross the Ruahine mountain range.

——"Nil sine magno
Vita labore dedit mortalibus."

HOR.

PAPER II.

Memorandum of a Journey into the Interior,

In Which Succeeded in Crossing
The Ruahine Mountain Range,

With
Notes on the Peculiar Local Botany of that Region, Etc.

BY W. COLENSO, F.L.S.

[Read before the Hawke's Bay Philosophical Institute, October 14th, 1878.

"At the close, Dr. Spencer proposed, and Mr. J. A. Smith seconded, a unanimous Tote of thanks to Mr. Colenso for his very interesting Paper, which was also earnestly supported by th Rt. Rev. Chairman (the Bishop of Waiapu), and warmly accorded by the meeting, with a further particular wish, that the same should be recorded."

]

With Additional and Copious Notes.
"Upon the sides of Latmos was outspread
A mighty forest;—
And it had gloomy shades sequestered deep
Where no man went."—

Endymion. Keats.
"Alloi kamon, alloi onanto."—Some toil, others reap.
Ancient Proverb.

ON a former occasion I narrated my first visit to the Ruahine mountains, in which, after much toil, I succeeded in gaining the summit, although I failed in crossing the range.

I should not now greatly care to say anything more about it, but for three reasons:—(1) To note particularly the localities of the peculiar Botany of the interior,—then, for the first time found, and not since, I believe, detected;—(2) To leave on record some mention of the difficulties of travelling in New Zealand in those earlier days, before there were either roads or horses, and when even the route itself was necessarily so very difficult and different to what it is now:—and (3) to show that I did accomplish my original intention,—"perseverando vinces"!

As may be readily supposed—by those who have heard my first attempt to cross the Ruahine—I had had quite enough of the toil and hardship attending that journey soon to repeat it on the E. sides of the range; yet being still greatly desirous of visiting those Natives living beyond it, I was determined to do so as early as circumstances would permit. This, however, I saw could not be again attempted for some time, as I had not only a great deal to do at home in a newly-formed Station, where everything depended on myself; but I had also a large amount of other distant travelling to perform;

See Note C, Appendix.

besides it seemed all but impossible to get Natives to accompany me,—although they were quite ready to go with me on other journeys,—the last one having so greatly disheartened them.

During that year, (1845,) I was laid aside for some time through a severe attack of low fever, and when I had scarcely recovered I had to travel on foot in mid-winter to Poverty Bay on important business, and back to my residence at Waitangi;—and then, by the coast line, to Palliser Bay and Wellington, and to Ohariu and Ohaua in Cook's Straits,—and back again to Hawke's Bay through Wairarapa and Manawatu. Being the first European who travelled through the then dense and all but impassable forest ("70 mile Bush, S.") lying between the Ruamahanga in Wairarapa and the Manawatu rivers, where I also gained several rare Botanical novelties. And then I had a similar amount of heavy travelling on duty to perform throughout the following year, 1846; during which year I spent seven months in my tent.

Therefore, it was not until early in the year 1847 that I again recommenced my journey to Patea; this time by the "round-about-way" of Taupo.—I should here however mention, that during the preceding year I had been twice on foot over this new ground as far as Tarawera, between Hawke's Bay and Taupo Lake; and had made every enquiry relative to the Patea natives and the route thither,—though the information received was almost nil.

Having got all ready for our journey, myself and five natives (including my old friend Paora, who was still very desirous of seeing his mother's tribe), we started from Waitangi on the 9th February. Crossing the Ahuriri harbour in a canoe, for which we had to wait there some time, and travelling on, we brought up for the night at a small maori village on the banks of the Petane river,—about two miles above the present School-house, but not by the present near road thither.

The next morning, breakfast over, we again moved on, stopping at Kai- waka to roast a few potatoes for our dinner, and halted for the night at a place on the hills called Wahieanoa. Wind very high this day, and suffering from a half-sprained ancle. At night for a long time in constant succession the noisy Petrels kept flying-in from the sea to their breeding homes in the cliffy sides of the high hills beyond us. I had often heard them on former occasions, when spending a night at Petane and Tangoio, and other villages near the sea, but this night they seemed by their cries to fly much lower, possibly attracted by our fires. The natives on foggy nights make fires in suitable spots on the high hills near their nests or burrows to attract them, and kill numbers of them easily with their sticks. They are very fat, and are considered dainties.

——"Above, in the light
Of the star-lit night,
Swift birds of passage wing their flight:—
I hear the beat
Of their pinions fleet:—
I hear the cry
Of their voices high
Falling dreamily through the sky.
But their forms I cannot see."

11th. Early this morning we recommenced our journey; the westerly wind still dreadfully high so that on those exposed heights we could scarcely stagger on against it! Halted at Te Pohue to breakfast; thence on, by the mountain pass Titiokura, to a little village on the banks of the Mohaka river called Mimiha, where we halted for the night.—

In ascending towards the crest of the pass—Titiokura, I was much pleased in again observing that fine plant Ourisia macrophylla; it grew in large beds, or patches, in boggy and damp spots by the sides of the mountain streamlet, and being in full flower and undisturbed looked well with its large glossy leaves. I had first met with this fine plant in 1841, in the country between Poverty Bay and Waikare Lake, but then it was not in flower.


Dr. Dieffenbach had also found it growing at Mount Egmont. This is one of the few fine "garden flowers" of New Zealand. Here, on the high ground among the fern, grew my new species of Coriaria (C. Kingiana), "Lond. Journal of Botany," 1844, vol. III. pp. 20, 21. I don't know under which of his three species of this genus in th "Hand Book", Sir Joseph Hooker has placed this (to me) very distinct plant,—I mean, distinct from the other N.Z. species,—possibly under C. thymifolia; but quæ. I have long been convinced of our having four, or, perhaps five species of this genus in N.Z.

—presenting much the same appearance as when I originally discovered it in 1841; this plant, in a soil it loves, would look well in the foreground of a large shrubbery. On the summit I discovered several Botanical novelties: viz,—a fine bushy species of Gnaphalium (G. prostratum), of low growth but with numerous ascending branches bearing a profusion of flowers. This plant was also found by Sir J. Hooker in the Antarctic Islets, who has given a fine drawing of it in his Flora Antarctica, tab. 21. A peculiar tufted Ranunculus with small leaves on long petioles and bearing very long scapes (R. multiscapus): a low shrubby species of Coprosma (C. depressa), bearing sweet berries which were good eating: and a very low plant of Gaultheria having large edible fruit hidden under its leaves,—reminding one of the allied Whortle-berry of one's native Land; this plant,—which also grows plentifully on the open downs of Taupo, and elsewhere,—is, I suspect, placed by Sir J. Hooker, under G. antipoda, as a var. of that species; but it varies greatly from the true G. antipoda, which is a very common plant,—particularly at the N. parts of this island, and differs widely from it in habit, &c. Among the crags I found,—a curious species of Exarrhena (E. saxosa), densely covered with coarse white hairs: a minute species of Pozoa, a pretty little plant, resembling the coast species (P. trifida), but smaller in all its parts, with coriaceous sessile leaflets and bearing bristly hairs: and, hidden among the stony cliffs, a very small Fern of compact cæspitose growth, a species of Grammitis,—which Sir Jos. Hooker has included

In the "Hand Book", not in the Flora N.Z.
under Polypodium Austrole, but which is, in my opinion, very widely different from all the states I have seen of that plant,—as well as from my Grammitis ciliata.

(a rare and little known Fern, which I also believe to be specifically distinct.)—although, in the "Hand Book", Sir J. Hooker has also included this, and others also, with it. Two additional species of the genus Uncinia (U. leptostachya, and U. rubra,) I also obtained here; this latter species often gave to some parts of the dry plains in the interior quite a red hue when viewed from a distance, so that, at first, I wondered what it could possibly be that made them look so strangely red.

From a small isolated hill near the centre of the pass is a delightful view of Ahuriri and the southern part of Hawke's Bay including Cape Kidnappers,—

——"Where the round ether mixes with the wave;"——
—this landscape is well worthy of a drawing. I have often in passing this way, when the weather was fine and air clear, contemplated it with admiration.

A modern Ecclesiastical writer has pleasingly said, (in writing on the Apostle Paul.)—"We can hardly
believe that he who spoke to the Lystrians of the 'rain from heaven,' and the 'fruitful seasons,' and of the 'living God who made heaven and earth and the sea' could have looked with indifference on beautiful and impressive scenery."—As that of Tarsus, with the river Cydnus, and the mountain heights of Taurus. (Conybcare and Hoscson).

"A thing of beauty is a joy for ever:  
Its loveliness increases; it will never  
Pass into nothingness."——

The old road by the ancient maori track through the fern, in descending from Titiokura to the banks of the river Mohaka, was then very different to what it is now; for, on nearing the high banks of that river, a sharp turn was taken to the right running parallel with it, by which you descended into a small stream at a place called Mangowhata, and crossed it at the very edge of a cataract, on indeed the slippery brink of the bed of a single rock forming the fall, which curved suddenly upwards towards the verge, and having a deep dark pool close within; and then, on landing on the opposite side you climbed up a steep ascent until you came again quite as suddenly on to the very brink of the cliff, by the edge alone of which the track lay! This was owing to the high hilly back ground immediately above falling very abruptly towards the cliff in front. Both those perpendicular spots, situated too within a few yards of each other, were very dangerous, and, as a track, fearful to look at; and, in travelling towards the interior, you could not see them owing to the thick overhanging fern and other herbage growing on the brink, until you were on, or partly passed, them, and then it was too late to think of retreating. I supposed the height of the waterfall to be about 80, and that of the adjoining cliff about 120, feet. The small stream in the summer season was often lost in fine spray before it reached the bottom, where it fell into a semi-circular basin, or large pool, having thickets of white pine and other trees on the low banks around it. After my first surprise on my first visit, in which I was very nearly carried over, I always managed to crawl along on my hands and knees through the fern and small manuka shrubs: (Leptospermum). Once passed this place, however, the descent to the Mohaka was gradual and easy, which indeed was the sole reason of the old natives adopting that course.

Some 2—3 years after this, a party of Natives from the interior bringing some pigs for sale at Ahuriri,—several of the animals went over this cliff and were killed; this, however, was not the first time of such happening. The wonder with me was, how they managed to get them along at all! But not long after that, on the Maoris getting horses this track (with many other similar ones) was completely abandoned.

12th. This morning we crossed the Mohaka, which is pretty rapid here, without very great difficulty;—by means of long poles to which we secured ourselves, and by wading diagonally;—in some places, however, we could scarcely keep our footing, and there is a cataract just below.

On one occasion I was shut up here on the W. side of the Mohaka in time of flood for nearly 3 days, with very little to eat! While we were there waiting the subsiding of the waters, another travelling party of Maoris arrived, also from the interior, who were going in the same direction to the coast; after consultation we managed to cross and to escape, by collecting with no little trouble dry ranpo (Typha) leaves and flax flower-stalks, wherewith to make a big moki, or catamaran,—also, green flax leaves to twist into ropes. Having finished our huge unwieldy raft, which occupied more than a day in making, it was thrown into the river, and towed up through the still water a considerable distance, to allow for the strength of the current, now very great, besides we all feared the waterfall below then, our baggage, myself, and dog being on it, it was dragged and shoved and drifted amid much uproar to the opposite shore, the natives swimming and propelling! Takes altogether, with the dark frowning cliffs on either side, it was a scene worthy of a sketch.

The bases of the cliffs, near the water's edge were closely covered with a matted vegetation of a small species of Viola (probably V. Cunninghamii), which bore fruit plentifully but was without flowers. Travelled steadily on to a place at the edge of a forest named Te Waiparatu, where was a stream of water, and where we halted to roast "our roast" (potatoes); thence, resuming our journey, four hours more walking brought us to Pirapirau, a small village of Tarawera district: much fatigued today with the hot dry and dusty pumice! which overlies much of this country.——

I gained, however, a few new and interesting plants; among which were,—a new species of our endemic genus Melicytus (M. lanceolatus), making, as I think, the sixth species of that genus found in N. Zealand.

An undescribed plant, a small tree of upright growth, discovered by me in a wood near the sea a little N. of the East Cape, in 1841, and referred by me to this genus, has leaves 10in. in length. Unfortunately, though I saw several trees there, none were either in flower or fruit; and I have never since met with it. (Vide, Lond. Journal Botany, 1844, vol. III. p. 8.)

; also, two species, or varieties of Aristotelia, now placed under A. fruticosa. I also noticed, on the higher
grounds in the forests, some remarkably large specimens of that curious genus *Griselina*, which, from their huge grotesque yet dumpy trunks, seemed very aged; here, also, were some large specimens of *Carpodetus serratus*,—one which I measured being 4ft. 5in. in girth; a distinct species of *Drimys*, (originally discovered by me in 1841, on Huiarau,) *D. axillaris*, a much larger and handsomer tree than the species found at the N., was also common here: this plant would make a fine shrub for a shrubbery if it would live away from the forest’s shade.—On the barren pumice plains near Tarawera grew commonly in clumps a new species of low shabby *Dracophyllum* (*D. subulatum*). In the streamlets, deep down in the narrow ravines which intersected this pumice-stone plain, were many elegant fresh-water *Algae*,—of the genera *Conferva*, *Tynderidea*, and *Oscillatoria*, of various colours,—one, in particular, possessing a steel-blue metallic appearance; of all these I secured specimens for Home. From the sides of a small river near the village I obtained a peculiar looking Grass, *Gymnostichum gracile*; and from a cliff overhanging the stream, a fine new species of *Gaultheria* (*G. oppositifolia*), which greatly pleased me. Strange to say I have never found another plant of this species, although from its size, large green leaves, and unique appearance, it is not easily overlooked. In subsequent years when passing by this way I often obtained good specimens from it.

At this little village I remained two days; the natives (who had lately embraced Christianity) wishing me to spend a Sunday here with them,—and I was very desirious of giving my still painful ankle a rest. This village is on the very edge of a dense dry forest, so that it was truly delightful to wander in its shade, which I did for some hours this day (Saturday), while waiting for the natives to assemble, who were at this season absent at work in their several scattered and distant plantations. There I obtained many choice and elegant specimens of the Orders *Hepaticœ* and *Musci*. A largo number of them will be found in the "Hand Book Flora N.Z."

Monday, 15th. Rose early before 5 and started at 6; halted at 7.30, at a place called Opitonui to breakfast. This was a truly pretty spot; in a grassy patch near, that neat little plant of *Liliaceœ*,—*Herpolirion Novœ-Zealandiœ* abounded, enlivening the place with its flowers; yet it was the only locality I ever saw it in: the discovery of this gem pleased me very much. After leaving Opitonui the travelling was wretched! up high hills and through lately burned forests,—black prostrate trees and ashes! without any vestige of a track, so that we were often at a loss. We all wanted water greatly during this day's hot march; at last I found some in a large hole in a *Tawhai* tree (*Fagus? fusca*),


which, dark-coloured and nauseous as it was from the leaves of the tree, seemed like nectar to our dry throats. The *Fagus* trees of this forest were remarkably fine and straight;

—"Within the gloom of these majestic woods;
Roaming or resting under grateful shade,
Where living things, and things inanimate,
Do speak at Heaven's command, to eye and car,
And speak to social reason's inner sense,
With inarticulate language."—

and standing largely apart, so that there was no difficulty in travelling through them; this is mostly the case in the forests of this tree, where there is little or no undergrowth, owing, no doubt, to the shedding of its leaves, which thickly cover the ground. Our easy travelling, however, was not without danger, for there was no track, or we could not find it, having lost it early in the morning, so we travelled in a great measure by compass. I was not a little surprised today, in walking through open fern-land, to find the fern covering the ground to be a species of *Dicksonia*, which there grew much like the common N.Z. fern, or Bracken (*Pteris esculenta*). It extended for some distance, and presented a novel appearance. From its habit and manner of growth, &c., I named it *D. unistipa*,—but I find Sir J. Hooker has considered it to be the same as *D. lanata*, (to this fusion, however, I cannot agree,) very likely owing to his receiving parts only of fronds from me, the similarity in
several species of the *Dicksonia*, and also of the allied genus *Cytathea*, being very great; so that it is almost impossible to distinguish their true characteristics from dried specimens of portions of large fronds. We called at Moturoa, a small village on the Taupō plains, hoping to get a little food, but there was none to be had at this season,—the potatoes not being yet ripe in these high localities. Proceeding on, very warily, (my native companions sadly needing food, and I still in pain from my ankle,) we met a woman with a large basket on her back, who had just come from a clearing in a thicket hard by, in which there was an old forsaken potato plantation. Poor soul! she had travelled a few miles thither in hopes of gleaning some food for herself and children, and now was returning to her home;—with that genuine hospitality so common to the New-Zealander, she soon dropped her load and gladly gave us (strangers) a few handfuls of the smallest potatoes I ever saw! they were all throughout just the size of marbles (not large ones), or of the potatoe berry, yet pretty nearly ripe!—forcibly reminding me of what the potatoe was originally in its native woods. We continued our course towards Taupō Lake; passing a waterfall, which came out under a natural bridge; and a little further on the head of the Rangataiki river, which here takes its rise from a small lake; and crossing the great plain brought up at 7 p.m. at a common place of bivouac of the Maoris named Ohineriu; all hands completely tired! Here, unfortunately, was neither wood nor water; we tried, however, to get a poor fire by pulling up the withered tufts of long wiry grass, which, according to the mode practised here by the natives of these parts, we twisted together before burning, through which device they did last a little longer, and so we managed to scorch our scanty supper of small potatoes, and so lay down as we were for the night,—with the stars shining down upon us.

16th. Rose, stiff, and very unwillingly, at 5, and soon started. An hour brought us to a beautiful clear stream of water, which we were told was the head of the Mohaka river, that here takes its rise from a small lake to the S. and E. of the large lake of Taupō,—its water was very cold, and appeared delicious. There being no wood here by this stream we were unwillingly obliged to continue our journey, and that without much stopping, to reach a breakfast place. I obtained, however, an elegant fern, a *Gleichenia*, which grew thickly together and of uniform appearance and height in beds or patches on the low wet banks of the stream; this novelty pleased me much and I named it *G. Hookeriana*; but I find Sir J. Hooker has placed it as a var. *alpina* of *G. dicarpa*; from that old and well-known Australian species I still think it will yet be found to be specifically distinct. A species of *Cytatodes*,—apparently differing widely from the N. form, in size, leaf, flower, and fruit,—grew here on the hills, which plant, however, Sir J. Hooker has placed as a var of *C. acerosa*; to me it seemed very distinct. Travelling on, in an hour more, we reached a wood called Te Kotipu; here, at last! we breakfasted on boiled rice. Looking about in this wood, while breakfast was getting ready, I detected a new species of *Pittosporum*, a handsome leafy small upright shrub, with dark-green leaves, which I named *P. viridis*,—now, probably, the *P. fasciculatum* of Sir J. Hooker. From this wood we proceeded on towards Taupō Lake, passing Te Waahiruru, where a stream rushes leaping and bounding underground through an awful chasm, shaking the earth for some distance around,—whence its fit name = the Rumbling Water. From this place we travelled to Hinemaia, another river of bounding water: thence to Apungao-tekura,—the course being mostly up hill. At 6 p.m. we gained Orona, a small village on the Taupō Lake, very hungry and very tired.—For the last 3 miles, however, the travelling was comparatively easy, over open ground and downhill.

17th. The next morning we did not leave very early, being wholly dependent on these villagers for our breakfast; while it was cooking I strolled on the sandy shores of the lake, and there detected a new species of *Chenopodium* (*C. pusillum*), growing plentifully. In conversing with an aged native, I found, that he was one of that very marauding party who had attempted the descent on southern Hawke's Bay natives in years gone by, and who, owing to the sudden loss of a number of their party on the tops of the Ruahine range, through their being carried down by the snow, had returned without effecting their design (as related by me in my first Paper, page 17). He narrated the whole affair, giving the names also of those who had so miserably perished there; and gravely adding, that it was all brought on through one of them having wantonly desecrated that sacred spot—the heights above (*mingit*). Which superstitious belief had, I inspect, a great deal to do with their not seeking to afford their unfortunate comrades any relief. It having also been construed by their priests as ominous of future defeat at Hawke's Bay, if they persisted in going thither, caused them to return. When this man heard from Paora, that I had been on that very spot, he got angry, and would not for some time believe him,—making also a great fuss about our now going thither or returning to Hawke's Bay by that way—on account of its sanctity—being a *tapu* spot! Forcibly reminding me of what the old Maori priests at the N. had formerly said, when they found that I had really been to the Reinga (beyond Cape M.V.Diemen), and had drunk of the sacred "spirits well" there.

Vis. On Easter Day, 1839. From this little stream, which runs over the rocks into the sea, close to the celebrated *Reinga*, or Spirits’ Leap into the lower world, (according to their legendary belief,) they (the spirits) take their last draught of earthly water ere they mount the ridge and take their final plunge into the realms below! my dog, on that occasion, had the hardihood to do as I did, and to quench his thirst there! to the great
indignation of some of the Natives.

Leaving Orona we travelled S. by the shore of the lake to Motutere, a much larger village than the former, reaching it at 1.30; here were several natives, We staid here a while to dine, being hospitably pressed by the natives. Just outside the village a single large sized Karaka tree (Corynocarpus laevigata) was growing; a rare sight so far from the sea-coast. At 3 p.m. we left, and travelling steadily on halted late on the banks of the river Waikato, near its head, where we found a small party of natives employed in dubbing timber. We had heard of them, and were in hopes of getting something from them to eat, but, unfortunately, we were again obliged to go supperless to bed.—

18th. Rising this morning we were constrained to await the arrival of a native who had gone to fetch some potatoes. We left, however, at 8, being ferried across the river by the natives in their canoes.

On another occasion, however, I was not so fortunate. We had been staying at Rotoaira, on our returning from Patea and Murimotu, and on leaving the village were assured that we should find canoes and natives here. On our arriving there were neither—not anywhere hereabouts, and we were sorely puzzled how to act, for the river was high, and the distance back to Rotoaira long; we did, however, at last, get over safely, the baggage being the difficulty. I had to swim across with a newly twisted green-flax rope girt round me, lest I should be earned down by the strong current beyond the one narrow landing place among the dense bushy vegetation on that side of the river.

and arrived at Rotoairs village, at the base of the Tongariro mountain, in the afternoon, and were well received by the natives,—so here we stopped the night. As this was the last 8. village of the Taupo country I endeavoured to get a guide hence to the Pates district, and only after great difficulty succeeded; as the country over which our course lay was rugged and difficult, and there was no regular track hence to the Patea villages; only once a year,—or in 2, or even 3 years,—did a small party of Maoris visit Taupo from Patea; rarely if ever did any go from Taupo to Patea. Nothing is more surprising to me among the many and great changes which have been effected in this country during the last 40—45 years, than this,—of common fearless communication between the Maori pahs (villages) and tribes, which intercourse formerly did not exist,—not even between what are now considered (even by the natives themselves) as neighbouring villages. I could not, however, help fearing, that, just as on a former occasion so now, our "guide" would prove to be of little real service.

This had several times happened: notably during my long overland journey in 1841, from Poverty Bay to the Bay of Islands; when, in a terrible gale and at night, in the mountainous trackless and deep forests between Waikare Lake and Ruatahuna, my guide deserted! at a time, too, when we were starving, as well as hemmed in by the flooded rivers: that was on New Year's Day, 1842; a time to be ever remembered by me! See "Tasmanian Journal of Natural Science", vol. II., p. 259.

Among the interesting plants I obtained this day, was a species of Gentiana (G.saxosa, var..):—a small prostrate species of Coprosma (C.repens), bearing large succulent orange-coloured fruit, each berry often containing 4 nuts; this species seems identical with one found by Sir J. Hooker in the Antarctic Islets, of which a plate is given in the Flora Antartica (tab. 16): two species of Epilobium, one being E. Billardierianum: and a new species of Acena (A.microphylla),—this last pretty little plant with its crimson fruit pleased me much. A.Cunningham's fragrant little heath-like plant (Leucopogon Frazeri) was common to-day, in many spots on those dry hills and plains; its flowers are certainly foremost among the sweet-scented ones of N.Z., of which there are not many. The whole plant being so very small and insignificant, yet often filling the air with its delightful odour, brought Wordsworth's suitable line to mind,—

"The flower of sweetest smell is shy and lowly."

14th. As we had no time to lose if we were ever to gain our goal!—the villages of Patea,—we rose early and crossed the head of the Waikato river (which is the outlet of Rotoaira Lake) at 5.30. Winding round the base of Tongariro, over undulating ground, we halted at 7.30 to breakfast by the side of a mountain stream of very cold and pure water, which ran bounding and sparkling in the sun among the rocks. At 9 o'clock we recommenced our journey, and travelled steadily on. During the former part of this day, I met with several Botanical novelties:—e.g.—a very handsome full-flowered Cyathodes (C. Colensoi), a low bushy shrub of depressed growth, some plants bearing white and some red berries in profusion; this will become a garden flower:—the abnormal prostrate species of "Pines" Dacrydium laxifolium and Podocarpus nivalis, were also here, in many places completely matting the surface:—also, two or three species (or varieties) of Gaudtheria,—one, in particular, having plenty of good edible fruit; another was very curious and interested me much,—it was plentiful and grew prostrate, having a racemose inflorescence, and baccate calyx which gave it a singular appearance as if double-fruitcd,—this is, I think, var. e. of Sir J. Hooker's G. rupestris;—a distinct species of Epacris (E. alpina), was also here, but, unfortunately, it was not fully in flower:—in damp spots (but only in two places) two curious species of Drosera were found,—D.binata remarkably fine, and the much rarer one D. Arcturi, a plant of the Australian and Tasmanian mountains,—the only time I ever met with this latter species; together with a rather scarce Orchideous plant, Prasophyllum nudum;—and, in the thickets adjoining,
by the sides of the mountain streams, *Phyllocladus alpinus*, and several species of *Aristotelia* with small leaves were noticed. A peculiar small *Restiaceous* plant, a species of *Calorophus*, was also obtained here in a boggy spot;—I had found a similar plant several years before in bogs at Whangarei, and near Cape Maria van Diemen,—but in each locality only a little of it:—of the *Cyperaceous Order*, I collected two new species of *Scaenus* (*S. [unclear: concianus]*, and *S. parviflorus*), *Carpha alpina*, *Isorepis Aucklandica*, and also several species of *Carex*, among them being a British species *C. stellulata*. In dry gravelly spots I also detected *Asperula perpusilla*, (which I had last year discovered in similar situations at the base of the Tararua range in Palliser Bay,) and the moss-like tufted *Raoulia australis* was not unfrequent. Many beautiful plants of the *Lichen* Order I also met with; prominent among them were several species of *Cladonia*, particularly *C. C. capitellata, aggregata, retipora*, and *[unclear: cornucopioideae]*,—this last strongly reminding me of the pretty (never-to-be-forgotten) British species *C. bellidioides*, which, at first, I supposed it to be, from its bright vermilion-red globular tubercles springing from the edges of its tiny cups; *C. retipora*, often found in large tufts in undisturbed spots, is one of the most elegant of Lichens; its regular reticulated open structure is wonderful! A few curious *Fungi*, new to me, I also obtained; and in a still-water reach in a stream—let I came upon a large mass of that peculiar fresh-water *Alga, [unclear: Batrachospernum] moniliforme*,—the only place I ever found it in N.Z.

At 3 p.m. we crossed the sandy desert called Te Onetapu,—a most desolate weird-looking spot, about 2 miles wide where we crossed it,—a fit place for Macbeth's witches! or Faustus' Brocken scene! about it, too, the old Maoris have many peculiar stories and superstitious fears; some of which, I have no doubt, are agglutinated around a nucleus of reality. Here and there burnt logs lay, scattered and imbedded in the volcanic sand, as if where a fiery eruption from the neighbouring volcano had issued forth in times long past upon the then living forest; I noticed, also, that much of these anciently charred logs and pieces wore a highly polished and semi-glazed appearance, as if from the ever drifting sand. I was so struck with the appearance of some of the half-burnt timber, apparently so aged—or of old time, yet retaining all its vessels and ducts, that I collected a few specimens, and subsequently sent them to England for high microscopical investigation. On the edges of this lonely desert, a lovely *Gentiana* flourished in all its beauty, probably *G. pleurogynoideis*, (another fine garden flower.) also *Celmisia spectabilis*, most luxuriant in gloriously fine tufts or tussocks, and with it grew a much smaller and different looking species of *Celmisia (C. glandulosa)*, for the first time here found, and both species [unclear: tolerably] plentiful. Very curiously also was the formation, or more correctly speaking,—the state in which the old land was left in many spots on the W. edges of this desert. Table-topped mounds, from 6 to 10 feet high, having perpendicular cluffy sides, each containing only a few perches of land, and rising like little islets separated from each other by the barren white sandy arms of the desert were common; their mounds, or islets, abounded in a peculiar vegetation, which I greatly wished to know more of,—but alas! I was sadly pressed for time; and I was already more than prudently overloaded for the unknown mountain journey before me. It was difficult, too, to climb up on them, although I did manage to get on two. Here I obtained an elegant dwarf *Dacrydium*, (a "Pine" tree, allied to the large Rimu, *Dacrydium cupressinum,* rootuping a few old trees for specimens of a foot or 18 inches high, in full fruit! reminding me of the quaint yet symmetrical little trees so greatly prized by the Chinese for their gardens. This plant is allied to the large species (*D. Colensoi*) of the Northern

See Note D., Appendix.

forests, bat, as I take it, is specifically distinct. Rain overtook us shortly after our; crossing the desert, which we were sorry for, but there was no help for it, there being no kind of shelter nor water at hand, so we travelled on, in the pelting rain which was from the S. and in our faces; getting wet weary and dispirited, eagerly looking out for a fit halting place but finding none; to make matters worse, our guide more than once told us, he was "all at sea!" as to the proper course, because the rain hid the hills on all sides (and everything else) from his view, so that he could not see the land marks! We kept on—on—on, however until 7 p.m. (dark), when finding water we were obliged to halt in a deep gulley by the side of a *Fagus* wood, where everything around for miles of fern or scrub had been very lately burnt off! We had been travelling through this black; country for more than an hour, in hopes of seeing its end, but in vain! Here where we were, we could not find a level spot on which to put up our tent, so, in the darkness and the rain, we were obliged to dig away with our axes on the steep side of the hill before we could set it up! That night was a terrible one of wind and rain; insomuch that we expected every moment to be smothered in our half pitched tent; few of us slept that night.

20th. Our most wretched night was followed by a dirty lowering morning, with furious wind and heavy rain, it was also bitterly cold. We were here caught in a southerly gale, in one of the worst spots possible in the whole N. Island of N.Z., and we could not help ourselves. To retrace our steps and go back to Taupo (over Te Onetapu desert) our guide flatly refused, and my natives joined him; he saying, that high desert sand was now covered with snow, and that from the falling snow and sleet he could not tell the course,—which, perhaps, was
really the case. From him we had the story of 70 men having been once lost at one time in attempting to cross
that place in snowy weather. Murmurs, throughout this wretched long and dreary day, reached my ears,—of my
having been the Beans of bringing on this weather! through my uprooting some small trees (Dacrydiums), and
my crossing the desert without observing certain superstitious ceremonies, and my sacrilegiously eating some
Gaultheria berries while crossing, which the guide had detected!! &c., &c. The worst to me, was,—(1) that I
could not get anything whatever to lay on the wet mud floor of my tent! nor fern, nor grass, nor leafy shrubs,
were there to be found,—all had been destroyed by fire; the very lower branches of the Fagus trees in the wood
before us having been scorched: (2) that we had scarcely anything to eat: (3) that my specimens were being
spoiled, which caused me to fret pretty considerably: and (4) that, at the rate it was then raining, when the gale
should abate, the rivers we should have to cross would be unfordable for some days! As the day began so it
closed,—no change whatever in the weather, save that, even about us at our considerably lower altitude, the
rain was changed to sleet and snow! I shudder now, while writing, in thinking of that wretched time, though
more than 30 years have since passed. Often enough did those highly suitable words of my favourite old poet
Ossian, cross my memory:—" It is night, I am alone, forlorn on the hill of storms. The wind is heard on the
mountain. The torrent pours down the rock. No hut receives me from the rain; forlorn on the hill of winds!"
(Songs of Selma.) Their suitability being so much the more increased through the superstitious talk and fears of
some of my natives, who insisted on it, that the sounds they heard among the fitful ravings of the blast among
the trees, were not merely those of the trees creaking and of the denizens of that forests—parrots, owls, and
wood-hens (Ocydromus australis), but of the justly irate Patupaiarehe (wood Nymphs or Fairies), or of the
ghosts of the dead! just indeed as Ossian has it.—

Alas! the old fable-existences are no more,
The fascinating race has emigrated.

"Die alten Fabelwesen sind nicht mehr
Das reizende Geschlecht ist ausgewandert."

(Walhnsstein.)

21st. Sunday. Another wet and uncomfortable day. The wind, however had lessened a little, and we could
now manage to make up a fire,—which we could not do yesterday. Not really knowing how far we were from
help, I could only allow two tea-cups of rice for all my natives (6 in number) for breakfast, and two for their
dinner,—and for supper one cup of rice was all that could be spared which, with a few scraps of bacon fat and a
little salt, made a mess of [unclear: pottage!] At consultation this evening we agreed to start early in the
morning; I privately requested Paora, and two other of my natives from Hawke's Bay whom I could trust, to
keep a good watch over our Taupo guide, lest he should give us the slip; a trick I had been served more than
once in former travelling. Indeed, to prevent this, on this occasion, I had determined, if needs be, to bind him
till morning.

22nd. Up early this morning and left our wretched encampment at 6 o'clock. The frost was heavy and it was
bitterly cold, insomuch that we could scarcely fold til the tent. Unfortunately, however, the ice on the many
pools and streamlets we had to cross, after gaining the brow of our hill, was not thick enough to bear one's
weight, and so we were obliged to go through it! crash! souse! into the cold water, of which my poor
companions with their naked feet loudly complained. Here, in one of those watery hollows and partly
submerged, (owing, no doubt, to the late rains,) grew a little shrubby plant, which I had not before seen, and
never again found; I knew it to be allied to our Geniostoma, and it has proved to be a species of Logania (L.
depressa). It cost me a good wetting and cold shivering to get specimens. It was nearly 9.30 before we halted to
breakfast, which we did on the banks of the river Moawhango, where we roasted our roast!—a few potatoes
which we had carefully reserved from Saturday, my natives having then said, "they could travel better on
roasted potatoes than on rice."

I have several times mentioned "rice": I was early led—taught by experience—to see the necessity of
always carrying a few pounds with me on my long journeys. We had found the great benefit of it on our landing
at "Deliverance Cove", (p. 2,) as from it we (all hands) had made our first hearty meal on our finding of water.
The natives, however, always preferred potatoes to rice; their remarks thereon forcibly reminding me of what I
had heard at Homo in my boyhood from our Cornish Miners and Farm labourers, that they preferred the
dark-brown and hard barley to the soft white wheaten bread; saying they could not work on this latter. I wonder
how it is now with them, in these days of high civilization!
In this locality I was fortunate enough to find a few new plants, which pleased me much; among which were, a fine *Ranunculus* (*R. geraniifolius*), a single plant only, but a large tufted one affording several specimens; curiously enough, I never again met with this species. Here, in higher open grounds, grew that peculiar dwarf species of *Carmichaelia* (*C. nana*), just rising an inch or two above the soil! well do I remember breaking my tough old *Manuka* maori spear (used by me for many a year as a travelling staff) in attempting to lift a bit of it! A plant of *Liliaceae*, also, grew here plentifully in one large spot, but unfortunately it had lately been burnt off, so that there were no perfect specimens to be had; however, I got a few good seeds, and a small root or two, as well as some poor specimens; and from those roots I subsequently obtained good flowering plants at the Station,—when I was delighted to find it to be a species of *Chrysobactron*—that glorious plant of Lord Auckland's group and Campbell's Island!—of which I had seen specimens with Sir Jos. Hooker, and also heard so much of from him and the other officers of the Antarctic Expedition in 1841. Gladly did I name it, (in sending specimens and seeds to England, to Sir W. Hooker,*) *C. Hookeri,—*to keep company with the other species of that new genus which Sir Jos. Hooker had named after the Commander of that Expedition, *C. Rossii;*—*in the "Hand Book", however, both have been referred to the older genus, *Anthericum*, from which they were scarcely generically distinct. The seeds of this plant sent to Kew grew and flowered there. This plant with many others from the interior—among which were, *Ranunculus insinis*, *Stackhousia minima*, *Epilobium Billardierianum*, *Aciphylla Colensoi*, *Forsteria Bidwillii*, *Wahlenbergia saxicola*, *Gentiana montana*, *Calceolaria repens*, *Veronica sp.*, *Libertia micrantaia*, *Callixene parriflora*, [unclear: *Cordylins*] *Banksii* and *C. indivisa*, and *Gymnostichuin gracile*,—did exceedingly well in my garden at the Mission Station, nearly all of them flowering every year,—at the shaded S.E. end of my large house; but when that was burnt down in 1853, all, of course, went with it!

We travelled on pretty steadily all this long day until 8 p.m. without halting, when we threw ourselves down among the fern quite exhausted and spiritless;—not knowing how much further we had to go before we should reach this long-looked for Patea. Our guide, who had been lagging behind, although he had had no load to carry, had sunk down some time before, declaring he could go no further, being faint through hunger! so, taking from him the course we were to steer (as far as he knew), we left him, believing that a good nap would refresh him. After a while, we arose from our fern couch, hunger-impelled, and having broken off the tops of the branches of the large and many-headed cabbage trees (*Cordyline australis*), which grew close by, and which the light of the moon revealed, we made a fire and roasted the stalks of the young leaves, which though both tough and bitter, served to allay our pangs. The *Cordyline* trees of these parts are the largest I have ever seen, they are not only high and many-branched, but bulky also in the trunk. I remember one, in which a native of Patea had made a house, or room, and fitted it with a door to keep his tools, baskets, &c., in; I went into it, and stood upright within it, the tree was living and healthy; I took down its exact girth, 20ft. 2in. The whole route this day was very hilly and broken, with occasional heavy entangled forests, without the least vestige of any track; we having been obliged to keep much on the higher grounds so as to avoid the streams in the valleys, which were overflowing rapid and dangerous; fortunately for us the open country was much more grassy than we had hitherto found it. During the day I subsisted on a raw potatoe (which I kept nibbling) and a few *Gaultheria* berries;—in addition thereto following out the Maori plan of "hauling in the slack" (in nautical language), or, in other words, of tightening up my travelling belt; which I have always found in times of severe hunger to be of great service,—although it makes it dangerous for stooping low. That night we all slept just as we were in the fern around the fire.

23rd. Very early this morning our "guide", following our track, came up to us before we were well awake, and finding from him that we were, at last! really near the Patea villages, I, after he had rested awhile and eaten some roasted cabbage-tree leaf-stalks, sent him on to the nearest village, to inform the natives of our arrival and hungry state. A long night's sound sleep had done him a deal of good; he appearing a different man altogether, although he had had nothing to eat, and had passed the night without fire. At 6 a.m. we, also, managed to hobble after him, stiff enough! following his track; and by 7.30 we were loudly welcomed into a little outlying plantation village of only 2 huts, but where we found a feast awaiting us, in baskets of hot and smoking cooked potatoes! to which we all did justice. Breakfast and prayers over, we had to resume our journey, to reach Matuku, the principal village of these parts, where the chief, Te Kaipou, and most of his tribe resided; a messenger having early been sent thither from this village to apprise him of our approach. Travelling along over a beaten track for 3 or 4 miles we reached Matuku, but found the Chief and most of his people absent,—some at their distant and scattered cultivations here and there in the forests, and some a pig-hunting. In our way to Matuku we crossed the river Moawhango *without seeing it*! for it ran at a great depth below us in the earth; the width of the rift or cleft in the stony soil was only at top about 10—12 feet, and across this were laid the trunks of two small trees, over which the natives of the place ran with naked feet like birds! I did not like it, but there was no help for it; I almost thought I could have jumped over it; but there was no room to take a run for the spring. The natives told me that the fissure continued for a long way, and that it was pretty uniform in width.
(though very likely this was its narrowest), and that a small canoe could pass through on the river. The sides seemed, as far as I could see down them pretty steep; I could not, however, see the water below; and I had no time to spare in closely examining it.

Some years after in travelling this way, I found the natives had made a tolerable rustic bridge across, some 6 feet wide, and having a shaky parapet fence, the floor being strewed with manuka faggots; this was done for their one horse.

I noticed Stellaria parviflora here growing in large quantities in dry spots. The village of Matuku is picturesquely situated on the ridge and summit of a very high hill, rising abruptly in the midst of these immense primeval forests which surround it for miles on every side. One great disadvantage was its want of good water, there being none within a mile, at least, and that at the foot of a long hill in the forest. True, they had little pits dug near at the base of a spur, but the water was little in quantity, and not drinkable, from having some salt in it, that deposited its efflorescence on the clay around. The view from this place was very extensive solemn and grand, overlooking miles of forests, with the eternal mountains uprearing their heads and peaks around. On the E. and S. was the great Ruahine range with the many isolated spurs and ridges of its Wn. flank, here rising abruptly, and looking like a formidable barrier to our progress that way! On the W. was Taranaki (Mount Egmont), and on the N.W. Paratetaitonga, Ruapehu, and Tongariro,—and still further N. was the Kaimanawa range; of all these, Paratetaitonga and Ruapehu were now well-covered with snow. The natives of the place pointed out to me the W. peaks on the Ruahine, to which we had advanced 2 years before.—

——"Once again
Do I behold these steep and lofty cliffs,
That on a wild secluded scene impress
Thoughts of more deep seclusion."

I should not, however, have recognised them; indeed the whole appearance of that range was strangely different from what it is on the E. side; one huge table-topped spur, projecting towards the N., and uprearing its dark and sharp outline against the sky, interested me greatly; it seemed so much like a built-up rampart; the natives call it Te Papaki-a-kuutaa; of this very peculiar place more anon.

Paora, my companion also on that occasion, was now "in clover" here among his mother's relatives; they had found the scrap he had written on bark, and left at a village some 3—4 miles nearer than this to the Ruahine range, but it was long (more than a year) before they had got it deciphered and read to them! Still it was (as we now found) of service. It was evening before the Chief and the main body of his people arrived; and we spent a large portion of the night in deep conversation. Found them very ignorant of everything foreign (as was to be expected), but most pleasingly simple and willing to be taught. They were all dressed in true Maori costume, in mats of various kinds of their own manufacture, some of which were made from the Toii (Cordyline indivisa); without a single article of European clothing among them.

From this place and its neighbourhood I obtained many interesting plants
Of which may be here mentioned, Brachycome odorata; Olea lanceolata, and another undescribed species of Olea having hairy petioles; Calceolaria repent; Carex dissita; [unclear: Agrusafus] parviflora and A. pilosa; Marchantia nilida, &c.

on several subsequent visits, but on this occasion none, for we had still that altogether new and unknown journey before us—to climb and cross the Ruahine range, and I had already concluded to leave here on our return to-morrow, having (unfortunately) arranged, before I left the Station, to be at Waipukurau on the 1st of March, to marry 9 young Christian couples, who would assemble there with their relatives and friends from several places round about for that purpose; their neat new chapel which had been some time in hand, was also to be finished: for that occasion

See Note E., Appendix.

; and we had already spent more than a fortnight in reaching this place by the "round-about-way" of Taupo. I knew, too, that my natives would be sure to leave this place heavily loaded with potatoes and pork as food for our homeward journey. To their great credit be it told, that though they had recently endured so much and needed rest, they all agreed to recommence our toil to-morrow, rather than disappoint the folks at Waipukurau; Paora arranging to re-visit his relatives here on his own account before long.—

24th. Very busy all this morning with the natives of this place, who were much troubled at our leaving them so soon, and did all they could to keep us, in which the appearance of the weather helped them not a little, for the Ruahine range was completely enveloped in fogs and clouds, which the natives asserted was a sure sign of heavy rain or snow being about to fall. I too, I confess, was very unwilling to leave—but go we must, duty called. We promised to visit them again next summer (which we did). Our Taupo guide, who was quite at
home—through some distant relationship—would probably remain a month or two, or until spring.

Some years after, while staying at this village, I noticed a curious feature in Natural History, which I may mention here. On that occasion I had gone thither by another route,—(Ngaruroro river and Kuripapango ford,)—it was early summer (October), and snow had fallen pretty heavily, yet quietly, during the night, and in the morning the whole village was a few inches deep in snow, while the great mountain range rising close before me was looking sublime. (I copy from my Journal.) "Close to the village, and even within its fence, were several very large Kowhai trees (Edwardsia grandiflora Sophora tetrapetra, of "Hand Book").

), these were covered with their golden flowers, and mostly without leaves. The sun was shining brightly, and the parrots flocked screaming from the forests around to the Edwardsia blossoms; it was a strange sight to see them, and deftly they managed to go out to the end of a long lithe branch, (preferring to walk parrot-fashion!) and there swinging, back downwards, lick out the honey with their big tongues, without injuring the young fruit! . . . For seeing but very few petals falling (and those only vexillar), I sent some of the boys to climb the trees and bring me several marked flowering branches, which had been visited by the parrots. I found, that all of the fully expanded flowers had had the upper part of their calyces torn open, and the uppermost petal (vexillum) torn out; this the parrots had done to get at the honey. As the flowers are produced in large thick bunches, some are necessarily twisted or turned upside down; still it was always that peculiar petal and that part of the calyx (though often in such cases undermost) which had been torn away. Through this no injury was done to the young enclosed fruit, which would in all probability have been the case if any of the other petals had been bitten off. It cannot be said, that it is owing to the vexillum being the largest petal (as it is in many papilionaceous flowers) that it is thus laid hold of and torn away by the parrot, such not being the case in this genus; for the long fruit runs down through the two carinated lowermost petals, that are often quite 2 in. long, and is further protected by the two side ones (ala), which four, from their being closely imbricated together, form a much larger and firmer hold for the bird's beak. Further, as the N.Z. Parrot (Nestor meridionalis) is a large bird with a huge bill, and as the flowers are always produced on the tips of the small branches, which bend and play about under the weight of its body,—not to mention the high winds which generally prevail in those elevated and open regions,—one cannot but suppose it to be no easy matter for the bird to get a bite at them at all, so as to make a proper opening whereby to insert its thick tongue, and lick out the sweet contents without injuring the young immature fruit; especially when we further consider, that the common practice of the parrot is to take up in its claws whatever it wishes to discuss. Of all the flowers I examined, (and I scrutinized a great many during the 2—3 days of snow,) only the upper part of the calyx and corolla had been torn, and in none was the young fruit wanting; nor did I notice any bunches which had had their flowers wholly torn off. What with the glistening snow, the sun shining, and the golden blossoms of those trees,—the numerous parrots diligently and fearlessly at work so close to the village yet often screaming,—the other birds, Tuis (Prosthemadera Novœ Zealandiae), and Korimakos (Anthornis melanura), singing melodiously snugly ensconced in their leafy bowers, having earlier had their morning meal,—with now and then the largo flakes of feathery snow falling thickly and silently around,—it was altogether a peculiar and interesting sight; and natural though it was un-natural, and by no means pleasing."

Another peculiarity, which I noticed here on this occasion, and which struck me forcibly, was, the apparent insensibility of these mountaineer natives to cold. (I again quote from my journal:)—" Past another wretchedly cold day, in which I have scarcely known warmth—even in a small degree. The natives, however, of the place, appear to be almost insensible to cold, the majority of them being but poorly clad, each in a single loose shoulder mat,—and yet they go sauntering about the village in the snow, barefooted and barelegged and barebreeched I of course; or sit down talking together in an open shed, with scarcely any fire, having half of their bodies uncovered. In this respect they differ greatly from the New Zealanders in general (the Lowlanders), who are mostly very impatient of cold.—I, also, noticed some little children, who, leaving their garments (each having only a loose harsh mat), in their huts, came out and frolicked naked about the village! regardless of the snow and sleet; nor did they return to their houses and garments, until I had, a second time, ordered them to do so." Another remark I copy from my Journal of that date:—" Poor creatures! at this season they were all living on fern root, which the children were incessantly roasting and hammering; yet they were all very healthy. Indeed, the great difference in this respect between the low-lying and sea-coast villages (which I had lately visited) and those of this mountainous district, was really surprising; there, in every place, some one had died since my last visit (some 6 months before), while here, during two years no one had paid the debt of nature. No doubt this is partly to be attributed to the purity of the mountain air, but not wholly so."—Cook's early statement, of their being a remarkably healthy race, I have often proved to be true; would that the introduction of European habits, and of "civilization", had not deprived them of that inestimable blessing!

We left Matuku at noon, several of the natives with their chief Te Kaipou, going with us to Te Awarua,—the furthest outlying E. village of Patea, to which place Paora and his companion Mawhatu had
former journey to Te Awarua was nearly a continual descent of a few miles, over a good beaten Maori track. On arriving at the immediate bank of the Rangitikei river, which lay between us and the mountain range, and which we had to cross, I found I had to descend the perpendicular cliff of nearly 300 feet, the worst feature being that one could not see one's way! for at the edge of the precipice one had to turn round, and holding on to the grass and fern drop over somewhere, and so descend sailor-fashion! For some time I did not at all relish it, but finding there was no help for it, and the natives of the place, men women and children, all did so, and then got across the river in safety, (as I could see from the heights,) I consented to follow,—disliking it the more as I went on; for the sheer height not only made me giddy, but here and there in the descent friendly plants to lay hold on failed, or had been half-pulled up in long use, and in their stead old flax leaves and strips of bark had been tied to shakies shrubs, and other rough makeshift devices of pegs and sticks had been also resorted to, and these, as I proved, were in many places old and rotten, and not to be trusted to:

I managed here better afterwards, by having new flax leaves and new strips of bark fastened to go up and down by. On one visit after heavy rain, when it was very slippery, and some portion of the earth from the cliff had fallen, I was earned down like a baby, on ft native’s back; as I dared not trust to my own legs! This however was by no means the first time of my being so borne by them over dangerous and slippery places; not a few deep dark rivers having high banks, densely bushy, and the vegetation hanging down into the river, with a tree felled or placed to cross over on,—old, denuded of its bark, and slippery with vegetable fungoid slime,—have I had to cross, there being no other known way: when, after trying it without boots,—and also by sitting on it saddle fashion,—I have been obliged to give in, and to have recourse to a native bearer; also on the slimy edges of some cataracts;—and he never missed his footing. On such occasions I invariably used to shut my eyes during the whole time of transit, to keep myself and him the more steady.

however, by degrees, the natives very kindly helping me. I got safely to the bottom in the bed of the river.

The Rangitikei river here was tolerably wide, and not very deep; I managed to cross it by help of the natives without great difficulty. In this place, as in many others in its course further down (as I have proved for many a weary mile!) it runs between high cliffs; the village of Te Awarua being on its E. side, on the lowermost slope of the Ruahine range; this is one of the principal potato cultivations of this tribe, the soil being rich and well-sheltered by the forest around.

In visiting these localities in after years I was surprised to find such an extensive and formidable growth of English Docks (Rumex obtusifalius) 4—5 feet high, and densely thick; so that in some places I could scarcely make my way through them. On enquiry I found, when some of these people had visited "Whanganui, to sell their pigs, they had purchased from a white man there some seed, which they were told was tobacco seed! in their ignorance they took their treasure back with them, and carefully sowed it in some of their best soil, which they also had prepared by digging; and lo! the crop proved to be this horrid Dock,—which, seeding largely, was carried down by the rivers and filled the country. The same iniquitous trick had also been played with the natives of Poverty Bay, so early as 1837; when, at their pressing request, I visited some young plants they had raised from seed, fenced in and tabooed, believing them to be tobacco!!

This place, however, was of far more importance in the olden time, as the decaying remains of its old fortifications still shewed;—when it was in its glory as a pa (fortified village), it was taken by the enemy, who carried it by storm. And here, on a rock in the river, which was shown me, a near relation of our well-known present Hawke's Bay Chief Renata te Kawepo, (whom I had left behind at the Mission Station as a Teacher,) was killed on that occasion, in endeavouring to escape from the foe: Renata, himself being also closely related to this tribe.

See Note F., Appendix.

Having partaken of another excellent meal, (which some of the hospitable people who had purposely preceded us early from Matuku, had kindly and promptly prepared for us,) and my natives loading themselves with a good supply of the choicest potatoes, we left this place and kind people, and set our faces in the west, (which I had left behind at the Mission Station as a Teacher,) was killed on that occasion, in endeavouring to escape from the foe: Renata, himself being also closely related to this tribe.
we had halted for the night and rested a while, my natives (who had suffered considerably in the watercourse
owing to their heavy loads of potatoes in addition to other baggage.) looked seriously at each other and
earnestly debated the possibility of our ever getting over the range before us. One thing we all agreed to, not to
try that watercourse again. We spent the night together, the Chief and the old man being with us. I should not
omit to mention that this old man was the father of 12 children by one wife, all living and remarkably healthy; I
saw them all, and took down their names, they were a very fine family; I often saw them here afterwards. The
old man himself being among the first company who were Baptized of this people, when he took the name of
Moses, and having learned to read, &c., became the Teacher of his little village. I have not, however, yet done
with our mountain watercourse; for in it, and only at one spot on its N. bank, I found a small patch of a second
species of Calceolaria

The only other N.Z. species of Calceolaria (C. Sinclairii) was also originally discovered by me at the E.
Cape, in 1841; and, subsequently by Dr. Sinclair at "Waihaki, in 1842". (Vide, Hooker's Icones Flantarum, tab.
561.)

which (judging from its smaller leaves and the withered remains of its flowering stems) was new to me. So, in
after years, I again sought it here and found it in flower, and also took away roots of it for my garden at the
Mission Station. This plant is the rare C. repens, and this, at present, is its only habitat.

It has since, however, been found in one spot on the same flank of the range, but lower down and much
 nearer to th W. Coast.

———"O'er pathless rocks,
Through beds of matted fern and tangled thickets,
Forcing my way, I came to one dear nook,
Unvisited."——

25th. Rose very early and recommenced our journey; our two kind native friends returning to their homes.
Our route at first, lay directly up a very steep hill a long outlying spur of the mountain,—we had much
difficulty in surmounting it, but we succeeded, and then the fog came on so densely that we could hardly see a
yard before us! so, after wandering about for some time, and fearing that some of our party might go astray
(which one did!) we halted to breakfast, and to await the clearing up of the fog. On two or three rare occasions,
while travelling among the mountains, I have met with this species of dense dry fog,—so widely different from
the fogs of the low lands. Such is not merely (as the poet has it),—

"Wreath'd dim around, in deeper circles still
Successive closing, sits the general fog
Unbounded o'er the world; and mingling thick
A formless grey confusion covers all."—

But the dense and dark strangely-shaped solemn rolling and gliding clouds of fog, often in separate masses,
come fast on towards you, as if they were really enveloping something more substantial,—impelled by some
secret power (not by wind for all is still and calm), and a weird-like feeling or thrill comes over one, as if one
must really get out of their way: I know I have so felt it, particularly when alone! Resuming our journey we
travelled on all day, up and down very precipitous and broken hills and ridges, often stumbling over old fallen
trees, and into holes of uprooted ones, hidden in the thick undergrowth,—and sometimes passing along on the
very edges of extensive landslips, down which it was fearful to look. We did not stop to rest nor cease toiling
until sometime after sunset,—when we gave it up, as it was getting dark! We had hoped to reach the more open
land on, or near, the summit before sundown, which we had been strongly advised to do, but had failed. At this
time we were very much entangled among the sides of the deep and thick scrub in the low Fagus forests, on the
precipitous western mountain, sinking deep at almost every step among what seemed to be layers (stratum
super stratum) of anciently fallen trees, which were all more or less rotten and lying across each other, and
hidden under the long Astelia and " Cutting-Grass" foliage; so that, sometimes, my natives as well as myself
should sink down so far—crashing through the fallen rotten timber, and yet without touching the earth!—that
we could not extricate ourselves without assistance. Language fails me properly to depict the toilsomeness and
entanglement of this day, especially that towards night, in that never-to-be-forgotten Fagus forest! A very long
and narrow leaved Astelia was the common plant here, together with several species of the Coprosma
genus,—slender slim shrubs growing under the Fagus among those fallen trees. When we finally halted, we all
just remained as we were until daylight! no one thought of a tent (which could not be set up), or of cooking, of
supper, or of fire; and there was no water there! Neither was there a spot at hand where one could lay himself down at full length! We mostly sat drawn up throughout that night; no one spoke to another, and tobacco was not then in vogue among us; one native did not even undo his backload from his shoulders! owing to his being so greatly exhausted, where he first sat, or fell, there he went to sleep, and so remained till morning with his load on his back! Fortunately for us the night was a mild one and without wind; so, being greatly fatigued, we all slept pretty well in our subalpine bivouac till morning. Keats' opening stanzas in his Hyperion, were more than once thought of by me:—

"Deep in the shade——
Sat greyliair'd Saturn, quiet as a stone,
Still as the silence round about his lair;
Forest on forest hung about his head
Like cloud on cloud. No stir of air was there.
Not so much life as on a summer's day
Robs not one light seed from the feather'd grass,
But whore the dead leaf fell, there did it rest."

The next summer in revisiting Patea, I learned, that we had got into our sad trouble in this particular and superstitiously dreaded place, through Paora, who was leading, having taken the wrong turn,—leaving abruptly the high stony ridge we were on and turning to the left into that old half-rotten forest, instead of to the right! which spot bore a bad legendary name among the natives of Patea. And I had left it to him to take instructions from the Chief and the old mountaineer as to our course up the mountain. The natives of Matuku,—who had kept looking out with their keen eyes for our night fire on the open tops, and not seeing it,—knew we had gone astray, and guessed pretty well where we were. Our having spent a quiet night therein, unmolested by unnatural night visitants! proved however to be of no small service in our behalf with the Patea natives. Strange to say, that only a little way above to the right, from where we passed that doleful night, was one of the best halting-places in the whole forest on the West side, and where I afterwards (in following years) spent several single nights,—and indeed, on one occasion, a whole Sunday and two nights very agreeably. For, on my very next visit, finding that we could easily manage to make a kind of snow well there, from the form and nature of the ground and the stones that lay about, (exposed from under the surface through the uprooting and toppling over of a large tree,) we did so, planting snow-hole moss (a species of sphagnum) also in it! and, on subsequent visits, I never failed to find a supply of good water,—and, also, close at hand, dry firewood—a thing not always to be obtained in those high Fagus forests,—where all dead wood, both large and small, becomes as it were waterlogged and sappy from the snow. Several parties of natives, including the Chief of Patea himself, also stopped a night at "my well," as they called it,—in going to and fro from Patea to the Mission Station, after I had cleared the track, &c.,—but, on their getting horses they all ceased to travel this way.

Sec Note G., Appendix.

On one journey back from Patea to Hawke's Bay, I happened to see a Kiwi (Apteryx sp.) in an open place in these woods,—the only time I ever saw one wild and free. It did not see me, and so, I, being hidden from it, watched its movements for some time; it ran much faster than I had supposed it would do, and its striding gait strongly reminded me of a hen running after a moth, or winged insect.

Two or three remarkable incidents of this day's journey I must now briefly notice. During the afternoon we suddenly came upon the remains of a skeleton of a young man, partly suspended about 2 feet above the ground among some thick growing Coprosma bushes: this, we afterwards found to be that of a young man of Patea, who was one of a bird-catching party that had been overtaken by a snowstorm, when this man was lost in the snow! The sight of this skeleton, now pretty well bleached, roused us not a little, and caused us to redouble our exertions to reach the summit. Near evening, in passing along the edge of a steep stony ridge in the wood, at a considerable altitude, I saw a small plant in flower springing sparsely from among the crevices of the rock beneath me,—on getting a specimen I found it to be a Forstera—if not F. sedifolia itself! the very plant of all others in N.Z. my heart had long been set on, through hearing my dear friend Allan Cunningham (who had longed to see it) talk so much about it,—and from its not having been detected since Forster's visit when here with Cook;—as well as from the fact, that it was a very curious plant in the disposition of its flowering organs, and one that had given some trouble to Botanists; the younger Linnæus had selected it to bear its discoverer's name, and Lindley, in his "Natural System of Botany", had to place the genus, containing only one species, with just two other genera in a separate Order—STYLIDÆ. I welcomed it in Cunningham's name, and secured half a dozen good specimens. Curiously enough I have never since met with this plant in any other locality; in subsequent years, however, I got several good specimens from this same place. Here, in the outskirts of the
forest were small trees of that musky-smelling plant, I had originally discovered in the forests in the interior of the Bay of Plenty in 1843,—together with an allied species equally odoriferous,—*Olearia dentata*, and *O. ilicifolia*; and peering out, along the upper edges of the landslips, were *Coriaria angustissima*, *Ligusticum aromatum*, and the pretty large Blue-bell *Wahlenbergia saxicola* I also observed in several spots, mostly on rocks in the shady forests, delightful and fine specimens of *Stereocaulon ramulosum*,—some plants forming quite a little bush, and looking charming! A glaucous *Veronica*, a small shrub, I detected on a stony ridge in an open saddle between two hills, fortunately it was both in flower and in fruit; I never found but this one plant, and being the only glaucous species of the genus it looked very peculiar. I visited this one shrub subsequently on 2—3 occasions, and always brought away specimens: Sir J. Hooker has named it *V. Colensoi* Towards evening my dog caught a fine fat *Weka*, in its crop were the fruits of several species of *Panax,—probably P. simplex*, *P. Colensoi*, and *P. Sinclairii*, which grow in these forests. The Beech trees (*Fagus Solandri*) of the more exposed parts of those alpine woods were of very peculiar growth,—low, depressed, and gnarled, with spreading thick leafy branches, often interlacing and desperately tough, which greatly increased out difficulty in getting through them. Several species of the *Coprosma* genus here abounded,—particularly *C.C.acutifolia*, *parviflora*, *cuneata*, *microcarpa*, and *linariifolia*, and also *fetidissima* the species which Forster first found, and which from its very strong smell caused him to give the genus its appropriate name, this last species however was more abundant lower down in the more open forests of the large-leaved *Fagus—F.? fusca*. A new species of *Myrsine* (*M. montana*) I also found here, is a small shrub closely resembling *M. divaricata*

Sir J. Hooker, in the "Hand Book" speaks of this species as "a small very straggling twiggy branched bush "; but I have generally found it to be a tall shrub, or even small slender tree, 12—15 ft. high, with long drooping branches: it is a much larger species than *M. montana*.

of A. Cunningham. Another species or variety of *Dracophyllum* (*D. Urvilleanum* var. d.), and a stout shrubby species of *Senecio* (*S. eleganifolius*), and a much smaller species, *S. Bidwillii*, I also detected here. On an open exposed ridge I fell in with several plants of a species of *Dacrydium*, 12—14 feet high, growing together and almost in a row, these bore a very peculiar appearance from their whitish bark being densely covered with foliaceous Lichens (mostly *Parmelia*), and their bearing two kinds of leaves; the plant, moreover, was not common; I always visited these trees whenever I passed this way, but was never successful in getting good fruiting specimens. I also noticed several small trees of *Libocedrus Bidwillii*, growing thickly together. One solitary tree, about 20 feet high, of this same species, I afterwards found much lower down in open ground, but was also with this disappointed, although I purposely visited it at different times of the year. There is scarcely any similarity in general appearance between this plant and the elegant plumose *L. Doniana* of the N. That beautiful species of *Cordyline* (*C. Banksii*) with its long leaves (5—7 feet) and white berries grew here in the drier stony woods,—and with it, plentifully, its closely allied congener, a graceful red-flowered *Astelia*;

I don't see where Sir J. Hooker has placed this species in his "Hand Book," unless it be under *Astelia Cunning hamit*; but I never saw it epiphytical, and I think it will prove to be distinct.

while the still more imposing plant, *Cordyline indivisa*, flourished a little lower down and mostly on the edges of thickets.—

Another curious incident occurred, in my travelling through these forests some years after this: we had just emerged from a heavy belt of forest, and were sitting down in the open outside in the sun, resting awhile before we proceeded; one of my baggage bearers, who had a short hard-wood spear, kept poking it into the earth, when suddenly he felt something under his spear different from a root or wood, he proceeded to disinter it, and there, under at least a foot of soil, was a very handsome though small green-stone axe! its bevelled edge was very regular and quite perfect. I might have had it but I did not then care about it.—

A Fern, a species of *Hymenophyllum*, which I found epiphytically on a tree at the entrance of a thicket, greatly pleased me, as I had not met with it before. It grew in great plenty on that one tree, and I brought away from it on several occasions many specimens. Sir J. Hooker has, I find, placed it under the old and well-known fern *H. unilaterale*.

Mr. Baker, I see, in his last edition of "Synopsis Filicum," has united *H. [unclear: unilaterals] (and several other species) with *H. Tunbrigense*; which species already had included within it not a few of our N. Z. *Hymenophyllum* as varieties: to this, however, I cannot agree. No two species of ferns (in my opinion) are more truly distinct than the British species, *H. Tunbrigense* (including our N. Z. species, *H. Tunbrigense*, and its "varieties"—*cypressiforme*, Lab., and—*revolutum*, Col.,) with its single axillary and serrated [unclear: involucrs] sunk in its frond, and this fern from Ruahine (*H. intermediate*, mihi, M.S.,) with its many free and pedicelled entire involucres. But I hope for an entire and natural re-arrangement of our N. Z. *Hymenophyllum* ere long.

but, to me, it appears wonderfully distinct. I have never met with this fern anywhere else.

26th. We rose this morning from our uncomfortable beds—or lairs without any dressing! and stiff and hungry we started from our bivouac with a tolerably good will before 6 o'clock. The morning, however, was
intolerably cold, and the fog very heavy—a true Scotch mist this time!—settling on the thickly leaved shrubs, through which we had to force our way, and so wetting us to the skin. Do what we would we could not get warm, as we could not get along fast enough, and the sun was still on the other side of the range. Onwards and upwards we toiled in silence for four hours, until we reached our well-known E. peak on the summit—*Te Atua-o-mahuru!*

See Note B., Appendix.

(seen prominently from Hawke's Bay,) whence the extensive prospect to the East was again, as on the former occasion, obscured. This culminating peak of this part of the range has since been better known to the Maoris by the name of *Te Taumata-a-Neho* (*i.e.* Colenso's summit, or pass), from the fact of my having both crossed it and made a track that way into the interior, as well as from the circumstance of our always halting there, going and returning, and offering up both prayer and praise. Although I have crossed this range several times, travelling both E. and W., only on one occasion had I a clear view of the whole E. side and extensive horizon,—recalling forcibly to memory the old familiar view from the Land's-end in England, with the Scilly Islcs in the distance, and Sir H.Davy's expressive lines on that place:—

——"far beyond,
Where the broad ocean mingles with the sky,
Are seen the cloud-like islands, grey in mists."—

The distant prospect being generally dull and obscured through misty exhalations arising from the low-lands and swamps and forests beneath; and yet the mountains, seen from below, and being projected in bold relief against the sky, appear commonly clear and well-defined,—"robed in their azure hue."

A curious little event happened this morning, when near the summit: I was ahead of my party with my dog, and we were crossing a narrow stony ridge, a kind of saddle between two peaks, when striking my foot against a thick withered tussock of grass, two rats started out! no doubt rudely awakened out of their slumbers. My dog caught one and killed it, the other got off; they were the common English rat—here at this altitude on those barren peaks!

Dr. Horsfield's account of the peculiar little animal *Mydaus meliceps*, only found on the tops of the mountains of Java,—and Sir C. Lyell's remark thereon,—may be profitably consulted here. (Lyell's *Principles of Geology*, 12th Ed., vol. H., p. 362.)

Another highly curious circumstance is worth mentioning. In ascending early this morning through an open part of the forest on the S. slope of a spur where the Beech trees (*Fagus Solandri*) were tall and young, growing up thickly and straight like saplings or poplars, we suddenly came on a lot which were abruptly bent down to the earth in a kind of a row from about 5—6 feet above the ground,—looking like a long green half-roof of a house, or the roof of a "lean-to"! they were all living, thickly branched and very leafy, and their tops were all again ascending from the earth like very young trees. Tired hungry and thirsty as we were, we all stood in amazement at this sight, and myself and natives with their backloads walked under this living sloping roof for several yards, only stooping our heads a little. We found, on examination, that all those trees had had their trunks half-broken—twisted splintered and bruised—at the angle of inclination, and the conclusion we came to was, that it was done through the heavy mass of snow which had been deposited on their thick tops and branches becoming frozen together, and so in a gale bringing them down into the position in which we found them. It was truly a curious living sight. I saw them again some two years after, and again walked under them, when they were much the same, but not so regular nor so clear underneath.—

To return:—Here on the open sunny summits, we were greatly in want of water, which we had not tasted since noon yesterday; we had diligently searched about for it in all the hollows and snow-runs on the table-tops as we came along, but in vain! a few drops from a bunch of wet moss in a hole was all I could obtain, but that was precious. After resting a while on the crest of the mountain, and offering up our usual thanksgiving,—for

——"On mountains and in vales he taught
To adore the Invisible, and HIm alone;”—

we determined to push on to our old three-nights encampment at *Te Wai-o-ko-ngenge* in the forest on the E. side, where we knew we should find water; so continuing our journey we reached that place by 1 p.m., all hands quite weary and faint for want of water. To add to our distress we could not find any at our old pool and spring! which were both dry, but by searching further down the mountain's side we luckily found some. The welcome shout of "Water!" by the lucky finder, after the first dispiriting announcement of none! went through
as like an electric thrill, and having drank and drank again we proceeded to get our breakfast—which included, also, both supper and dinner of the preceding day. Feeling much too tired and listless to look about me while our meal was preparing, I sat and mused, with my back against a tree,—for once a kind of Ltos-eater!—enjoying

——" the wild odour of the forest flowers
The music of the living grass and air,
The emerald light of leaf-entangled beams—
Which drowns the sense."

I should not omit to mention, that on my way down the mountain from the summit, I discovered a plant which I believed to be a new species of Podocarpus, and therefore named it P. Cunninghamii, (after my dear old friend and early Botanist in N.Z. Allan Cunningham, who first described P. Totara,)—its leaves and male amenteæ with the squamulse at their bases were very much larger than those of P. Totara, and the amenteæ were also on long peduncles; its bark, too, was semi-papery, more like that of some large specimens of Fuchsia excorticata, and not at all resembling the bark of P. Totara. I subsequently found a small tree of it again in this same forest, but, as before, only having male flowers. I have little doubt of its being a distinct species. The natives call it Totara-kiri-kotukutuku.

We resumed our journey at 2 p.m., not daring to tarry; gained the bed of the river by 5, and travelled sturdily on until 7 p.m., (for the last hour in comparative darkness,) when we halted in the shingly sides of the river's bed;—rejoicing that our difficulties were now over, and that we had really succeeded at last in crossing the Ruahine!—

27th. Last night we all slept soundly, lulled by the murmuring stream: for

——— "this ravine
Was now invested with fair flowers and herbs,
And haunted by sweet airs and sounds, which flow
Among the woods and waters. FAKE YE WELL!"

Rose early this morning, breakfasted by daylight and started. All agreeing to travel steadily on all day without halting. We did so, rather moodyly, and just managed to get quit of the river and the woods by daylight, still keeping on for an hour and half after sunset, when we halted on the N. edge of Te Ruataniwha plain, well tired and worn with our very long clay's march, in which we had waded the main river more than a 100 times.

28th, Sunday. This we made a day of rest, as we greatly needed it. Everything very quiet around. Had two meals to-day of boiled rice. Natives slept the greater part of the day leaving me to my meditations. None of us knowing anything of the country between this place and Waipukurau, and there not being any track hence to that village, we determined to-morrow to keep in the stony bed of the river (Waipawa), until we should strike the maori track

This was not far from where Mr. Avison's house is now.

leading from Patangata to that place,—which we knew.

March 1st. Left at 6 a.m., all in good spirits; by 11 o'clock we had gained the said pathway, where we halted to cook the small remainder of our rice for breakfast. Our meal over we continued our journey to Waipukurau, reaching it by 2 p.m., all hands there being very glad to see us; some of them having given us up, not hearing anything of us.—

2nd. Morning prayers, schools, and breakfast over, I married the 9 young couples, who were here awaiting my arrival; at noon I left for Patangata.

3rd. Left Patangata for the Mission Station at Waitangi, reaching it in safety by sunset, and found all well. Laus Deo.

And now for a few further remarks on the peculiar Botany of the higher western sides, and of the summits of the range, not observed on the former occasion.—

In the open ground, on two or three mound-like hills of peaty-looking soil, and near each other, on the W. side, grew that remarkably fine Ranunculus—R. insignis. On my discovering it I was astonished at its size,—its largest golden flowers being nearly 2 inches in diameter, its flowering stems 3—4 feet high, and some of its
round crenated leaves measuring 8—9 inches across! Both Sir Jos. Hooker, and his father were equally surprised and delighted, and as it was (then) by far the largest species known, Sir J. Hooker gave it that appropriate specific name—\textit{insignis}. I only found it in that locality, but it was in great plenty; its principal neighbour was the notorious \textit{Taramea} plant (\textit{Aciphylla Colensoi},) already fully noticed; and those splendid compositaceous plants \textit{Celmisia spectabilis} and \textit{C. incana}, which generally grew close together, forming large dark-green shining patches and bearing a profusion of fine white flowers—a striking contrast to their leaves. At first sight I saw that this new \textit{Ranunculus} was closely allied to \textit{R. pinguis}, of Lord Auckland's group and Campbell's Island,—then lately described in the \textit{Flora Antartica}, of which work I had received an early part just before I left the Station. Other plants of those far-off Antarctic Islets were also found here, on the summits; notably \textit{Oreobolus pumilio}, growing in dense tufts in exposed places; while the peculiar straggling \textit{Cyathodes empetrifolia}, and the pretty little flowering plants, \textit{Euphrasia antarctica} and \textit{Myosotis antarctica}, flourished in half-sheltered hollows, with \textit{Plantago Brownii} and the Grass \textit{Catabrosa antarctica}. From these last also grew, very closely intermixed (much as we have seen the Daisies and Buttercups among low turfly grasses in our English meadows,) the curious plant \textit{Drapetes Dieffenbachii}; the little elegant \textit{Ourisia cespitosa} abounding in flowers; a very small and new species of \textit{Plantago (P. uniflora)}; and a similar-sized Botanical novelty \textit{Astelia linearis},—a tiny plant bearing a large orange-coloured fruit; a little \textit{Caltha (C.Novæ Zeelandiae)}, having pale star-like flowers; two graceful \textit{Gentians (G. montana} and \textit{G.pleurogyroides}); and a very small shrubby prostrate \textit{Goprosma (C.pumila)}; together with several little elegant shrubby \textit{Veronicæ},—which I have formerly mentioned.—Two Orchideous plants, \textit{Pterostylis foliata}, and \textit{Caladenia bifolia} (of which I wished for better specimens,) I also detected growing sparingly; and with them a couple of \textit{Carices, C. acicularis}, and \textit{C. inversa}; and, also, two species of \textit{Uncinia},—\textit{U. divaricata}, and \textit{U.fidiformis};—and with them several interesting \textit{Hepaticæ} and Mosses.—Only in one or two spots, in shady sheltered places near the top and just within the forest, did I meet with that pretty little plant \textit{Ourisia Colensoi},—but in those spots there were plenty of them, and always beautifully in flower; the plants of this species grew apart, as if they liked room; in this respect differing altogether from the other species of this genus I have seen. With them were always associated the mute little brown bird with a white head, as if they were the guardian wood-nymphs of those shady bowers!—this bird I have mentioned in Paper I., p. 27.

"Oh! there are curious things of which man know
As yet but little! secrets lying hid
Within all natural objects. Be they shells,
Which ocean flingeth forth from off her billows
On the low sand; or flowers, or trees, or grasses,
Covering the earth; rich metals, or bright ores,
Beneath the surface. He who findeth out
Those secret things hath a fair right to gladness;
For he hath well-performed, and doth awake
Another note of praise on Nature's harp
To hymn her great Creator."——

I have yet to mention a few other Alpine plants peculiar to the table-land on the topmost summit,—the barest and bleakest spot! these I have rescued till last, as requiring extra notice, and though dissimilar, as to Order and Genera, I have here brought them together, because they are all found only on the most exposed peaks,—all of very low growth,—and all were only seen in curious isolated patches, tufts, or hemispherical shaped cushions closely compacted together;—each species of plant apart entirely to itself in its own tuft or patch, and never intermixed in growth with other plants,—like those others already mentioned were: by which natural means, I suppose, they manage to keep their hold in the ground. There they were on the hard dry summit clinging to the soil,—in summer exposed to the lieat of the sun and to the fierce winds which must often sweep over those peaks,—and in the winter to be deeply buried for some months in the snow. (1) \textit{Raoulia grandiflora}, a very small Compositaceous plant growing in dense tufts or patches, and bearing a pretty white flower. (2) \textit{Helophyllum Colensoi}, a curious plant, closely allied to the unique genus \textit{Forstera},—and still more closely allied to a species of this new genus, discovered by Sir J. Hooker in Lord Auckland's group and Campbell's Island, this plant also takes the form of an elegant large cushion, being closely and evenly impacted together, bearing its white starry flowers upright against the sky peering forth from its tiny moss-like leaves at the tips of its little branches! a truly Alpine-looking plant.

I managed to bring living portions with me to the Station, and kept them alive for several months under glass, where they flowered abundantly and well.
A Juncaceous plant, scarcely an inch high! *Luzula Colensoi*, also assumes dumpy hemispherical tufts or cushions. A little gem of a Restiaceous plant, much like a pale-green moss in appearance, and less than an inch in height, *Alepyrum pallidum*, is another that forms large densely spreading patches; this, also, was discovered by Sir J. Hooker in the far-off Campbell's Island. *Carex* which, strangely enough, is said to be identical with a well-known species of Europe and N. America, (*C. Pyrenaica*),—this plant is found growing together as a thick turf closely around snow-holes and snow-runs. *Pentachondra pumila* (a plant originally discovered by Forster,) densely covers exposed lumps and knobs of earth with its peculiar living mat of handsome purple-green heath-like foliage and branches, that throned and grow over each other, its elegant carmine berries of a large size for the plant, which hero and there peep from beneath, are of a peculiar oval form (not unlike the fruit of *Rosa canina*) and hollow like a bladder (resembling the bladders of some species of *Sargassum* = sea-weeds), with 5 little tiny seeds, or nuts (*pyrenes*), stuck round on the inside,—whence its generic name. These fruits are mostly hidden underneath its numerous small moss-like leaves; like the crimson fruits of the several other shrubby plants of similar low and prostrate growth, and only found at high altitudes, and there in the bleakest spots, viz. *Podocarpus nivalis, Dacrydium laxifolium, Gaultheria antipoda* (var.), *Cyathodes empetrifolia*, &c. I had long looked out for this plant, and was much gratified in finding it; but its flowers, being excessively small and insignificant and having a withered dingy appearance, much disappointed me.—

On one occasion I crossed this range in December, about Christmas,—and to my surprise found the snow lying still deep in the hollows on the top and on the W. side; in some places it was more than 6 feet deep, for I sent my long travelling spear down into it and could not touch the soil; it was frozen, however, on the surface, and was tolerably firm under the foot. It was also melting fast, the water running down all around its edges; and the heat was great in the sun, a kind of warm steam arising from it. But what struck me most of all, was to see the delicate flowers of the plants beneath (Drapetes, Veronica, Cyathodes, &c.,) emerging from the snow with a little gentle spring and with perfect petals! It was a pretty—aye! a wondrous sight,—to see the open lowers springing up through the melting snow! Reminding one of a portion of Southey's "Thalaba",—(that wondrous flower-garden in the snow,)—and of Coleridge's "Hymn in the Valley of Chamouni,"

"Te living flowers that skirt the eternal frost,” &c.

There is yet another curious plant that I should like to mention—to call attention to; not that it is confined to those high woods, for it (or a closely allied species) was formerly pretty common throughout N.Z. in the damp shady forests, but always scattered; and I have good reasons for believing that it is gradually becoming more scarce—like many other of our native plants. It is an Orchid, a species of *Gastrodia*, a small genus peculiar to N. Zealand, Australia, and Tasmania, and the E. Indian isles. It is leafless, and has a strange appearance, reminding one at first sight of the larger British species of *Orobanche* (Broom rape).

Leafless, however, and rapid, up darts the slenderer flower-stalk,
And a wonderful picture attracts the observer's eye.

"Blattloss aber und schnell erhebt sich der zärtere Stengel,
Und ein Wundergebild zeiht den Betrachtendcn an."

*Metamorphose der Pflanzen.* GOETHE.

Its root, a tolerably large cylindrical tuber, is perennial; its single scaly and spotted flower-stem is 2 feet and more high, stout, erect, and bears several pretty large and peculiar bizarre flowers. The root was eaten by the old Maoris, together with the tubers of other congenerous terrestrial Orchids,—*Pterostylis, Thelymitra, Orthoceras*, &c. (Much like those of several British Orchids,—as *Orchis mascula*, &c., from whose tubers the nutritious *salep* of commerce is obtained.) A chief reason with me for mentioning this Ruahine forest plant, is, that I have good reasons for believing it may prove to be a different species from the Northern one, *Gastrodia Cunninghamii*, Hook., fil.,—which A. Cunningham its discoverer supposed to be identical with the only Australian and Tasmanian species—*G. sesamoides* of Brown. This Ruahine plant being taller (2ft, 9in.), and much larger in all its parts than the Northern one, and bears many more flowers, 30—36, on its longer raceme of 15 inches. And though I have more than once met with it in the lower mountain woods, it had always past flowering with withered perianths.

I have already mentioned a peculiar looking peak, or spur, on the top of the Ruahine range, running in a Northerly direction (when viewed from Matuku), and called, Te Papakiakuutaa.

Page 46. See Note B., Appendix.
On every journey of mine to and from Patea, I had always been desirous of visiting that strange-looking outlying spur; and one year (probably 1850) I managed to do so. On that occasion of returning from Patea, I had arranged that we should sleep at our "stone snow-well" in the alpine forest,—that being the nearest place to the said spur that we could "camp at" on our way back to Hawke's Bay without losing much time. We did so. Early the next morning we were on the move, and when we got to the W. summit, I, for the first time told my party what I was going to do,—to visit alone Te Papakiakuuataa. For a long time they strongly objected to my plan,—for them to proceed from where we then were some 2—3 miles on to the "camping-place" on the E. side of the peak, where I would rejoin them at evening,—they preferring to remain and wait for me where we then were, which I would not allow. At last I got them to leave me,—I privately telling my trusty native among them, that if I did not appear by sun-down, he was to come as far as the "two slips" to meet me. Taking my dog with me I went on: it was a gloriously fine day, the sun was melting; ere long the course without trees or high shrubs was more difficult than I had expected owing to the snow rifts in the earth and the boulders; and when, after several hours' toil, I got to the spur and mounted on it, to my great astonishment I found that all the upper part of that huge rampart was wholly composed of loose rocks and stones without any earth or clay between! It was a singular spot; no living thing was there, save a few common small lizards (Mocoa) basking on the black rocks in the sun, which (unlike Darwin's at the Galapagos,) scuttled off pretty fast on seeing me,—though they, in all probability, had never before seen a man. Not even a plant grew on it, and my dog finding he could not well get up on it, staid behind and howled! I walked some distance over the top, though every step required caution as the stones were loose; I never saw anything natural like it before; it seemed more like a place of Cyclopean art, and together with the extreme solitude caused many strange thoughts to arise,—to which the finding of that green-stone axe,

Ante, page 55.

—and also the peculiar, almost regular, formation of the earth I had noticed in one of the dry forests in the neighbourhood lower down, as if anciently cut into ramparts and fosses (though now overgrown with fine trees of the large-leaved Fagus,) contributed their share. The prospect inland was very extensive; no doubt with a glass the people of Matuku could have seen me standing there in bold relief against the sky. I staid there a while, musing:

"How divine,
The liberty, for frail, for mortal man
To roam at largo among unpeopled glens
And mountainous retirements;——
——regions consecrate
To oldest time! and, reckless of the storm,
Be as a presence or a motion there."

The day was now fast waning, and I left the dike to return; when suddenly I became faint, and I found my strength failing me fast. I sat down and deliberated: soon after my dog came up, wet, and covered with red vegetable mud; I tracked to where he had been bathing in a small snow-water pool, between two small hills, the water in which was quite warm, almost hot, and red, and thick with decaying vegetable matter, which had been just stirred up by the dog; I grained, or squeezed, some through my handkerchief and drank, and bathed my head and face. By-and-by I proceeded, but before I got on to the open and clear table-land of the top the sun went down, and it soon became nearly dark; still the travelling was pretty good there on those flat tops, only now and then stumbling, through haste and hunger, over low tussocks and mounds and boulder stones. It grew still darker, and the place was fast becoming enveloped in night clouds, when suddenly a dark form appeared just before me, and my dog barked and stood! it was my trusty native, who, having become alarmed at ym non-appearance and long absence, had left the encampment and the "two slips", in quest of me; in two hours more,—after crawling slowly along, literally feeling one's way, as we could not now walk fast owing to the darkness, and passing the two dreaded slips without difficulty, the ground there being dry,—we got to my party, who had long sat in great fear and superstitious dread, insomuch that they had had no supper! I gained very little indeed in Botany that day; nothing whatever of importance.—

As I have said so much (incidentally) respecting the isolated natives of Patea, a few words in conclusion may not be deemed out of place. They all received Christian Instruction very readily, and soon learned to read, and several of them to write. I visited them again before that year (1847) was ended, (after having made two journeys to Cook's Straits—beyond Wellington—and back,) and several times also during the following years. A few of my Maori Teachers also visited them; and in due time they were nearly all received into the Church by Baptism. Those villages, however, have long been deserted for more eligible places, where they can dwell
with their horses and stock.—

"Still stands the forest primeval; but under the shade of its branches
Dwells another race, with other customs and language."

Several of those natives, or their descendants, are now settled with their relative the chief Renata, at Omahu, Hawke's Bay.

"The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils Himself in many ways."

Mort d'Arthur. TEMNYSON.

And now, with a few expressive and feeling lines from Wordsworth, I will close my long narration:—

"Though, changed, no doubt, from what I was when first
I went among those hills;—I cannot paint
What then I was. The sounding cataract
Haunted me like a passion: the tall rock,
The mountain, and the deep and gloomy wood,
Their colours and their forms, were then to me
An appetite; a feeling and a love.—–

A presence that disturbs me with the joy
Of elevated thoughts; a sense sublime
Of something far more deeply interfused,
Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,
And the round ocean and the living air,
And the blue sky; and in the mind of man:
A motion and a spirit, that impels
All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
And rolls through all tilings."———

Tintern Abbey. WORDSWOETH.

Appendix.

NOTE A., p. 5.

Seeing that Hawke's Bay lias become so noted for its numerous and fine large cattle, it may not be altogether out of place to give in a note their first introduction into the District; which may, at least, amuse the Breeders who read or hear of it. I brought here with me, in 1844, five head; viz., 2 cows, 2 heifers, and a young bull. One of the cows was a red poley, a well-formed creature; one that had been a few years before imported by me from Parramatta N.S.Wales (selected from Mr. Marsden's celebrated herd) to the Bay of Islands; the other was a white and yellow long-horned cow, also a good one. And here I may relate a curious incident respecting the red poley; on my vessel arriving at Ahuriri, and anchoring off the Bluff, the Captain, who had never before been in Hawke's Bay, (I acting as pilot,) went in my whaleboat and sounded the bar entrance to the harbour, and for some way within it. Presently lots of natives came off to us in several canoes, so that the ship's deck was soon uncomfortably crowded. The Captain, however, did not enter the Ahuriri, though he would have done so (he said) if a change of weather should come on, his vessel a brig of 160 tons being rather large, but anchored off the Waitangi Mission Station, where he discharged all his loading for me. I may also here mention as a thing of the past, never more to be seen in Hawke's Bay, that on that occasion we had no less than 120 canoes at one time around our ship, which with the fierceness of the people, at first alarmed our Captain pretty considerably. While at our first anchorage, we determined on landing the cattle there under the Bluff, and while these were getting ready, a high dispute arose among the Natives on Board, at the head of which was the Chief—Te Waaka te kawatini (subsequently so well known to the settlers here), and the dispute was simply
this,—that the said red poley cow was a horse! it was referred at last to me and soon decided. There being no
grass then about the Waitangi Station, the cattle wandered a good deal seeking food, and were with difficulty
found and brought home. By-and-bve the red poley was killed just after calving; the fierce wild pigs having
absolutely eaten away the teats and adjoining parts of the cow! through which she had miserably died, and was
so found by us very soon after. We sought diligently all around for the calf, but could find no trace of it, no
remains; and we supposed that it had been eaten too. I got several natives to dig a large and deep pit to bury the
cow, and this was done; and a week or so afterwards the little red calf (like its dam) was accidentally found
dead, lying whole and stretched out across its mother's grave! One of the two heifers fared much the same in
calving as the poley cow; we knew her time was near, and had kept up a pretty good watch over her,—but there
being yet no food close at hand, and the great flood of 1845 happening, (the greatest by far that I have ever
known,) the winter too having commenced, and the great difficulty of getting any of the Natives to do any thing
properly, owing to their being wholly unused to all our work, and to the disagreeableness of the job of
searching that wet and tangled flat half-naked and in wet and cold weather,—and then (as I take it) the
propensity of cattle to seek some retired and sheltered spot for calving,—she wandered far away, so that she
could not be timely found; at last she was found, recently dead, killed!—with the head of the partly expelled
calf gnawed off and all the surrounding soft parts of the mother including her udder!! This, however, was
mainly if not entirely done by a big ferocious bull-dog or half-breed, which the Natives had some time before
obtained from a ship off the Cape at a high price as a pig-dog. I scarcely need add, that I could obtain no
redress: I had "to grin and bear it." My time of power and influence among them had not yet come; indeed, I
was scarcely settled down, and had quite enough to do to hold my own against the suspicious and powerful
tribal Chiefs (or petty Kings!), who were all, at that time, determined heathen and opposed to Christianity. In a
few years, however, patient perseverance was rewarded, and things were wonderfully changed. Ultimately that
savage dog was obliged to be killed; not, however, until after he had done me much mischief.

I could also give several other strange anecdotes respecting those few cattle and their offspring,—and of
what I had to put up with respecting them, during my early years of residence here,—which would scarcely
now be believed!

I may, however, add a brief history of the first Horse. This animal was obtained by me from Poverty Bay
(overland), in 1846; it was a fine strong docile creature, a bright bay gelding with black points, and named
Cæsar. I have already mentioned " the great flood of 1845,"—that completely destroyed all my first farming!
or, laying-down of two paddocks (about 4 acres) in ryegrass and clover. I had got the ground cleared, dug up,
drained all round—the situation being very low—and partly fenced, at an enormous amount of trouble, not to
mention expense; and the grasses sprang delightfully; when the heavy flood came and destroyed all!—The silt
deposited on that occasion, (as I subsequently informed Dr. Featherstone, then Superintendent of the Province,
at his official request,) measured, in some spots in my two paddocks 2ft. 4in. in depth, and in none less than
4—5 inches. To return: there was no grass about the Station, or indeed anywhere on all the low lands around,
for the horse; so that, in the following autumn, (during my long absence from the Station,) the poor horse died!
mainly from want of proper food and the wet plashy state of the whole low country around. Had I, however,
been there, I would have turned him out on to the long beach between Waitangi and Ahuriri, where he could
have found a scanty picking on dry ground; but those in charge feared to do so, lest he should seek to go back
to Poverty Bay, and in doing so, attempt to swim the Ahuriri and be carried out to sea. I was told, on my return,
that the frogs of his four feet had swollen out like balls or cushions, so that for a long time before his death he
could not stand. The Maoris were then, at the last, greatly interested in saving him, and gathered coarse grasses
and leafy shrubs at a distance in profusion, and brought them to him. Though broken-in to saddle, he was never
ridden by us.

I should also give a brief outline of my early troubles attendant on my first attempts at farming:—viz. the
bringing-in to cultivation a few acres of the wild waste, by preparing and laying it down with grasses. I have
already mentioned the heavy flood in 1845, and the deep deposit of silt it left; that was bad enough, and
destroyed all hopes of grass for the first year. But that trouble and disappointment, great though it proved to be,
was but slight when compared with the greater trouble that arose from the fencing not being completed! I have
said, that the 4 acres of cleared land were "partly fenced"; and thus that ground remained for nearly four years!
and it came about in this way. In order to please the five head Chiefs of these parts, (who were then exceedingly
poor, and badly off in money and clothing and moveable goods, and very jealous of each other,) all the work
required by me must be shared between them, so that themselves and their people might get a little of the
payment,—indeed no Maori could undertake any job without first obtaining the assent of his Chief; therefore it
was arranged that each principal Chief was to have part of the fencing to erect. With four of them I managed
pretty well, and during the first year of residence they completed their shares of the work; but Te Hapuku, who
had the long W. side to erect, delayed it, and would not allow his tribe to touch it, (and, of course, none of the
others dared to do so!) And this was solely owing to my refusal to advance him any thing more, he having
already largely overdrawn the sum fixed for the job (at so much per fathom). And during this long period the numerous half-wild pigs of that place (surrounded as it was on three sides by water,) came in herds to eat down and root up the clover, and to destroy the drain!—which, at first, was a very well made and effectual one. It was about four years before Te Hapuku allowed his share of the fence to be made, and it was the worst piece of work of the whole lot, composed of roughly split white pine from the "Big Bush" near by, and badly put up; while the E. fence, composed wholly of totara, laboriously brought from Kohinurakau 25 miles distant, dubbed down, and securely cross-bound to the rails, stood sound and good for 20 years and upwards. Those early years were, indeed, a time and school for patience!

**NOTE B., pp. 9, 46, 56, 62.**

I have not unfrequently mentioned the peculiar and figurative yet fitting names of places and things given them by the ancient Maoris. Particularly in my Papers on "Nomenclature," published here last year. And so, here, I would endeavour to explain the compound names of those three prominent peaks of the Ruahine range, viz.—

- **Te-atua-o-mahuru.**
- **Te-atua-o-parapara:** or, **Oparapara.**
- **Te-papaki-a-kuuta.**

These proper names are each composed of a sentence of four (and five) words; each name containing or implying a personification; and, no doubt, in the opinion of the ancient Maoris possessing a right and proper meaning,—though lost, or nearly so, to the present generation. As it is difficult to explain them fully and clearly in a foot-note in a few words, I have reserved doing so for this place.

1. **TE-ATCA-O-MAHURU, pp. 9 and 56.**

Of this name the last word (**mahuru**) is now almost obsolete, rarely used save in old songs, and has several meanings,—all similar to the Maori mind.—(1) Deep yearning affection towards an absent one,—as husband, child, &c. (2) The same exhibited towards any one bringing tidings of the absent one; or, on casually hearing from a travelling party of his welfare, &c. (3) Ease, relief comfortable feelings on sitting and resting after climbing a steep ascent. (4) With the causative particle prefixed,—to help kindly; to attend gently on a weak person; alleviation of pain and weakness; comfort. (5) An old name for the Spring season, return of Spring, warm welcome weather: hence (6) a name for the migratory Cuckoo (**Cuculus lucidus**), that arrives here early,—**nga-karere-o-Mahuru** = the heralds of Spring.—

**Atua,** = (here,)—any being or thing of an evil, demon-like nature, sort, or kind; the enemy, or very opposite of a good thing, sort, or quality.—

**Te,** art., sing.,—here, emphatic and intensive.

**O,** prep. of.—

So that, **Te-atua-o-mahuru,**—the opponent of, or something opposed to affection, good-tidings, kindness, relief, warm and comfortable weather, &c. A fit name for a barren and rugged mountain top, where in snow and rough weather no one could sit to rest after toiling up the ascent; which might also serve to indicate its being the barrier to loved ones left below on either side.

2. **TE ATUA-O-PARAPARA: or, abbreviated, OPARAPARA.**

Here, too, the last word (**parapara**) has several meanings.—(1) Dregs, dross, small fragments, crumbs, slime, scud, &c. (2) A sacred isolated spot or place,—fire,—food, &c. Either or both of the above may be well-applied here:—(1) for snow,—as dregs, scud, &c., deposits from the Southerly gales.

See **Para-te-tai-tongs,** = Dirt, or dregs, from-the-Southern-Sea,—the name of the higher mountain in the interior, always covered with snow: p.45.—Also, "Nomenclature," p. 16.

:—(2) sacred isolated peak; (N.B. What the old Chief said respecting it, p. 37).

The other three words,—**Te,**—**atua,**—and **o,**—as before.

Then we have,—The disagreeable hateful (place) of the leavings of the cold Southerly gales,—i.e., snow. Or, if abbreviated, (**Oparapara,**)—"place" (understood) "of snow." Or, the name may have originally been, carrying out the personification,—**Te-atua-ko-parapara;** (the k being dropped, as is often done for abbreviation and euphony;) which only serves to intensify disgust at the place.

Those are two of the culminating peaks of the range, and are visible all over Hawke's Bay and country E. and S.


This very remarkable place has certainly a correspondingly remarkable name. As in the former proper
names above, so here, the last word is the difficult one to fix the meaning of; though this one is much more so.

After no small study, I think that *kuuta* must be taken as representing *tu uta*; (*k* in ancient words being sometimes used for *t*;)

In the Hawaiian (Sandwich Islands) dialect *k* is frequently interchanged with *t*; and it is worthy perhaps of notice, that another romantic place among these mountains not very far away N. from this,—*Kuripapango,—is supposed to derive its old proper name from a Hawaiian word. (*Vide,* "Three Literary Papers*," by W.C., p. 4: 1883.)

) then, *tu uta* may mean,—*Tu*, = the warrior god (Mars) defender of the interior (*uta*). *Papaki*—the perpendicular cliff, dyke, barrier. *Te*, and *a*, (active prep, for *of*) as before. Thus we have,—The barrier of (the) defender god (of the) interior.

I noticed, that some of the old Maoris of Patea laid stress on and lengthened the last vowel of the word; thus,—"Te-papaki-a-kuuta"; the meaning however would be very nearly the same,—instead of—"the god-defender of the interior" (*uta*); it would be, the "god-man-slayer by dashing down" (*taa*). Both meanings, as they seem to me, are equally suitable.—

**NOTE C., p. 30.**

I may here briefly mention, for the information of many, the boundaries of the "parish"(!) or ecclesiastical district assigned to me by Bishop Selwyn in—if only to show the amount of heavy travelling I necessarily had in those days. From the River Waikari on the N. to Cape Palliser and Port Nicholson S., (more than 2½° of longitude,) including also the Maori villages in Cook's Straits,—Ohariu, Ohaua, &c.; and from Taupo Lake on the W. to the E. sea-coast, including the River Manawatu to the Gorge, and thence through the forests to Wairarapa. My long distant journeys occupied me about 7 months every year, exclusive of those made to the villages nearer me—say, within 50 miles; the long half-yearly journey (in which I visited all the distant S. and W. Maori villages, going by the sea-coast and returning through the forests of the interior,—or vice versa,) usually took from 76 to 84 days, dependent on the weather; and all on foot, without roads or paths; and not unfrequently (at first) without even tracks, or guides;—travelling by compass, in the interior, and by the coast line, over rocks and tidal beaches; often having there to wait at headlands and cliffs for the tide to ebb, and not unfrequently sadly delayed and put out at the mouths of the rivers! Let any one who may doubt, or who is ambitious of knowing something of that kind of travelling in the past, let him just try a run, with a load on his back, *over the rocks* from the mouth of the river at Manawarakau to Pauanui (near Pouerere); or, *over the rocks* from Akitio to Owahanga; or the tramp by the strict coast-line all the way from Cape Palliser to Wellington; those places being still pretty much as they were in a state of Nature.

**NOTE D., p. 41.**

Strangely enough, Sir J. "D. Hooker, in the "Hand Book", gives "Tongariro and Ruahine range", as the only habitat in the N. Island of *D. Colensoi*; and that too, as from *me*: such, however, is not the case, as a reference to the *Icones Plantarum* (vol. II., tab. 548) of his father (who received the original plant (*D. Colensoi*) from me, and who there first described it) will shew,—unless this very small "Tongariro" plant, and a larger one from "Ruahine", may prove to be only Alpine varieties of that species, *D. Colensoi*.—The original *D. Colensoi* I found only in the N. forests, inland on the high ranges between Whangarei and Whangaruru Bays, in 1841; it is a large and scarce "Pine" there, the true *Manoao* of the old New Zealanders. Since writing the above, I find, from vol X. "Transactions", just to hand, that Mr. Kirk, has (I think) unintentionally contributed a little more to the foregoing error respecting *Dacrydium Colensoi* Therefore, I here give an extract from my letter to Sir W. J. Hooker, of July 1841, (as published by him in the *London Journal of Botany*, vol. I. p. 298).—

"Since I had last the pleasure of addressing you, I have made a journey of about 4 weeks to Whangarei Bay and neighbourhood, in S. lat. 36°, returning by a circuitous route, via the interior. - - - In the box now sent you will find some things both novel and interesting. - - - *The king of the whole lot is my new "Pine,"* from the high hills near the Eastern coast. For many years I had heard of this tree from the aborigines, but could never obtain a specimen, no one knowing where it was to be found. They had heard of such a tree, and some of the oldest Chiefs had occasionally seen it, when hunting in the forests; but all agreed that it was very rare, only growing singly. The reason, too, for its infrequent occurrence was this,—*Tane*, one of their illustrious demgods hid it! Still it existed, a distinct tree which never rotted. As a proof of all this, the people, wherever they could find a tree, reserved it for a coffin to hold the remains of a chief. These statements, you may well suppose, only inflamed my desire to possess specimens of this wonderful tree. I sought and sought, but all in vain, wherever I went, making inquiries after, and offering rewards for it,—until I actually gained a name among the natives for doing so. At last, early in this year (1841), after a toilsome march through an unfrequented spot and jungle, to
the place where I had been informed that one grew, I found it! I will not attempt to describe my satisfaction, which was much increased by observing that the specimens I had acquired were in fruit.—The tree (for a "Pine") is not large, about 50 feet high, and 2ft. Gin. in diameter. In appearance it somewhat resembles the Kahikatea (Podocarpus dacrydioides). - - - I also send a specimen of the wood. The bark on the trunk is deciduous, but not like that of the Totara which is fibrous; this is only scaly and brittle, as in the Kauri (Dammara Australis). Subsequently on the same range of hills, I saw two other of these "Pines," of nearly similar size."

**NOTE E., p. 46.**

It is perhaps worthy of recording, that this was the first inland Christian Chapel erected in this extensive District. It was neatly and strongly built, very simple, with plain narrow lancet windows, and three together (the central one larger) in the E. end; its whole furniture consisting of a small holy table, a rustic font-stand, and a strong reading-desk; no seats or forms. The floor, however, was nicely covered with matting of undressed N.Z. Flax (*Phormium*), neatly woven in a narrow pattern by the women. The windows were without glass, (we being too poor and too far away from civilization,) but they had white canvas strained and oiled instead,—which served just as well.

This building was in daily use for many years for School, and Religious Worship, and yielded good service; being largely esteemed by the Maoris of all parts, many of them coming from a long distance to see it. It was subsequently enlarged, as the little peaceful Christian Village grew in size and importance; and on the settling in its neighbourhood of the first European settlers (some 7—8 years after), it was also occasionally used by them on Sundays for Divine Service. Unfortunately its end, and that of the Maori Christian village of Waipukurau, were not what they should have been. Its name, however, is perpetuated in that of the present neat and rising township.

**NOTE F., p. 50.**

Having mentioned the Chief Renata, I may here give, in a note, a little more of this man's career, showing (as often is the case) how truth is stranger than fiction! In due course of time (from the storming of Te Awarua), in those old days of frequent fighting, slavery and death, Te Kawepo was again taken prisoner by other tribes from the N., and eventually found his way, as a slave, to Te Waimate in the Bay of Islands. There, with others (slaves), he was brought under the influence of Missionary Teaching,—was taught in their schools to Read and Write, &c.,—was in the end Baptized, taking the name of Renata (Leonard),—and, on my leaving Te Waimate (the second time) in 1844 for Hawke's Bay, I brought him here with me, partly as a Domestic. He lived with me some considerable time, and did good service in many ways; often travelling to visit outlying places as a Christian Teacher, (on foot, and barefooted, scantily clad and without pay!) and, on one occasion, at my request, visited this far-off Patea,—and, of course, this very spot at Te Awarua. The whole story, however, of this man's life, though very interesting and remarkable, is too long, too intricate, to be related here; to show how he attained to his present high position of the principal Chief of his tribe:—it would form an interesting little book.

**NOTE G., p. 53.**

I had one more truly awful night on this range, and on this W. flank of it, but much nearer to the summit; which I may as well relate here.—Curiously enough it was in returning from my very last visit, made in 1852; and it was brought about in this way. I made two visits to Patea in that year; the last one was very late in the season, in May; and I went there purposely to marry the chief's son, Frederic, whom I had Baptized, a fine young man; which I had also promised to do. The days were very short, and among my baggage-bearers were three new hands, who were unused to bush and mountain travelling. In leaving Te Awarua, where we had purposely slept, so as to start early for the mountain and get over the summit and the "two slips" before night,—fearing, too, any sudden change in the weather, at this advanced season, which had been threatening, (having now a nice snug little camping place just below the tops on the E. side,) my new hands being also heavily laden with the good things of Patea,—potted birds and roast pig—the *debris* of the marriage-feast,—loitered] behind and straggled about in the forests, in spite of all my remonstrances. The consequence was, that the sun went down when we were more than an hour's journey from the summit, and it very soon became dark; so that we had to bring up on the lower part of Maunga Taramea! with snow lying all around!! The darkness was excessive; we hastily put up the tent (in a miserable kind of way), but there was no fern nor grass nor leafy branches for the wet floor, and, try as much as we could, we could not make the fire burn,—it would only just simmer without any flame! We had no supper, for we could not roast our potatoes; at last I had a cup of tea made with some snow water, and then, as a last expedient, I got my little kettle refilled
with snow and boiled, and took it hot into my tent and blankets to warm me; in the morning it was a solid lump of ice inside my bedding! At one time, during that long night, I did not expect to see the morning. My poor natives sat huddled together on the wet cold ground all night, not daring to move through fear of the prickly Tarameas (Aciphylla)! the miserable fire soon going out; we kept calling one to another till daybreak. Oh! what a night that was—never to be forgotten! With the morning came the cold cold (and wet) fog; and it was two hours after sunrise before we, on the shaded W. side, got his beams! We dared not to move, for everything around was dripping wet, and with the horrid young' Tarameas poking through the snow! Myself and native companions for years after, spoke shudderingly of that night!

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Afternoon Service.

**Psalm C.**

A Psalm of Thanksgiving.—Make a joyful noise unto the Lord all ye lands. Serve the Lord with gladness: come before his presence with singing. Know ye that the Lord he is God: it is he that hath made us, and we are his; we are his people, and the sheep of his pasture. Enter into his gates with thanksgiving, and into his courts with praise: be thankful unto him, and bless his name. For the Lord is good; his mercy is everlasting; and his truth endureth to all generations.

**Psalm XV.**

A Psalm of David.—Lord, who shall abide in thy tabernacle? who shall dwell in thy holy hill? He that walketh uprightly, and worketh righteousness, and speaketh the truth in his heart. He that backbiteth not with his tongue, nor doeth evil to his neighbour, nor taketh up a reproach against his neighbour. In whose eyes a vile person is contemned; but he honoureth them that fear the Lord. He that sweareth to his own hurt, and cliangetli not. He that putteth not out his money to usury, nor taketh reward against the innocent. He that doeth these things shall never be moved.

Bless the Lord, 0 my soul, and forget not all his benefits; who forgiveth all thine iniquities; who healeth all thy diseases; who redeemeth thy life from destruction; who crowneth thee with lovingkindness and tender mercies; who satisfieth thy mouth with good things, so that thy youth is renewed like the eagle's.

He asked life of thee, and thou gavest it him, even length of days for ever and ever. His glory is great in thy salvation honour and dignity wilt thou lay upon him. For thou wilt make him most blessed for ever; thou wilt make him exceeding glad with thy countenance.

I will go in the strength of the Lord God; I will make mention of thy righteousness, even of thine only. O
God, thou hast taught me from my youth; and hitherto I have declared thy wondrous works. Now also when I am old and grey-headed, O God, forsake me not, until I have showed thy strength to this generation, and thy power to every one that is to come.

Sermon.

Prayer.

Almighty God! We have entered into Thy gates with thanksgiving, and into Thy courts with praise, to give thanks unto Thee for Thy loving kindness and Thy truth.

Verily, Thou hast shown Thy wondrous goodness unto Thy pious servant. This is the day that we looked for, we have found, we have seen it. This day one hundred years are fulfilled of the life of Moses, the son of JOSEPH ELIAS MONTEFIORE, and his eye has not been dimmed.

When we remember the righteous deeds he has wrought for Israel, we acknowledge with humility, that all things come of Thee, that Thou didst inspire every good resolve. Thou didst enkindle in his heart the love of his people—a most vehement flame, and he went out unto his brethren and looked on their burdens. When he journeyed to the Holy Land, to succour the distressed indwellers thereof, Thou wast at his right hand Thou wast with his mouth when he appeared before the sovereigns of the East and the West, to stand in the breach, and to turn aside the wrath of the oppressors from the oppressed. Thou didst prosper his desire to magnify Thy law and make it honourable. To old age and even to hoar hairs didst Thou bear and deliver him. Thou didst assure unto him a place and a name better than of sons and of daughters.

Lord of Recompense! Even as Thou hast been with Thy servant, so be with him still. Keep him as the apple of the eye. From lingering illness defend him. May his eyes see that the righteousness he has sown has blossomed and borne fruit. Sustain him with the blissful hope that in the way of virtue is life, and immortality in the pathway thereof.

God of the spirits of all flesh! In Thy hand is the pure soul of Judith, the faithful helpmate of her husband, who strengthened his arms to seek healing for those that were bowed in spirit, and; to revive the hearts of those that were bruised. Show her the path of life, fulness of joy in Thy presence.

Father of Mercies! Fill our hearts with the steadfast desire to tread in the footsteps of those that were chosen of Thee, that we may labor in Thy cause, quickened by the love of Thee and the love of our fellow-men, and assured, that they who turn many to righteousness will shine as the stars for ever.

Bestower of all good! Vouchsafe Thy blessing unto our country, beneath the shadow of which we dwell in happiness. May there be peace within her boundaries, and may her prosperity wax exceeding great. Cause Thy face to shine upon the mother of our land, our Sovereign lady the Queen. Make her glad, we beseech Thee, according to the days wherein Thou hast afflicted her. Protect her son, the Heir-apparent, and may her offspring, even children to the third and fourth generation, be blessed of Thee. Vouchsafe wisdom and understanding unto her ministers and counsellors. Pour out Thy spirit upon all the indwellers of the earth. Cause envy and hatred to perish, so that all may delight in the abundance of peace and good will.

Be gracious unto us, O Lord, make Thy face to shine upon us, and render us worthy of Thy salvation. Do good in Thy good pleasure unto Zion; build Thou the walls of Jerusalem. Amen.

PSALM CL.

Praise ye the Lord. Praise God in his sanctuary: praise him in the firmament of his power. Praise him for his mighty acts; praise him according to his excellent greatness. Praise him with the sound of the trumpet: praise him with the psaltery and harp. Praise him with the timbrel and dance: praise him with stringed instruments and flutes. Praise him upon the loud cymbals: praise him upon the high sounding cymbals. Let everything that hath breath praise the Lord. Praise ye the Lord.

Edward and Green, Printers, Brandon Street, Wellington.

Colonial Land Association.

Reduction of Mortgage-Interest Rates,
As Suggested in Letters to the Public Press, and in an Address Delivered at Pendarves,
Canterbury, N.Z,
By J. H. Newlyn.
Second Edition (Revised), Price Sixpence.
Published by A. Simpson, Bookseller and Stationer Christchurch High Street 1884
"Lyttelton Times" Company Limited, Gloucester Street.
Colonial Land Association.
Meeting at Pendarves.

At the request of several farmers, who had read the letters in the Lyttelton Times on the subject of Mortgage Interest, Mr. NEWLYN delivered the following address, on Thursday evening, July 17th, to an attentive audience of landowners. Mr. "W. H. Rule occupied the chair.

MR RULE AND GENTLEMEN,—In times of election excitement, one naturally looks for a good bunch of promises from all who venture to speak in public, whether as candidates for election, or as "free-lances" like myself. Long years ago, a gentleman commonly known as Jack Cade, promised the Working Men's Political Association of his day, that he would so arrange the Liquor Bill as to enable them to squeeze a quart of beer into a pint pot, and I should very much like to hold out hopes of being able to get an extra bushel of wheat into each of your corn sacks, when the thresher pays its next visit to your district; for I have no doubt that you would quickly avail yourselves of the chance of getting the better of the Railway Department before and another change in the grain tariff prevented your getting the extra bushel carried over the line for nothing. But, although I cannot increase your harvest, I think I can show you how you may obtain greater profit; from the yields with which you may be favoured, and this—without any injustice to those with whom you may be in commercial alliance at present. Before going into the details connected with Mortgage Interest, I cannot, let us hope, do much harm by reminding you that there is every likelihood of

A Change of Taxation.

As your position in relation to your property may be materially altered by any fresh arrangements that may be made by the State for revenue purposes, I would respectfully urge upon you the necessity of watching the tendency of any legislation towards an increase in the taxation of your land, not, as you will understand, for the purpose of evading fair liabilities, but that you may prevent the advocates for a Land tax from shifting their share of the burdens of the country on to your shoulders.

Such a course would injure the country as much as it would impede your advancement, for inequality of taxation is as dangerous to a State as is a badly trimmed cargo to a vessel.

The Non-Existence of a Guiding Rule

for the adjustment of town and country taxes, especially in relation to railways and other great public works, has resulted in the choice of a Land-tax by the citizens, and in the advocacy of a Property-tax by the rural population of New Zealand, where

Protection

has many disciples at the present time; but I think they are mainly residents of the towns, such articles as butter, cheese, chaff, provisions, fresh fruit and potatoes being admitted into our ports free of duty, while saddlery, woolpacks and kerosene, which are chiefly used in the country districts, are liable to duty. Last year £18,500 were collected as duty for kerosene, which, outside of the towns, has not the rivalry of gas to contend against; and coal and gas pipes are allowed free entrance into the Colony. I only mention these items to draw your attention to the advisability of scrutinising very carefully the coming changes in our tariff. No doubt some of you have seen an old lady, fond of her "bawbees," buying calico or some such material. She first prods her thumbs into the stuff, as if she were going to knead dough, then she gives her hands a sudden jerk apart, as if she thought she held a "bonbon;" and, lastly, after trying to stare out of window through the calico, she gives a sniff, and says she'll call again. You can't go far wrong if you inquire with equal diligence and suspicion into the merits of the new tariff.

A few months ago Dobbin's Ford put itself to its best use by inducing travellers between Christchurch and Ashburton to enter into conversation. After an exchange of newspapers and a preliminary cough, the great riddle was asked—" What do you think of Dobbin's Ford?" Now it is—"Do you think we shall get the
"Unearned Increment?"

The question is one that, as Dundreary would say, "no fellah can understand," for no two persons will give similar meanings to the expression. In its relation to farm property, it seems to imply that the wages of the farmer and his family which have been lent to the property at compound interest, are to be taken by the State because of the folly displayed in not drawing and spending the wages, like the impecunious agitators who keep up the cry of get the "unearned increment." Now, the land on which we are at present has not, I believe, been in the hands of the farming community more than eight years. As I am rather anxious to get my share of the great "unearned," I will suppose that eight years ago a farmer, with his wife and young family, came on to these plains to break in his 500 acres of tussock land, bought at £2 per acre. He has been working as hard as the best farm hand he could get for 25s a week and "tucker," and his wife has during the whole time done her fair share of the "breaking in." The pay earned each year by the couple amounts to say £100. Their food and the barest necessities being scantily supplied from the proceeds of the sale of the crops and produce generally, every available shilling being put upon the farm in fencing, planting, and building. Of course, I am not mean enough to debit the farmer with the few toys bought for Tommy, or the doll brought home for Dora, when father returns after selling his wheat. During the eighth year two of the boys earn a good 5s a week each; and as the "old man" has just told his "old woman" that he has been offered £5 10s an acre for his compact little freehold, let us see how they come out of the farm and what "unearned increment" there is, as I want some of it. In the first place let us reckon that the family get 5 per cent per annum interest for the money they put into the undertaking either as capital or wages. Having done this we find that they are entitled to a sum of £2157, and, as the price just accepted for the property amounts to £2750, the unearned increment is £293, or 11s 8½d per acre. As the rate of interest upon which the above calculation is made is much below what the farmer would have to pay as a borrower, we will make a fresh one, and will lend the farmer's capital and the wages of himself and family to the property at 7½ per cent per annum. We now find that to pay the debts due to those who lent the money, the farm should be sold for not less than £2853 2s 3d, and by altering the selling value of the farm to £5 5s per acre, we find that when sold the property has proved to be a loss to the man who broke it in to the extent of £228 2s 3d. Would the Government Collector of the unearned increment make good the loss in this case? From the above examples you can infer that the position of the farmer who has been working on the capital of others borrowed at the last-named rate, will not be an enviable one, and the whole drift of my letters to the Times and of the suggestion made two months since at Mr Wason's meeting at Chertsey, has been to get the present

High Rates of Mortgage-Interest Reduced.

The original proposal, that the Government should assist in, and share the profit of, raising loans to lift existing mortgages, has gradually been adopted, in forms more or less original, by numerous candidates for Parliamentary honours. Mr John Holmes said, when criticising the Financial Statement, that the Government should have assisted farmers, and at Springfield, Mr C. Fraser spoke strongly in its favour. Captain Tosswill, Mr Ivess, Mr Sutter and several others have promised their support to a Bill having for its object the lowering of the prevailing rate of mortgage-interest. I must refer you to the printed letters on the subject for fuller information as to the general scope of my proposals, which are now only briefly alluded to for the purpose of stating my firm conviction that a

Strong Combination of Farmers

could raise money, on landed security, on much wore even terms than they do at present. You all know the advantages which wholesale buyers have over small dealers in ordinary commerce. To a very great extent the large borrower occupies a similar relative position to the seeker after a small loan; and as you can get coal at a cheaper rate purchasing by the ton instead of in single bags, and at separate femes, so you may expect to get the loan required for a hundred mortgages on better terms than the mortgagors could hope for as individual applicants for monetary help. By combining, the farming community may obtain the

Help of a Strong Bank.

in raising loans, gradually to take up expiring mortgages on improved agreements. If the Government would take the matter up, as they have such subjects as Railways and Government Life Assurance, it would be a grand thing for this colony, as it would mean a lowering of what is practically the farmers' rent by from 20 to 50 per cent. But I think that the only safe way in which the State can take entire control of such an arrangement is by a gradual payment of the principal on a plan to which I shall presently allude.; But, unless this plan be
adopted, I now think that

**Government Need not Interfere**

on behalf of farmers except by assisting them to get a Bill passed so that they may be able to combine successfully to help themselves; and I certainly do not advocate that the Government should grant small loans to farmers, except to lift mortgages, because those who have their property mortgaged will not be able to offer adequate security, while those who are fortunate enough to be free can usually get sufficient credit without requiring a loan. In my opinion, you must strike at the root of the evil, and join together in raising the money necessary to pay off the mortgagees as their claims mature.

It might possibly happen that "cheap money" would drive out some very dear capital, in which case the grief of those benefited by the change would resemble in mildness that of the middle-aged Celestial, who saw signs of his mother's "breaking-up" in the lessening vigour of her whippings.

The Government can now borrow in England at 4 per cent, and I have no doubt that, for 1 per cent more the farming community could raise all the loans needed to gradually "lift" existing mortgages if the assistance of the New Zealand loan agents could be obtained.

You will naturally enough ask what position this would cause the Government to occupy to the

**Colonial Land Association,**

under which name the farmers will, I hope, combine to treat with the outside world. A young and rising merchant in London was suddenly forced to ask for the assistance of his banker to a considerable extent, and he was going into the Bank to learn his fate, for there was a "crisis" at the time, when he ran against Baron Kothschild, who, being then in a good humour, said a few words to the merchant, with whom he was slightly acquainted, and, after shaking hands, passed on. The merchant was amazed and overjoyed to get the banker's reply to the effect that he might command the resources of the establishment. The manager, from his window, had seen the king of the money market shake hands with the bank's client, and it had the same effect as if the Baron had backed the merchant's bill. Now, I think that if the Government will just shake hands in a friendly way with the proposed Association, by giving reasonable assistance to a Bill in Parliament, the New Zealand farmers will be able to draw on the resources of the London money market to any extent they may reasonably require. I would therefore advise all farmers to join in forming an Association, in which all shareholders, with the sanction of a strong Directory, will be entitled to raise a sum not exceeding the value of their land as rated by the present Property tax, or the amount for which their property may be at present mortgaged. The Association should borrow upon the combined security in the possession of its members, and should be legally liable for the total amount of annual interest agreed to be paid for loans raised in England to pay off present mortgages. The Postmaster-General, the Commissioner of the Government Insurance Department, and the Public Trustee might be authorised to invest moneys with the Association, just as the Court of Chancery permits its Trust Funds to be invested in 3 per cent Consols, Indian Government 4 per cent Stocks, Canadian 4 per cent Guaranteed Loan, and a few other "safe" things. I may remark here that the better the security offered the lower will be the rate of interest demanded, and I have no doubt that the countenance of the Government to the scheme, and the due protection of the holders of Association stock, would enable farmers to divide a profit of from a half to three-quarters of a million annually, supposing £20,000,000 to be at present invested in rural mortgages, for Mr Holmes recently stated that interest up to 8, 0, or 10 per cent is frequently paid by farmers. I have heard tell of a merchant, in the habit of "accommodating" country cousins, who actually paid 15 per cent for a considerable sum of money. By the time that loan reached the farmer the rate must have risen considerably. Now the answer to this agitation is that it should be left, as at present, to

**Private Enterprise.**

But it will be found upon enquiry that private enterprise has, hitherto, only meant that the merchant or lawyer has been, too often an Old Man of the Sea upon the back of poor Sinbad turned farmer. Indeed, a farmer in a large way may be said, not infrequently, to carry a merchant or his chief clerk on his back; even the despised "cockatoo" is a bird not too small for crushing in the folds of the boa-constrictor, as I will show by a typical case. By hard work a certain small farmer was able to take up and partly pay for a block of land containing about 200 acres, which was mortgaged to a merchant at about £4 an acre. The farmer was forced to transact his business, under very inconvenient terms, through his mortgagee, who, when he found that his client had a small pention of land unmortgaged, tried his "little best," which was no small thing in meanness, to get the poor "cockie" well in his folds. When the interest was a little over due, and the grain was either in stook or in the stack, the merchant said he would have to charge 5½% commission for the overdue interest, but when the
meek farmer objected, consented to put at the bottom of the agreement that the commission should be deducted if the debtor sold his grain to his creditor. The merchant took all the grain but the barley, with which he would have nothing to do, but when the farmer made arrangements to ship it to Melbourne through another firm, the personification of the advantages of private enterprise bounced his client into giving him an order to get half the barley, the other having been put on shipboard. Both lots were of equal quality, and sold in the same market, but, when the farmer got the account sale he found to his cost that the mortgagee's charges made him a loser to the extent of some pounds by the division of the barley, j besides the loss of one bag, which went astray. Seeing that a prolonged acquaintance with the steady-going merchant would cause the loss of both the mortgaged and the free land, the farmer by a lucky arrangement was able to effect a fresh mortgage and pay off the merchant instead of being sent off his land. When he tried to square up accounts, he found that the merchant would not entertain his claim for the refund of the 5½ per cent commission, and threatened to have the man locked up because he would not let the memo, out of his hands. I dare say some of you can estimate the amount of "side" that a big grain merchant can occasionally put on. Well, I must finish my tale which is worth the time it has occupied, as it is a fair type of many j farmers' experiences. Having obtained a lawyer's advice to take out a summons for the refund of the commission, in due course the

**Farmer and the Merchant**

appear in court and the latter, after trying for a short adjournment, obtains the postponement of the case for a week, when the farmer again, and at considerable expense, makes his bow before the Magistrate, who, after hearing his evidence and recording "no appearance" of the defendant, gives judgment for the amount claimed. Those who find the subject dry may take out their pocket pistols, while they give a thankful thought at the triumph of bucolic virtue over urban vice. But, unfortunately for our hero, he finds, on smilingly pre seating himself before the clerk to lift the spoil, that the merchant has just persuaded the magistrate to grant a re-hearing on the plea that he was away in the country, and could not reach the court in time to defend the case. The farmer's lawyer puts it a question in such a way to his client as to make it appear that he did not offer the barley to the merchant, "Oh, that alters the case altogether," judgment is reversed, and the virtuous farmer returns like Cincinnatus to his plough. Now, if that farmer is correct in his statement that the lawyer who took his retainer had the merchant for a permanent client, we must unite in thinking that private enterprise does not at present sufficiently protect agricultural interests.

Sir Walter Scott is accused of having destroyed the memory of a nervous boy, in his class at school, by cutting off a particular trouper button which his opponent invariably fondled when he successfully answered any question that had mastered Master Walter. If you will kindly imagine the nervous boy to be your mortgagee, while you occupy the place of Scott, and the button represents the excessive rate of interest, you are at present paying, you may be indulgent while I perform the dry task of showing how I propose to cut the button off in a

**Sketch of the Special Features**

of the suggested Company.

**The Colonial Land Association**

Should be formed like any ordinary Company, although, as the land would represent the paid-up capital of the Company—each man's estate going into the hotch-pot for general security, the entrance fee of £1 would be all the individual capital required.

**The Directors**

should be elected in the usual way, and the Articles of Association should contain, besides the customary provisions, clauses for the special management of the loan arrangements of all shareholders, who should, before the time for paying off current mortgages, give a reasonable notice to the Board of Directors, whose Head Office in the Colony should be where the majority of the shareholders can get at them.

The application for or payment of a share should imply a distinct understanding that where the Articles of Association warrant it, the Board and the Shareholder bind themselves mutually to work for the best interests of the whole body, and with the chief object of reducing the cost of mortgage loans.

When the Directors have received what they deem a sufficient number of applications for mortgage loans, arrangements should be made for going into the money-market.

To reduce the first expenses that must follow the raising of the first loan the debentures should be offered at
a rate of interest that will bring about £102 for every £100 bond, the 2 per cent surplus capital being used to defray loan expenses which would be thus capitalised.

Arrangements should be made to get the Association's debentures or stock quoted on the London Stock Exchange, so that capital lent on colonial mortgages would be more readily bought and sold than is the case at present. It would not lock the mortgage money up as is now the case.

In making an application for a loan in London, the total acreage and value of the mortgaged land should be distinctly stated, and each shareholder making an application for a transfer of his mortgage to the Association ought to consent to his securities being amalgamated with those of other mortgagors.

As the aim of the Association is to cheapen mortgage money to the greatest possible extent, the deed transferring mortgages to the Association should contain a provision that such a course will be followed, and that the maximum interest to be paid shall not exceed (say) 6 per cent., including all charges, without the express sanction of a general meeting of shareholders.

The transfer deed should be as simple as possible, and to all intents and purposes ought to be an equitable mortgage, having all the privileges of Mortgage Transfers under the "Transfer Act."

If the Association could be brought under the Friendly Societies' Act, the stamp duties would not be very heavy.

The Association should so manage its arrangements that after payment of annual working expenses, ½ per cent, of the mortgage capital is charged in the form of interest to each mortgagor for whom the Association may act.

This ½ per cent, should go to a Sinking Fund, to be available at short notice in case of need, to assist backward shareholders who may be unable for one or two half-years to pay the interest agreed upon. Such accommodation should only be paid for by a barely remunerative interest.

In the event of a mortgagor falling irretrievably behind, the Association should have the same rights as an ordinary mortgagee, but no estate should be sold without the express sanction of a majority of the Directors. Where possible the owner of the property should have an opportunity of recovering it, where it has not left the hands of the Association.

The Sinking Fund should be kept as a distinct account, and the Association's Auditors should be at liberty to examine all books and securities in connection with it by giving twenty-four hours' notice.

In return for the advantages given by the Association all property should be held liable to pay an annual tax of not more than one penny in the pound according to Government valuation. Such a tax should only be levied after an explanation from the Board of Directors at a general meeting of shareholders, and should only be used to make up a deficiency in mortgage interest caused by the failure of any considerable body of the mortgagors, and the depreciation of the sureties obtained from them. The Sinking Fund should be exhausted before having recourse to the tax.

For the safety of the whole Association Local Boards might be elected in each county or other division by the mortgagors in such locality. The members might be either seven or five in number, and they might meet for 1 the transaction of business on the first Saturday of each month. They might act as a local Board of Advice for the Board of Directors, and might receive applications for loans from landowners in their county.

As their district would be liable for any loss arising through the acceptance of a weak security, while on the other hand their own property would be improved in value if a good security were added to the general stock, the Local Board might be required to makes favourable or adverse recommendation to the Directors on the receipt of any application for a mortgage loan from a neighbouring land-owner.

The failure of one county to meet its interest should not fall upon other counties until the local share of the Sinking Fund, and if necessary, the locally raised tax of one penny in the pound, had been found unequal to the payment of the deficiency in that county.

The money to be advanced upon any property should in no ease exceed the Government valuation, and the Association's charge for interest should gradually be higher as the loan asked for approached the Government valuation.

Although the Board of Directors should have authority to act on their own responsibility, their neglect to carry out the recommendation of the Local Board should relieve it the particular county of special liability.

Members of Local Boards should act with, out remuneration, but any expenses to which members might be put in travelling to value a property should be paid by the applicant for a loan.

To provide for incidental expenses the Chairman of each Local Board should receive a portion (say one-half) of the Association's entrance fees.

On the requisition of members the: Chairman of the Local Board should be em- powered to call a special meeting at some suitable place in his county, and the Board of Directors should follow a similar course at the request of Chairmen of Local Boards.

Interest should be paid half-yearly as determined by the Board of Directors.
The mortgage transfer ought to give the mortgagor a right of redemption at any time, like what they call at Home a Welsh Mortgage.

Of course the "lifting" of any mortgage would relieve the property of all liability in connection with the Association.

A small fine for dilatoriness in paying the interest might be inflicted, possibly from 1/10 to 1% per cent, per week.

Possession of mortgage should be deemed sufficient proof that the Association has advanced money and holds claims to any estate, to the amount named in the Transfer Deed.

No business unconnected with the mortgage or sale of land should be undertaken until the first General Annual Meeting of the Association.

The Board of Directors should use every possible effort to bring before the mortgagors the benefits of the Terminal Annuities Branch of the scheme, and should make arrangements for enabling clients to pay off their mortgage debt in a certain number of years, as may be agreed upon. Provision might be made for receiving money at any time, both in England and the Colony, for investment in this way.

Any person who may agree to pay off a mortgage in this way should not lose his right to the benefits of any back payments through inability to pay the annual sum arranged for daring any particular year, but the Board of Directors might allow the interest to be paid for him, and might if necessary debit his account with the money paid.

Any person who has paid off 25 per cent, of his mortgage debt, by the above system, should be accommodated by the Board of Directors with a second mortgage at a reasonable rate.

The principal received annually for Terminal Annuities might be used to take up fresh mortgages.

All moneys not used in defraying working expenses should go to the Sinking Fund, but money might be voted for any particular purpose before placing balance in the Sinking Fund.

For the purpose of adding to the general security in the eyes of the Home investors, the support of the Government should be sought, so that loans, required to carry out the objects alluded to, might be raised on the most favourable terms.

The Government should be asked to bring in a Bill to give effect to the suggestions made, and the Loan Agents should be empowered on behalf of the Association, to offer such a rate of interest as will, in the opinion of the Agents, obtain for the mortgagors interested, all the money required to shift their mortgage debt from the present mortgagees to the Association. The Government might be authorised by Parliament (should the Legislature approve of the scheme) to guarantee any rate of interest that would enable the Association to obtain money on the most favourable terms possible. In which case the State would be empowered to secure itself against loss by taking all the securities held by the Association in the event of the interest not being forthcoming.

All Trust Funds should be considered eligible for investment with the Association.

The Board of Directors should be authorised to make any agreement with the Government or with a corporate body for the benefit of shareholders, who should sanction or annul such arrangement at a general meeting.

A Mortgage Transfer Form should be submitted with the proposed Bill, and should be subject to alteration only with the consent of the Minister of Lands and the Board of Directors.

Notices gazetted by similar agreement might have the force of law until altered by Parliament.

Interest should be paid in London either through the Agent-General's Office or the Bank of England.

If possible, the Inscribed Stock Act should be made use of, and the Governor might be empowered to settle any disputed question arising between the Government and the Board of Directors. His decision should be final until sitting of Parliament.

For the protection of its own interests, and those of the foreign mortgagee, the Government should have power to examine the books of the Association at convenient periods.

It will be for those interested to consider the value of the suggestions I have offered for the protection of the Government, the English capitalist, and the Colonial borrower.

If farmers will form an Association to deal with the matters to which I have alluded, I feel sure that a small subscription per head will suffice to meet all incidental expenses, including the drafting of a Bill for the consideration of Parliament, and, without inconvenience to themselves, they will soon be in a position to judge of the merits of a scheme such as I have sketched. They can then learn if there is any chance of doing something even more important than lowering the present high rates of interest on mortgage, namely, get rid of the debt itself, which, I maintain can be done by substituting, for the present interest

Terminal Annuities;
Or a system of payments somewhat higher than the interest agreed upon, and continued for a definite
number of years, from 10 to 25, according to the amount of principal paid off yearly, would in the long run be
the cheapest policy that the farmer could adopt. You probably noticed that Sir Julius Vogel, at his Ash burton
meeting, was asked if a farmer would be able to free his farm in 25 years, supposing him to be able to raise
money at 5 per cent, and to pay annually the sum of £7 1s 11d. Now, although this question in several simple
forms has been put at other election meetings, Sir Julius was the only politician to give a really honest and
favourable reply; he considered that the subject of terminal annuities (as implied by the question) should
engage the attention of farmers, more especially if the interest they were at present paying could be used to
discharge the debt incurred while performing its present office; which means that it would be a grand thing for
the farmer if, after paying his present rate of interest for 25 years, he could call his land entirely his own, and
not, as at present, be no nearer freeing his property, when his mortgage expires, than he was when he signed the
deed. A scheme which enables the borrower to pay off annually a portion of the principal every time he makes
a payment of interest should have peculiar attractions for Colonial farmers, as the strong point of the system is
that he is credited with the amount of principal he pays annually, and ceases to be charged interest except on the
principal actually owing at the beginning! of a fresh financial year. So that each payment adds fresh
inducements to the continuance and completion of a transaction, having for its object the freedom of the land
from debt within a given period.

I have thought the subject of terminal annuities so important, that I have made series of rather tedious
calculations, which you can verify for yourselves.

Now 5 per cent per annum is a popular rate, and one more easily worked than some others, and on the
supposition that a man borrows £100 at 5 per cent, he will clear off all his liability in a time that varies
according to the amount of the payments made.

Mode of repaying £100 borrowed at 5 per cent per annum:—
At 4½ per cent, paying £7 10s per annum—20yrs.
At 4 per cent, paying £8 per annum—15½yrs.
At 4½ per cent, paying, per annum—16yrs, and 9s 8½d owing.
At 4½ per cent—paying 5 per cent first year, with ½ per cent increase annually till the debt is wiped off in
17 years, paying last year 13 per cent—he will owe less than £1 10s. for every £100 borrowed.

Now, I will try to make the advantages of the system clear to all of you. Property is mortgaged in New
Zealand to the extent of £30,016,461, slightly over a half being foreign capital. If we estimate the average rate
of interest at 8½ per cent per annum, which I own is high enough, we find that in 25 years, and without in any
way reducing the debt, a total amount of £63,785,000 is, in round numbers, paid as interest on mortgage. But by
paying off principal and interest in the same period, supposing the interest to be 5 per cent, the payments come
to something like £53,248,000. I think that this will make apparent that the Terminal Annuities system, on the
above basis, will give the farmer free land, besides saving the Colony about £10,537,000 in a quarter of a
century, or over £421,000 each year. As you are probably aware, the above statement was contained in the
Lyttelton Times of July 7, and I have not noticed any published attempt to undermine it.

Gentlemen, if I were to speak upon this subject for another hour, I could not do more than express my
conviction that the remedy for present ills lies mainly in the hands of farmers themselves.

I now beg to move, Sir—"That a Committee, composed of Messrs Bruce, Parsons, Vucetich, Lambie, Rule,
Strachan, and the mover, with power to add to their number, be appointed to examine into the merits of the
scheme made public by Mr Newlyn, for the reduction of the rates of mortgage interest."

Seconded by Mr Parsons, and carried.

Proposed by Mr Newlyn, and seconded by Mr Mangham, junr., and earned—"That the Committee just
appointed be requested to call a meeting within one month, and at such place as may be found convenient, to
report progress."

Meeting at Ashburton.

The Reduction of Mortgage-Interest Rates.

A meeting of farmers and others interested in Mr. Newlyn's proposed scheme for the reduction of rates on
mortgage interest was held in the Town Hall on Saturday afternoon. There was a good attendance, and on Be
motion of Mr H.W. Parsons, his Worship the Mayor took the chair.

The Mayor said that although he was not sufficiently acquainted with Mr. Nelwyn's scheme to pronounce
an opinion upon its practicability, he was quite in sympathy with the movement which had been inaugurated at Pendarves and he was quite sure that it would be admitted on all sides that while the prevailing rate of discount in England was as low as 1½ per cent., and they were paying 7, 8 and 10 per cent. here, something was wrong, and it behooved those interested to look around them for remedial measures. He unhesitatingly affirmed that the high price of money, and the exorbitant charges and incidental fees incurred by mortgagors brought about much of the disaster to farmers and farming interests within the colony, and whatever might be the merits of Mr. Nelwyn's scheme, he (the Mayor) thought it highly probable that a material reduction in the rates of interest might be effected by some such united action as was suggested by the promoter of the present agitation. They were not without precedents of Governments affording their agricultural population assistance on somewhat similar lines. The English Government had recently afforded substantial assistance to the Irish farmers, not only to improve, but ultimately to purchase the land they were occupying. In Scotland, he recollected some years ago farmers had been able to procure money from the Government at 3½ per cent, on very easy terms of repayment. If the English Government—the most Conservative in the world—saw its way to do this, he thought their own Government need not hesitate about adopting a similar course. He was confident that the reduction of the rates of interest to 5 per cent, would be of more practical benefit to the colony than the construction of the West Coast railway, and the advantages would not only devolve upon the farmers but upon every individual in the colony, all being more or less affected by the condition of their agricultural population. The excessive rates of interest had, in addition to pressing so hardly upon their farmers, largely contributed to the non-success of their local industries. It was impossible for their manufactories to make way with interest at 10 per cent., and the reduction now sought, it obtained, would bring about largely increased prosperity. He hoped that the whole country would respond to the appeal they were now making for effective combination. There was a certain element of risk in the construction of railways and other large public works. They might not result in reasonable return for the expenditure. But there could be no risk to the Government in adopting the present scheme. If they secured money at a certain rate, and invested it at a higher one, the result must be mutually advantageous, and the Government would have the best possible security—the land of the country. At present about a million and a half was required to pay the interest on their national debt, and it was claimed for Mr. Newlyn's proposals that they would bring about the saving of half a million. A scheme which had been carefully elaborated and claimed to effect so much was certainly entitled to serious consideration, and he hoped it would have a fair trial.

Mr. H. W. Parsons said that as chairman of the Pendarves Committee which had taken up Mr. Newlyn's scheme, he had been asked to support the author by appearing upon the platform. He (Mr. Parsons) was sure that the opinion of the country was with them, and that as soon as the project was fairly swimming the doubters would give in their adhesion. It was generally supposed that if they attempted to assert their independence the screw would be put on. He had determined to take that risk, and he thought they might all venture to do the same. When they discovered where the shoe was pinching, instead of looking about for a remedy they merely went home and grumbled. When they had a bill to pay, or a mortgage to arrange, they went humbly to the local representative of one of their large financial institutions—usually a bland, worthy man enough himself—and submitted to whatever terms were offered. These Institutions had the nominal owners of the land completely at their mercy. He hoped that farmers, one and all, would join the proposed Association. Combination would effect something; every industry save their own was protected. The ball was at their feet, and it only remained for them to kick it.

Mr. Newlyn expressed his obligation to Messrs. Williamson and Parsons for the kindly introduction they had given to his scheme, the main idea of which was that a strong combination of farmers could effect what it would be futile for an individual to attempt, and his object in meeting them was to suggest means by which effect could be given to the scheme. Some of the very large estates were mortgaged as low as 6 per cent., but for small sums the rate was increased to 7½, 8, and per cent., and many of their farmers paid as much as 10 to 12½ per cent., and incredible as it might appear, it was a fact that 25 per cent, had been paid for money lent on really first-class security. When they considered the large amount of anxiety and oppressive work to which such extortionate rates subjected the farmer, it was a matter for wonder that so many managed to struggle on. The mortgage debt of the colony had been estimated at £30,016,461; assuming the average rate of interest to be 7¾ per cent.—winch was that obtained by one large Company,—the annual charge would amount to £2,326,275. He felt confident that money could be secured on a large scale at much below the present rates if farmers could combine to raise the necessary funds in London. It would be generally conceded that, the lowering of the rates of interest would increase the value of landed property, and land that was good security at 8 per cent, would be doubly so with money at 4 percent. The advantages would not stop at the door of the freeholder, as he would be enabled, by what might be regarded as a decrease in rent, to cultivate his land more closely and to consume a larger quantity of merchants' goods, while he would practically double the imported capital with which to provide for their existing mortgages. If the capital at present employed at high rates would not submit to the altered condition of the money market, it would of course be withdrawn to find employment elsewhere; but this...
presupposed the Colony to get the full advantage of the change. Shortly, the proposal was to combine and raise loans in England to pay off their mortgages as they matured.

[He then delivered the address which will be found in the first part of this pamphlet, and was listened to with great attention' and frequent marks of approval. At its conclusions the originator of the scheme resumed his seat amidst hearty applause.]

Mr Sawle said that he had previously given very little attention to the subject, and hardly followed the figures which had been quoted by Mr Newlyn during his able address, but he had much pleasure in moving a resolution which had been placed in his hands, viz:--"That the present Committee be requedue to prepare a petition to Parliament in favour of the scheme before the meeting, and that landowners throughout New Zealand be invited to sign it, and to join in forming a strong Colonial Land Association." If by any means the interest they were paying could be reduced even by one per cent. it would be an incalculable benefit to the community.

Mr J. Lambie seconded the resolution. He sincerely hoped, as did all other farmers, that some good would arise from the present agitation. The publicity given to the matter would, however, open the eyes of investors and probably attract capital to the colony, and the thanks of the whole community were due to Mr. Newlyn for the trouble and expense he had gone to in the elaboration of his scheme.

Mr. H. W. Parsons agreed with Mr. Lambie as to the benefits which would probably arise from the ventilation of the scheme, but urged those present not to rest content with talk only, but to bring about the accomplishment of the proposals.

Mr. G. W. Leadley thought that if the movement fell to the ground it would show that farmers were, as had been alleged, utterly helpless. He didn't believe that farmers were yet reduced to that condition.

Mr. Newlyn said that if 100 farmers combined they could now borrow money in England at about 5 per cent. He was acquainted with a Director of a large mortgage company there who would entertain such an application from a combination of farmers.

Mr. Joseph Clark recognised the importance of the question, but saw difficulties to surmount. If land was already mortgaged beyond the Government valuation, which was often the case, what relief did Mr. Newlyn propose to offer the unfortunate owner?

Mr. Newlyn thought they would be unable to advance beyond the Government valuation, but it was one of the details for future development. The Association could, however, assist the owner in obtaining a second mortgage.

Mr. Hugo Friedlander enquired who would be likely to advance money on the second mortgage.

Mr. Newlyn re-asserted his conviction that the establishment of the Association would enhance the value of land. The cheapening of the first mortgage would probably enable a land-owner to obtain a second mortgage at a rate which would compare favourably with his present arrangements.

Mr. David Thomas was certain that the scheme would be found practicable if properly gone into. He knew that his friend Mr Clark had attempted to apply some such arrangement to nine or ten farms in the Long-beach district. For some reason the negotiations fell through, and as a consequence, he regretted to add, half the farmers fell through too. He (Mr Thomas) had had the offer of £50,000 at 5½ per cent. (A voice: That was from your aunt, I expect.) No, nor from his uncle either, but from a large financial institution. This showed that money could be obtained first hand at lower rates, and if the interest to farmers could be reduced to even 6 per cent, it would make an enormous difference to the colony.

Mr. Clark said that if they could induce the English capitalist to believe in their valuations the whole thing was accomplished. This was the one point upon which the question hung.

Mr Newlyn said that they could show the investor that it was merely a transfer; that the amount asked for was already on the property.

Mr Lill thought that the Association could protect itself against unsound business, and he could not see any insurmountable difficulties in the adoption of the scheme.

Mr Newlyn had been creditably informed that the half-yearly profits accruing to one Christchurch firm engaged in lending out English capital had been £33,000, while the result from their ordinary business could not under the most favourable circumstances have been more than £6,000.

The motion proposed by Mr Sawle was then put and carried.

Mr Thomas proposed—"That the Committee be requested to register the Colonial Land Association when 100 persons have signified their willingness to form themselves into a company."

Mr "W. H. Rule seconded the proposal, which was carried.

Mr Clark would like to state that while criticising the proposals, he fully recognised their importance, and only pointed out difficulties to bring about their removal. He was sure that the other gentlemen who had adopted the same course were actuated by a similar desire.

Votes of thanks to Mr Newlyn for his address, and to the Mayor for presiding, brought the meeting to a
Appendix to Address.

A New Policy.

To the Editor.

Sir,—At Mr Wason's recent meeting at Chertsey, on the 16th of May, the following motion was proposed by Mr Newlyn:—"That, in the opinion of this meeting, the Government should take the earliest possible opportunity of reducing the annual interest on mortgaged property by carrying a Bill to enable them to raise loans at suitable periods for the purpose of advancing the money so raised in England to persons holding land upon which a mortgage exists. All mortgaged property should be liable, under conditions similar to those now prevailing, but any gain made by the Government through having to pay less interest than the land owners now pay, should be shared by the farmers, i.e., supposing the Government to gradually succeed in raising money to lift the mortgages at 4½ per cent, a farmer who now pays 7 per cent would pay the Government half the difference between 7 and 4½ per cent over the cost to the Government, that is to say 5¾ per cent, the remaining 1¼ per cent going to the country, in an actual saving on the amount now annually paid as interest on mortgage. That the above resolution requires to be given effect to before any steps can be taken in the direction of obtaining the 'unearned increment,' or of nationalising the land of the Colony."

Mr Lambie, a member of the Ashburton County Council, seemed to consider the above proposal a very sarcastic one, and a severe hit at those statesmen who are leading the people away from the serious subject of taxation by such "fads" as the "unearned increment" and the nationalisation of the land. But, as the subject raised was one well worth serious thought, he hoped to see the suggestion made public. It certainly contains the most novel outlines of a policy, and excels, in originality and boldness, all the plans for keeping money in the Colony that have recently been suggested by our politicians, whether followers of the Government, or admirers of Sir George Grey or Mr Montgomery.

Supposing that the figures used in the above proposal are given simply to add point to the mover's idea, I can see nothing in it to startle any legislator. There can be no doubt that the high rate of interest which the average farmer has to pay at: present is a very heavy burden, more especially after seasons like the last, and it cannot be wondered at that the general cry is, "farming does not pay." It may reasonably be calculated that the rate of interest on rural mortgages averages rather above, than below, 7 per cent. As a dead weight on the land this is a very serious matter, and without going at present deeply into the question, it should, in my opinion, receive very careful consideration from politicians, irrespective of parties and business interests. As I read the proposal, the idea is simply that the Government should act as agents in raising loans from time to time, to take up mortgages as they become due, and that the State should collect from the mortgagors a fixed rate of interest, with which to pay the mortgagees the annual interest guaranteed by Government, keeping at the same time a portion of the interest paid by those receiving the advantages given by the State. If, for all mortgage-money raised in future, the outside capitalist only received 4 per cent instead of (say) 7 per cent, as at present, it seems clear that the whole country would gain the 3 per cent difference which is now annually remitted to England. As long as the Government only forwarded the guaranteed interest of 4 per cent to the mortgagees the gain would, on the above basis, be the same to New Zealand as a whole, if the Government received 1, 2, or 3 per cent for their assistance. Those who now "fume and sweat under a heavy burden" in the form of a mortgage would, I think, be glad to pay the Government 1 per cent if their so doing would leave them gainers by a clear 2 per cent. A profit of two-sevenths in these times is not to be despised, as it marks the difference to the farmer in particular, between prosperity and bankruptcy. In his recent campaign Major Atkinson alluded, with justifiable pride, to the fact that the Government had, by their financial management in connection with the loans, effected a saving of £30,000 per annum. If the gallant major could, by adopting the above scheme, save the country or the farmers something like £600,000 per annum, his lease of political life would be considerably lengthened.

No doubt town capitalists will view the proposal with little favour, and will plead that the State should not interfere with private financial affairs. The farmer and working man will, however, view the subject in a totally different way, and will be of opinion that the less money we send away, as interest for the loans we require, the better it will be for the whole country. As Sir Julius Vogel was the founder of the New Zealand Government Insurance Department, he will probably see something worthy of State support in the Mortgaged Estates Bill, and there seem to be no smaller elements of success in the latter proposed, than in the former accomplished, attempt to interfere with private trading. There can be little doubt that all concerned in the farming interest will wait impatiently to learn the views entertained by Sir Julius Vogel upon this large question, and that his attitude to the agriculturists on Friday evening next will either make or mar him as the Ashburton wooer.
A New Policy.

To the Editor.

Sir,—At the present juncture, a serious attempt to grapple with the subject of Colonial taxation appears, to me, to be more worthy of careful enquiry and calm consideration than any "bogie" with which politicians are now frightening us. It is almost impossible to read the speech of any public man without finding sad and almost bitter allusion to the "millions" of money sent away from this Colony annually, to satisfy a cruel and grasping creditor in England. From the speeches of some aspiring statesmen, it would almost seem to be "within the range of practical politics" that a "New Zealand Colonial Debt Repudiation Bill" is to form part of next session's amusements. As the money owing was obtained at the desire of the borrower, and not forced upon the country by the lender, the persons who object to our being in debt should show us some legitimate way out of the difficulty; they might, for instance, auction their share of the "unearned increment," and apply the large (!!) amount of cash that would be obtained towards paying off the loan of 27 or 30 millions of pounds owing by the State.

To take a serious view of the matter, it does not appear probable that we can obtain more favourable terms than those at present prevailing. As our four per cent debentures are at par, we must, it seems, be content to pay that reasonable interest on what we borrow in England for general public purposes. I venture to say, Sir, that it is rather the interest on private borrowing than that effected by the State that presses heavily upon us as a nation. In many ways, the public expenditure helps to pay its own interest. The large amount of money that is "placed" in this country on mortgage, at a high rate of interest, is a much heavier burden than the National Debt of New Zealand.

Speaking generally, there may be said to be a loss of 3 per cent sustained annually by those persons who have to raise money by mortgage. The security they offer may be termed the most popular of all with capitalists; but the small amounts, as a rule, and individual responsibility cause the rates of interest to be high in comparison with that paid by States. If, without in any way interfering with the rights of present mortgagees, the State could arrange to guarantee 4 or 4½ per cent for all money raised at regular periods to pay off existing mortgages as they become due, a saving to the country of the best part of one million sterling would be made yearly. Farmers, who at present pay from 7 to 9 per cent, would be very glad to pay the Government (say) 1 per cent for the national guarantee, and—on the combined security of the Government and the land at present mortgaged—the English capitalist would willingly lend all the money needed at a moderate interest, free from all Colonial taxation.

The existing amounts for which the different farms are mortgaged, might form a basis for operations, or the State might raise a certain proportion of the Property tax value. Such a course would not, necessarily, injure Colonial capitalists; on the contrary, there would in all probability, be increased demands for loans on crops, second mortgages, &c. The subject is so large and so new that it is only necessary to call public attention to it, that it may be viewed from all sides, and its advantages and inconveniences duly weighed.

In conclusion, Sir, I may state my conviction, that by paying (in combination) less money annually, for 50 years, than they pay now as interest, farmers could redeem their land, so that their children, or grandchildren, would come into unencumbered estates; or the land might be nationalised in this way.

—I am, &c.,

J. H. N.

Lyttelton Times,
A New Policy.

(To the Editor.)

SIR,—I was very glad that my suggestion re interest on mortgages, made at Mr Wason's Chertsey meeting, and alluded to in your columns, caused an independent question to be put to Sir Julius, who dealt with the matter more fully than the scope of the question seemed in the first place to render necessary. This may be accounted for by his having received, before the meeting, a copy of the four consecutive questions on the subject. With the exception of his approval of the suggestion to substitute terminable annuities for the existing arrangements for paying mortgage, principal, and interest, the remarks cannot be deemed by farmers a sufficient reason why they should abandon all hope of lowering the high rates of interest. As the Government practically consists of a Board of Directors, elected and paid to conduct the business of the shareholders or colonists in the cheapest and most expeditious manner possible, there can be no reason why the assistance of the Government machinery should not be at the convenience of tillers of the soil, the prosperity of whom is the pulse by which we can tell the health of the whole Colony. The saving to the farmers of about £600,000 per annum, by the reduction of the interest on money "placed" on mortgage by Home capitalists, means the increasing of the wealth of the Colony by that amount, and the simple guarantee of the Government could in no way impair the Colonial credit. The fact that A and B have agreed to some financial arrangements, does not prevent B from cooperating with C, D, and E, and in obtaining the valuable guarantee of the combined alphabet, when the old agreement lapses in due course, and B finds that it is to his great immediate advantage, and A to his increased security, to obtain the endorsement of all the shareholders of the alphabetic firm. Unity is strength in this case to the farming community, and places them more on a par with borrowers on a large scale. On the other hand, their disunited action slightly benefits the capitalist (while lessening his security) to the advantage of the middle men. In regard to Government insurance, it has not been found to drive away private enterprise, and the reduction of interest on mortgage (through improved, because combined security), cannot be expected to drive away capital, when the holders of ever-increasing money show their confidence in the arrangement by supplying the capital at the interest offered. In a similar way the substitution of Colonial for Provincial borrowing made money "easier." At all events a scheme by which the borrower pays off a portion of the principal, while remitting the interest periodically, cannot be open to the objection that it would injure the Government credit, as it is clear that each payment adds fresh inducements to the continuance and completion of a transaction having for its object the freedom of the land from debt. Unlike present mortgages, the terminable annuities could be handled and exchanged almost as readily as ordinary stock. I trust that the further consideration of a subject so important to the Colony will commend it to the more favourable consideration of the most able financier that New Zealand has known.

—I am, &c.,

J.H.N.

Lyttelton Times,

June 19, 1884.

A New Policy and Sir J. Vogel

To the Editor.

SIR,—Your issue of Thursday, the 12th. inst., contained a letter signed "Argus," I desire to correct a slight error in the reprint of the suggestion for a "Mortgaged Estates' Bill," recently made public. The 1½ per cent mentioned as a probable saving to the country should read 1¼ per cent, the difference between 7 per cent now paid as annual interest on mortgage and the suggested 5¾ per cent to be collected by the Government. You have no doubt noticed that the matter, in independent forms, was brought before the notice of Sir Julius Vogel by two questioners. The candidate's replies showed that, although he was not in favour of State interference in the matter, the subject was one new enough to require cautious handling, and large enough to command respectful treatment. Its advocates could hardly expect more, especially at the close of a long oration, the backbone of which was somewhat antagonistic to all who desire to curtail the powers of outside capitalists. Those, however, who simply wish to "make the balance true" as regards capital and labour, cannot be ranked with Socialists who are under mining Colonial credit by a "bursting up" policy.

It is to be noticed that, by pleading that he had already answered a part of the question, Sir Julius avoided
any direct replies to a series of queries concerning the position of the farmer in relation to the capitalist. For instance, he did not say if in his opinion, any of the existing depression among agriculturists could be accounted for by the high interest which they had to pay on mortgages; neither did he state that he would favour any matured plan having for its object the lessening of the burdens of the farmer. But, with his wonderful quickness of thought, the ex-Premier and Agent-General caught, and concisely explained the bearing and significance of the following interrogation:

If a farmer could borrow money on mortgage at 5 per cent, would not an annual payment of £7 1s 11d enable him to quite free his farm in twenty-five years?

Sir Julius Vogel considered that the subject of Terminal Annuities (as implied by the above question) should engage the attention of farmers, more especially if the interest they were at present paying could be used to discharge the debt incurred while performing its present office.

It is a matter for regret that Mr Wason, before whose notice the subject of mortgage interest was first brought, has not given public expression to his opinion of what he truly termed a "large question," as it is one of considerable interest to the rural districts.

—I am, &c.,

J. H. N.

Telegraph, June 19, 1881.

The N. P. and Mr Holmes.

To the Editor.

Sir,—The approval that has been accorded to my "new policy" by Messrs Holmes and Fraser, as well as by less known politicians, emboldens me to ask you to allow me further space for the purpose of placing the present position of mortgaged property in New Zealand clearly before the public. When the suggestion was made at Chertsey, in May last, that the Government should be asked to use their credit and powers in assisting the farming community, the idea was treated as a simple jeu d'esprit and many people, when conversing with me, deemed the scheme quite impracticable. I must confess that I received very little encouragement from those who felt very acutely the burden of heavy mortgage-interest. The hard times, however, forced the question upon the minds of farmers, and, when even such men as Messrs Jolly and Adams introduced the subject to the notice of their audiences, farmers were prepared to give careful attention to the matter. Mr Holmes was, I believe, the first to assist me by alluding to the scheme in Parliament, and Mr Charles Fraser, at Springfield, mentioned that, in 1848, the Imperial Government had done something similar to what I proposed; but I had no knowledge of any such precedent when I made the suggestion public.

The presence of Sir Julius Vogel in New Zealand has enabled many politicians to make a clear "half-turn" to catch the first rays of the rising sun. I presume that I may follow the example set, and re-model my suggestions concerning the reduction of mortgage interest, more especially as the subject has just flashed across the minds of others in the shape of an original idea. That the reduction of interest on mortgaged property would beneficially retain a large portion of the money that is now annually sent out of the Colony cannot be denied. But the scheme should, to benefit all farmers equally, be applicable to Colonial as well as to foreign loans.

Terminal Annuities would, I believe, be the means of effecting the purpose I have all along kept in view, viz., the lessening of the annual charges which the farmer must pay before he can retain a sixpence for his own needs. From information recently published, it appears that property is mortgaged to the extent of £30,016,461, slightly more than half being foreign capital. Now, Mr Holmes stated that 8, 9, or 10 per cent is charged for advances upon mortgage security; and supposing that the average interest is 8½ per cent, we find that mortgagors have to get out of the land, before they can call anything their own, produce to the annual amount of £2,551,398, so that in 25 years they have to pay, as interest, about £63,784,950. It must be remembered that capitalists have already proved their willingness to lend thirty million pounds upon mortgage, and there is no reason to doubt that the same amount of money could, in a very short time, be raised upon the same security through the London Stock Exchange. The money could be raised periodically at intervals of twelve or six months, so as to pay off all mortgagees, when their claims mature and they desire to realise. An indirect assistance from Parliament is, in my opinion, alone necessary to put the scheme on a basis that will make it worthy of the support of English capitalists, and I propose to ask for that help when the Houses meet.

In the meantime, I will content myself with remarking that, if the necessary money could be raised in
England, at 5 per cent per annum, the whole debt could be wiped off in 25 years by paying annually—during the quarter of a century—the sum of £7 1s 11d for every £100 borrowed; so that the total sum to be paid to get rid of the present mortgages would, by the plan just mentioned, amount to £53,247,951, or a saving to the country of £10,537,000 in twenty-five years, at the end of which time the land would be free. It can fairly be supposed that many Colonial capitalists would elect to receive Terminal Annuities (which could be disposed of above par) in preference to being paid their advances on mortgage, as they would have to seek new and, possibly, unreliable investments. Every payment made by the mortgagor would make the security more valuable by giving the borrower increased inducement to keep up his payments. The selling value of land so dealt with would increase annually, and the mortgage scrip would be quoted on the Stock Exchange, which means "more than the casual observer would imagine."

Hoping and believing that I have not "jumped the claim" of any political economist in New Zealand, I will leave the subject for the present, simply thanking you, Sir, for the indulgence which has enabled me to draw public attention to "a very large question."

—I am, &c..

J. H. Newlyn.

July 5.

P.S.—Hypercritical folk will notice that Mantalini's law has been applied to the "coppas."

J. H. N.

Lyttelton Times,

July 7, 1884.

Government Assistance to Farmers.

The Committee recently appointed by a meeting of farmers to consider Mr Newlyn's scheme for the reduction of the rates of mortgage interest met on Monday afternoon, at Seafield, at the residence of Mr Parsons, who acted as chairman. There was a good muster of members, only one Committeeman being absent.

At the request of members generally, Mr Newlyn read the various letters upon the subject that he had written to the newspapers. Allusion was also made to the questions put to different candidates during the recent elections, and to the discussion which took place in the House of Representatives on June 21.

At the suggestion of Mr Rule, the original proposal—"That the Government should assist farmers," was then read, and an animated debate resulted, the unanimous opinion being that no public man had given practical expression to his desire to assist in reducing the existing rates of interest on mortgage before the appearance in print of Mr Newlyn's suggestion and letters to the Press. The promoter said that if the Government would carry out the original idea, and guarantee even 4 per cent interest on the total amount placed on mortgage through the aid of the State, it would be a great saving to the rural population, in time as well as money. If adverse influences quite put the first suggestion out of range, the State might reasonably be expected to assist indirectly, more especially if all farmers to be benefited were willing, in case of necessity, to submit to a special tax to make up any deficiency in interest arranged for. He could not see any risk to frighten the most cautious, as the lower the rate of interest guaranteed the better would the security become, because the farmer who could pay his present rate of interest would be much more able to find the lower annual charge. Again, the mere cheapening of money for his farming purposes would make his property more valuable, consequently, the security would, under the conditions he proposed, be a much better one for the mortgagee. Arrangements of an advantageous character might possibly be made with a strong bank by a combination of farmers; indeed, he could see no safer or more popular way of carrying out his scheme than by forming an Association of farmers. In any case, the united voices of two or three thousand able-bodied, and fairly discontented agriculturists, would be more likely to disperse opposition, than would the writings of the most capable man they could engage on their side. He thought that, if a company were formed with shares of one pound each, they would obtain sufficient support from the farming community to enable them to carry out all the preliminary arrangements. Unlike most companies, they would rapidly acquire a working capital, in the shape of the mortgages, which shareholders would authorise them to raise money on. Of course the Directory would have to exercise all reasonable care in examining the securities they proposed to accept, and to offer again as security; but, once accepted, the whole Association's land would be secured to the bondholders in England or to the Government in case of State assistance.
A Member: How would you assist the farmer to clear off his present mortgage, if you raised the money in England; the deeds would not be given up without someone released them?

Mr Newlyn did not consider that the question just raised need cause them trouble. Any person who desired to take advantage of the scheme would certainly have to give the Association reasonable notice of such a wish, say, six months before his existing mortgage lapsed. If things advanced sufficiently to enable them to raise the necessary money in London, there would be little difficulty in getting it, or its equivalent, out here. He considered that the business of the Association in bills of exchange would be a very large one.

Mr Parsons incidentally remarked that he agreed with the last speaker as to the advisability of forming an Association. One man writing or speaking for two or three thousand, all of whom were ready to back him up, would be able to do, and get done, things which would be utterly beyond the power of an isolated individual, or, indeed, of a thousand people acting spasmodically. He did not consider that the transference of the mortgage securities would be a difficult matter.

Mr Strachan said that he certainly had never noticed any proposal to get the rates of interest on mortgages reduced before he heard Mr Newlyn speak at Mr Wason's meeting. Many farmers had talked the matter over with their neighbours, but had seen no ray of hope. The scheme before them was the first attempt, to his knowledge, to put the matter practically before them, and he thought it was about time for them seriously to consider so important a subject.

Mr Vucetich said it was especially necessary for those who felt the shoe pinching them to take the opportunity offered by Mr Newlyn's scheme. He thought that the proposed Association should be formed as soon as possible. Though the shoe did not pinch him, his pound would be forthcoming when required.

Mr Bruce was of opinion that nearly all the farmers on the Plains would be glad to join the Association suggested in the scheme, for the risk was nothing, while the chances of benefit were very great.

After some further explanations had been given, the following resolution was carried:

"That having fully examined into the merits of Mr Newlyn's scheme for reducing the rates of interest on mortgage, as explained in his published letters and address, this Committee is of opinion that the suggestions contained therein are worthy of the careful consideration and cordial support of the Government and the firming community of New Zealand."

Mr Rule regretted that Mr Newlyn's recent address on the subject had not been waited fully, as farmers in other districts: were not aware that a subject so important to their prosperity, he would almost say existence, had been carefully thought out, even to details. He felt sure that many farmers would be willing to subscribe a larger sum than £1 if they could be made aware of the feasibility of Mr Newlyn's scheme.

Mr Parsons said that although he had heard previously that Mr Newlyn had gone into the matter, until he had heard the address on the subject he was quite unaware of the skill and ability that had been brought to bear in building up the scheme before them. He would like to see the address printed.

Messrs Vucetich and Bruce also spoke in favour of the publication of the scheme, and its author was requested to carry out the wishes of the Committee, who would be responsible for the necessary expense up to £1 each.

It was decided to hold a Committee meeting at the Pendarves schoolhouse on Monday, August 4, and to invite the farmers in the neighbourhood to join the District Committee. It was decided to hold a monster meeting at Ashburton as soon as possible, and the meeting adjourned after a vote of thanks to the Chairman.

Canterbury Times,

August 2, 1884.

Cheap Money for Farmers.

About thirty farmers met at the Pendarves school on Monday, August 4, at the invitation of the Committee which was appointed about a fortnight ago to consider a scheme for the reduction of the present high rates of interest on mortgage.

Mr Parsons was voted to the chair, and said a few words upon the importance of united action on the part of farmers, who would have themselves to blame if they did not "strike while the iron was hot," or, in other words, adopt the suggestions that had been so recently thrown out to them for the establishment of an Association which would embrace the whole Colony, and thus make the united voices of farmers heard throughout the land. Some of the leading papers outside the Province had recently made allusion to the efforts that the Wakaniu farmers had been making to get "cheap money," and he felt sure that if other agricultural districts would unite with them in taking action, they would get the boon for which they had been striving. He had seen Mr E. G.
Wright, and he was glad to say that his support could be relied upon. Mr Wright had promised to assist the movement to the best of his power, and would attend their proposed meeting in Ashburton.

Several letters received by Mr Newlyn were read to those present.

In answer to questions, Mr Newlyn stated that he had called upon the member for Christchurch South, who, it would be remembered, had introduced the important subject of private borrowing to the notice of the House of Representatives on the motion for going into Committee of Supply on June 21. Mr Holmes told the Government very distinctly that they should have arranged to lend farmers money at 5 per cent, and he thus drew the attention of members to the disadvantageous position of small landowners when they were compelled to become borrowers. Mr Holmes had promised to make strong recommendations to the Government in favour of the scheme for bringing about a considerable reduction in the rates of interest on mortgage. It should be understood that all money Bills were introduced by the Government of the day, and, as they were anxious to get the co-operation of the State, they would have to get the subject brought before the notice of the Executive by some member of influence, and he thought that they could rely on the member for Christchurch South in the matter. In answer to Mr M'Donald and others, Mr Newlyn said he thought that some of those present were at a disadvantage through not having seen the letters that had been published by him upon the subject of interest on mortgage. In the address he had delivered, allusion had been made to several plans which he deemed feasible. In the first place, the Government might take entire charge of the matter, and bring in their Bill in an original form, so that they could accommodate farmers individually; or, they could get associations of farmers to assist them in the work; or, again, the Government could simply allow the use of the State machinery to a company of New Zealand farmers, and could guarantee, by arrangement with the Colonial Directors, a fixed rate of interest upon all loans raised on mortgage security in England with the sanction of the State. He thought that a strong Association for the whole Colony would be most beneficial to the agricultural population, whether or not the Government acted for or with them. In case they found it impossible to get any support from the Executive, the Association, he proposed, would be in a position to deal, in a large way, with an English syndicate or a strong bank. As regards the profits that should accrue to the farmers, he had already dealt with the financial aspect of the question in his recent address; he might, however, remark that the annual gain to the Colony, under the plans he proposed, would be over half-a-million sterling on the amount of money invested in rural mortgages. Harbour Boards and such bodies could borrow at par (in most cases), on an annual interest of 5 per cent. Supposing the whole private indebtedness for the sake of argument, to be gradually brought under the provisions of the scheme, the profit would be nearly one million pounds annually. If farmers could arrange to pay off a portion of the principal annually, the Colony, on the above basis, would gain about 10½ millions in 25 years, or over £420,000 each year, and the land would then be their own, without any of the original mortgage debt upon it. To put things into shape, he would move the following resolution:—"That it is desirable to form a Colonial Land Association."

Mr Buckley seconded the motion, and spoke in favour of united action on the part of farmers.

Mr Lowe asked if Mr Holmes had spoken in favour of an Association in his speech.

Mr Newlyn said that the proposed Association was not alluded to in the House but was a part of his scheme. He might say that Mr Holmes had mentioned privately his approval of the step proposed.

A general discussion then ensued. There seemed to be divided opinions as to the best name for the proposed Company, but all appeared to consider that an Association, under whatever name they might unite, was most likely to benefit the scheme they had taken in hand.

Mr Strachan spoke strongly in favour of the proposal, and stated his conviction that they now had an opportunity of benefiting those to come after them, if no advantage was got by those present. He had been compelled to pay as many [unclear: pound] as per cent interest as he had fingers, and he knew of some who would require all [unclear: thier] toes and fingers to tick off the rate of interest they paid on good security. They had the ball before them, and it would be their fault if they did not place it where they wished. Fifteen per cent was [unclear: often] paid under bill of sale.

Another member was of opinion that the Government seemed to consider that farmers were in existence simply for taxing purposes; when money was wanted the cry was, "make the land pay." The Government were apparently of opinion that the farmers had no remedy, as they could not pack up and clear off to Australia like other people. Mr Lambie had said that the North Island only exported a little kauri gum and flax, but he (the speaker) thought that the Government would make things even worse in the South Island if they did not take up the subject of mortgage interest. He had known 25 per cent to be paid for accommodation on mortgage security.

Mr Stringfellow, senr., asked if they could unite with the Farmers' Cooperative Association?

Mr Newlyn thought that they might work in unison, but his scheme was for the whole Colony. It would be necessary to let farmers throughout the Colony know that the present Committee were only carrying on the campaign until more influential districts took the matter up, and that they had no desire "to monopolise perfection."
In the opinion of one farmer, the Cooperative Association was very badly managed, and appeared to act as a sort of "Truck" agent to the merchants. He thought that when farmers became fully aware of their objects, they would be glad to work with the Committee in getting up a strong Association.

It was decided to enrol the existing Committee, and all others present who desire to join, as members of the Association, the christening of which was postponed. About twenty gentlemen "signed articles," and paid a subscription of £1 each. It was understood that the money would be used in giving publicity to Mr Newlyn's scheme, and in promoting generally the objects for which they had united. The names of those present were then added to the Committee, the former members of which were requested to act as a sub-Committee, with power to act on behalf of the whole body.

Mr Lambie said that the time was ripe for them to push on with the scheme, which was beginning to engage the attention of politicians, as well as farmers. He had no doubt that the various country members would fight manfully for them. Their local representatives were highly favourable to the principles for which they were contending, and Mr Walker, with whom he had talked the matter over, had expressed his willingness to help the cause. What they wanted was greater publicity for the scheme, so that farmers and others throughout New Zealand might learn that the Committee just formed only wished to be before the public until more able men could take their places, and with a view to obtaining the active co-operation of their neighbours, he would move—"That the promoter be requested to draft a letter, setting forth the basis of his scheme, for transmission to the various agricultural and kindred associations throughout New Zealand, and that he solicit their co-operation."

The above resolution was seconded and carried, and the proceedings terminated with a vote of thanks to the Chairman.

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**Votes of Confidence.**

At the close of Mr Ivess' meeting at Chertsey, on Friday evening, July 18, a resolution was carried to the following effect:—"That in the opinion of this meeting, Mr Newlyn's scheme for the reduction of the present high rates of mortgage interest should meet with the hearty support of the members of the House of Representatives, and especially of the future member for Wakanui."

A meeting of farmers and others interested in cheap money took place in the Schoolroom, Balcairn, on Thursday evening, when some correspondence was read from Mr. Newlyn, with reference to farmers combining together for the purpose of getting the rates of interest on mortgage reduced. It was proposed by Mr. White, and seconded by Mr. Lister, and carried, "That this meeting approves of Mr. Newlyn's scheme of raising cheap money on mortgage, and that the Chairman of the Kowai Road Board be requested to call a public meeting, in some central place in the district, at an early date to discuss the matter. Mr. Newlyn having promised to attend such meeting and give any information required."

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**Genilanen willing to assist in forming District Committees, or desirous of obtaining further information, should**
annexation and federation.

speech delivered by the hon. the premier in the house of representatives, november 8, 1884.

mr. stout.—in moving these resolutions [unclear: in] regard to federation with the australasian colonies, i regret very much that i have to bring them forward at this time of the session; but, as honourable members are aware, the session has been of such a nature that it [unclear: was] almost impossible, if we were to get our [unclear: bills] passed, that this discussion should have [unclear: been] begun sooner. seeing, also, that we have [unclear: not] perhaps, a long time to consider these [unclear: resolutions], i shall have to make my remarks [unclear: as] brief as possible. the resolutions may be [unclear: divided] into two heads. there are, first, the resolutions which deal generally with what was done at the convention; and, secondly, the [unclear: resolutions] dealing with the establishment of a federal council. as far as i am able to learn, and judging by the amendments of which [unclear: notice] has been given, there does not seem to [unclear: be] objection to any of the resolutions that deal [unclear: generally] with the duty of the australasian [unclear: colonies] towards the pacific islands and towards [unclear: the] mother-country. the only difference of [unclear: opinion] is in regard to the federal council. [unclear: i have], however, one or two words to say about [unclear: these] general resolutions. they deal, first, [unclear: with] the question of foreign powers acquiring [unclear: dominion] in the pacific, and i apprehend that [unclear: the] house will at once agree with the first [unclear: resolution]; the second follows, necessarily, [unclear: from] the first; and the third deals with the [unclear: question] of new guinea. it will be noticed, [unclear: that] the second resolution, which i ask the [unclear: house] to agree to, as carrying out the [unclear: general] resolutions, commits us to pay a share, [unclear: according] to our population, of the sum of [unclear: £15,000] asked for by the imperial government honourable gentlemen who have [unclear: followed] the correspondence which has been [unclear: laid] upon the table are already aware that [unclear: lord] derby said to the colonies that, if they [unclear: desired] a protectorate over new guinea, they [unclear: must] be prepared to pay the expense of a high [unclear: commissioner,] and also to aid in providing him [unclear: with] a steamer, or some other accommodation, [unclear: for] getting about the islands. he proposed [unclear: that] they should contribute £15,000; and i [unclear: think] all the colonies have consented to pay their of the £15,000—i [unclear: mean] all the [unclear: colonies] to whom the question has been put—tasma-nia, south australia, victoria, new south wales, fiji, and queensland. in fact, most of the colonies have passed special acts providing for the payment of their proportion of the amount. since the question came up at the convention, as honourable members are aware, the home government have proclaimed a protectorate, not over' new guinea, but over a part of it—the southern portion of it; and, after that was done, a telegram was sent to the colonies by the secretary of state for the colonies, stating that general scratchley had been appointed special commissioner to control the british protectorate in new guinea, and that he would sail about the 20th november. he goes on to say,—

"please inquire, and state by telegraph, whether your government, and other contributing governments, agree to be represented in the council. it is intended that special commissioner, who will be independent of high commissioner, shall have jurisdiction over all persons within british protectorate; and that no land shall be acquired there, except through him. he also will be deputy-commissioner for portions of new guinea outside british protectorate. admiralty recommend purchase in england, steamer for special commissioner; estimated cost, arrive in sydney, £16,000 or £18,000. to make him efficient, £15,000 guaranteed must be
considerably increased."

It will also be noticed that several of the colonies which agreed to pay their proportion of £15,000 have refused to give the second contribution asked; and, so far as the Government of New Zealand is concerned, we do not see our way to advise this Parliament to give any further aid than the proportion of £15,000 according to population, because we feel that, so far as New Guinea is concerned, New Zealand has practically little interest in its Protectorate. We hope, however, that if a Protectorate is established for New Guinea that will only be the beginning of a further Protectorate that will include many Pacific Islands not now under any settled Government, and our object in asking the House to agree to this resolution to pay a proportion of £15,000 is to see, if a proper Protectorate is created for New Guinea, whether the English Government will not extend the Protectorate over other islands. This question touches on the relationship in which we should stand to the Pacific Islands, and how the Pacific should in future be governed. That may be termed the first question which arises before I come to deal with the question of the Federal Council; and I apprehend that to New Zealand, more than to the Continent of Australia, the future government of the Pacific Islands is of immense importance. It was pointed out long ago, by a celebrated geographer—Guyot—that New Zealand was, strange to say, the centre of what he termed "the Water Hemisphere;" and it was pointed out by him that, if New Zealand made the most of her opportunities, she would come to be looked upon as the centre of the Pacific Islands, giving to them her manufactured goods and receiving from them their raw products, being looked upon as their commercial dépôt. And I may point out that, in the older days, this was seen by many in New Zealand. The honourable member for Auckland East, in the grants of land which he made to various Churches for the purpose of education, put a provision in his grants that the endowment was to be held for the purpose of educating, not only the people of New Zealand, but children from the Pacific Islands; and I believe it was his intention that the sons of chiefs from many of the Pacific Islands should receive education in New Zealand, and, after they left New Zealand, carry with them the culture obtained here, and thus help to civilize the Pacific Islands. I may go further and say that this colony has enormous interest in the question how the Pacific Islands are to be governed in the future. There are three points of view from which this question of the future of the Pacific Islands may be looked at. There is, first, the danger of a foreign Power having control in the Pacific Islands, in the—I hope far remote—contingency of any troubles or war arising in which we may become implicated. There is, then, the question of danger to us through any of the Pacific Islands being made dépôts for European criminals. Then, there is the third point of view, to which I have slightly referred—namely, the need of closer trade relationship. As to the first danger, of foreign dominion in the Pacific, I apprehend that we, who are laying the foundations of a new nation, must look far ahead into the future and remember this: that even a slight thing may alter what is termed the tide of history. And if we so provide that the whole of the Pacific Islands shall be united together in some bond of friendship, and that, whether they are peopled by one nationality or another of Europe, the whole of the islands shall be bound together by some tie, so that, whatever European troubles might arise, we might see no war in the Pacific—if we could lay down the lines of such an agreement, we should be doing a great deal for our future, and for the future of the race. Then, as to the further question of criminal dépôts, we are met with this question now. We see what has passed lately—[unclear: even] since the Convention met in Sydney—[unclear: in the] Senate in France, where a very able report [unclear: has] been presented—a précis of which has been sent out by the Agent-General—pointing out that the French must make New Caledonias at all events, a dépôt for her worst—[unclear: her] relapsed—criminals. Of course these [unclear: lapsed] criminals are to be sent a [unclear: thousand] now and a thousand again, and they may [unclear: not] harm us in one sense. That is, few of [unclear: them] may come to New Zealand, and the few who do come may have very little influence [unclear: our] population. But we must look at it from [unclear: this] point of view: If you have one of the [unclear: Pacific] Islands set apart as a dépôt for the [unclear: relapsed] criminals of Europe, what does that mean? You have, so to speak, a centre of infection No one, I am sure, would object to France Germany, or any of the great European Powers having an outlet for their surplus population [unclear: as] well as England has. It would be a very [unclear: selfish] policy if we tried to prevent any European Power having colonies in the Pacific Islands. But if we have New Caledonia and [unclear: perhaps] other parts set aside as dépôts for criminals, [unclear: we] cannot overlook the effect of such a policy. We are to have the worst kind of criminals—not merely political criminals; they are [unclear: ric] divistes or relapsed criminals; and all history shows that there is a great deal of truth [unclear: in the] doctrine of heredity. We have not merely [unclear: a] savage race, but the worst kind of race—the criminal one—placed in (the Pacific Islands to be a centre of infection for the whole of the Pacific; and, if this is allowed to go on without protest, we may have Germany and other European nations looking upon the [unclear: Pacific] Islands as a proper place to get rid of [unclear: their] criminals. Some may say that there has been too much made of this question; but I do not [unclear: think] so, and I think the Convention in Sydney, and the Hon. Mr. Service, of Victoria, [unclear: deserve] great credit for the stand they have [unclear: taken is] protesting against the French possessions being turned into mere criminal dépôts. I only regret that perhaps it was not pointed out the French people that the making of their
colonies mere dépôts for criminals injures their colonics, and injures the French possession I do not know if
enough was made of that in the discussion that has taken place in regard [unclear: to the] récidiviste question.
The other question [unclear: is that] of trade relationship. I shall not take up [unclear: times] by dwelling upon
that. We have had [unclear: same] slight discussion on that already this [unclear: session] in reference to the
South Sea Trading Bill, [unclear: and] the providing for a subsidized mail [unclear: service] for Samoa, Tonga,
and other islands. I do [unclear: not] think I need refer to the New Hebrides [unclear: question,] because
honourable members will [unclear: remember] that in 1878 that question was [unclear: taken] up by the then
Government; a [unclear: memoranda’s] was written by Sir George Grey, and a short [unclear: and] by myself,
which were sent to the [unclear: Secrevery] of State for the Colonics, pointing out [unclear: that the] New
Hebrides ought to be a British [unclear: possession] in fact, it once was included in the [unclear: bound] of
New Zealand. I now come to the question of the Federal Council, because, as I understand, it is on that question
there is most difference of opinion. I wish to point out that this question of a Federal Council for Australasia is
not new. In 1856 the question was agitated in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and amongst
colonists temporarily residing in London. It is useful to refer to what took place twenty-seven or twenty-eight
years ago for this purpose: to show how our ideas on federation have grown during past years along with the
growth of the colonies. In those days the question of federation was considered a small matter compared with
what it is now. Take, for example, one of the speeches made by Mr. Deas Thomson, of Sydney, who pointed
out what was meant by a Federal Council. To him a Federal Council meant a Council dealing with seven
subjects: tariff, postal communication, intercolonial railways, electric telegraphs, lands, gold fields, and
lighthouses. I find that the newspapers of that day—the Melbourne Argus, for example—thought that the other
questions that would be involved in the question of a Federal Council would be the formation of Courts of
Appeal, and the question of defence for the colonies. A memorial was prepared by Mr. Wentworth, of Sydney,
then on London, setting forth the need of a Federal Council. I cannot do more than refer honourable members
who desire to get up the history of this subject to the report dealing with the question, prepared by some of the
ablest men in Victoria in September, 1857. I may simply point out that they raised the question whether there
should not be a Federal Council or a Consultative Council, or something between the two. I refer to this simply
to show the changes that have arisen in our circumstances, and the changes that have arisen in the ideas of
the people on this subject of federation. Twenty-seven or twenty-eight years ago New Zealand was not deemed a
colony interested in the question, and there was no idea of bringing New Zealand into the proposed federal
bond: in fact, Federation was looked upon more in the nature of what may be termed a continental union. What
I ask this House to-night to consider is this question of union: I earnestly ask the House not to do anything that
will put a stop to the idea of union. It may be that we are not ripe for federation. I do not think we are. But,
whether we are ripe for it or not, we should take up this attitude: that every step we take should be taken with
care, and should be taken, I believe, in a direction towards unity and towards greater amity existing between the
colonies. I am forcibly reminded of this: that even we in New Zealand have no idea of what the Continent of
Australia is. I do not think we have even an idea of the vast resources of one colony, looked at merely from a
national point of view. I do not think we have realized what the future of Australasia must be, and I think that a
few words of Tennyson are applicable to us in our position. We do not sufficiently realize—

The vast republics that may grow,
The Federations and the powers
Titanic forces taking birth
In divers seasons, divers climes;
For we are ancients of the earth
And in the morning of the times.

I wish to-night to give a few statistics just to bring before honourable members what the Continent of
Australia is. As honourable gentlemen probably know, I have never lived in Australia; but even passing through
it as a traveller, and seeing the vast extent of its resources, makes me think that we in New Zealand do not
recognize the extent of that continent. Let me give a few statistics—and I shall only give a few—showing what
Australia is. Take even the Colony of New South Wales. Would any one believe that New South Wales, in
extent, is as large as the whole of Germany and half of France combined? Would any one believe, again, that
the Colony of Queensland is more than three times the size of the German Empire? And then, if we take South
Australia, with its vast extension northwards to the Gulf of Carpentaria, it amounts, in fact, to about four and a
half times the extent of the whole of Germany. If you take, now, the whole of the area of Australia, including
Tasmania, you will find that it means the enormous territory of 3,053,156 square miles. The area of France, in
round numbers, is about 204,000 square miles, and of Germany 208,000 square miles; while even the United
States, with Alaska and all those territories added, has only an area of 3,501,404 square miles. Bearing these facts in mind, we can appreciate how enormous the territory of Australia is. And, then, one must also remember how small the United States were when they became the United States. They were not as large even as Queensland when they became States, on the Declaration of Independence day. If in addition we consider the enormous mineral resources of New South Wales and Queensland, their agricultural products, and the vast future that must lie before them, with the vast population they will sustain—if, I say, we remember these things, we should weigh carefully how we, as a colony, declare to stand aloof from the Continent of Australia. Keeping that in mind, I shall now briefly point out what this Federal Council means; because it seems to me that there has been some misapprehension as to the proposals of the Convention. I may say at once that it will be seen from our resolutions that we propose something intermediate between Federal Councils and Conventions of Delegates consulting, because we recognize that no Parliament should pass any law which goes too far in advance of public opinion, and, if it be that public opinion in this colony is not ripe for federation, it would be unwise for this Parliament to pass any law which did not carry with it the sympathies of the people. Now, what is this Federal Council Bill? Let me, in as few words as possible, bring before the House what may be termed a bird's-eye view of the Bill. The Bill provides that a Federal Council shall be constituted, and that the sessions shall be held once in every two years in some colony; but the Governor may call a special session, and the representatives of the different colonics are to be chosen as each colonial Parliament may decide. Then, there is to be an elected President, and only one Chamber; and there must be a majority of the whole number of the members of the Council for the time being, representing a majority of the colonies present, before there is a quorum. This is a very important provision. As to its legislative authority, it is to deal with the following matters:—

- The relations of Australasia with the islands of the Pacific;
- Prevention of the influx of criminals;
- Fisheries in Australasian waters beyond territorial limits;
- The service of civil process of the Courts of any colony within Her Majesty's possessions in Australasia out of the jurisdiction of the colony in which it is issued;
- The enforcement of judgments of Courts of law of any colony, beyond the limits of the colony;
- The enforcement of criminal process beyond the limits of the colony in which it is issued, and the extradition of offenders (including deserters of wives and children, and deserters from the Imperial or colonial naval or military forces);
- The custody of offenders on board of ships belonging to Her Majesty's colonial Governments beyond territorial limits."

It will be observed that these are all matters over which this Legislature has practically no control, because we cannot deal with them without the consent of the Home Government granting us authority to do so by special Imperial Act. With regard to our relations to the Pacific Islands, we have no jurisdiction beyond three miles outside our waters, without special delegation from the Home Government. Therefore this Bill confers a power on New Zealand, for it gives it a share in legislating on matters with which at present it cannot deal. Then, as to the prevention of an influx of criminals, we have power to pass laws on the subject, but there could be no general law, and therefore this gives us greater power. In the same way, additional power is given with regard to dealing with fisheries in waters beyond territorial limits; and so it is with the subjects treated of in the remaining subsections. All these provisions confer on the Federal Council a legislative authority which we do not possess, and therefore it does not take anything away from this Parliament. It really gives to New Zealand a greater legislative power than she has at present. The only matters in which legislative power is given to the Federal Council which might be said to weaken our present legislative power are contained in subsection (h) of the same clause of the Bill:—

"General defences, quarantine, patents of invention and discovery, copyright, bills of exchange and promissory notes, uniformity of weights and measures, recognition in other colonics of any marriage or divorce duly solemnized or decreed in any colony, naturalization and aliens, status of corporations and joint stock companies."

It will be noticed, however, that none of these things can be dealt with by the Federal Council unless remitted to it by two colonies and the law passed by the Federal Council is only operative in the colonics which ask in the interference of the Federal Council. Now we ask, in these resolutions, to limit the power of the Federal Council to this extent: that a law passed by the Council shall not have effect in this colony, even if remitted to it by our colony, until it is sanctioned by our own Legislature. If, therefore, the resolutions which we ask the House to pass to-night are passed, it will be seen that there can be no interference whatever with our Legislature and it would not in any way weaken our legislative power. As I pointed out before, this is a case in which we ask for something intermediate between a purely Federal Council and some convention of delegates consulting together for some common purpose. And, now, having stated what the object of the Federal Council
Bill is, and what its provisions are, I hope I have said enough to show that it does not, as has been represented by some persons, take away any legislative powers from New Zealand. The only legislative powers that could be taken away are those contained in subsection (h), and for none of those objects can a law be passed which will have effect in this colony until the colonial Parliament has assented to it. We should not be weakened on the contrary, we should have a voice in legislation which we do not possess now, and cannot possibly possess under our present Constitution. That being so, I now come to meet some of the objections that may be raised to this question of federation. First of all would impress upon the House that, if we stand aloof and pass some amendment to the effect that, because we are insular, we should have nothing to do with the Continent of Australia, we shall be taking a fatal step as regards New Zealand. Even on the narrow ground of common defence, we cannot stand aloof from Australia; and I go further and say that, if we stand aloof from Australia and break off relations with it, as some honourable members propose, we shall have no voice what ever in the future of the Pacific Islands, and the various questions that must arise between England and her colonies, and between those colonies themselves and the islands of the Pacific. To stand aloof and take up an isolated position will not strengthen us, but will rather tend to weaken us; and I ask the House to lock upon the question as it will affect our future No doubt if we did anything to destroy our individuality we should be doing a wrong to the colony, i admit that, at once; but, as far as this Bill is concerned, I see no risk of merging our individuality in a large Australasian Dominion, or losing any of our power. The only danger lies in subsection (h), and that we have guarded against by the limitation we have put in requiring that any law passed on those subjects shall not have any force until sanctioned by our Legislature. That would give us immunity from any peril of losing our individuality. Now, there is another objection which has been urged to this federation, and it is this: I find on the Order Paper a resolution dealing with the wider question of Imperial federation. The honourable member for Auckland East thinks that, if we take this step in Australasian federation, that may tend to destroy any hope of what is termed Imperial federation; and the honourable member for Wairarapa asks that we should add a resolution pointing out the need of Imperial federation. Sir, I between the closer we can make the alliance between the Mother-country and the colonies the better. I believe also, with the honourable member for Auckland East, that, if we could get a close alliance amongst all English-speaking peoples, it would be an immense advantage to the race, and would perhaps prevent future wars and troubles. But I am forcibly reminded of a passage which I have met with in one of the Epistles, which I shall paraphrase. If we cannot love our Australian neighbours, who are near to us, and with whom we are acquainted and in intimate trade relationship how can we love those of our race that are so far distant from us? I say, if we can show that we can ally ourselves with those who are near to us,—if we can come to an amicable arrangement or agreement with them,—it will be a proof that there is some chance of this Imperial federation, and this grater English-speaking federation. But, if we show by our action that we cannot unite even on such elementary matters as these provided in the Federal Council Bill, then what is the use of talking about Imperial federation? In one sense we have now Imperial federation. We are part of the British Empire; and, although we have no voice in her foreign policy, yet I do not know that it would be wise for this colony to attempt to have any voice in her foreign policy, because we must take, along with that, a corresponding responsibility, and we must pay for it out of our taxes, and we must be liable to all the incidents that bind one part of the Empire with the other. There is one passage in one of Mr. Gladstone’s speeches, delivered something like seventeen or eighteen years ago’, pointing out the strong position colonies occupied—something better and stronger than Imperial federation—which think appropriate, and will quote. Speaking on a Canadian Loan Bill in the House of Commons, he says,—

“We have for a full quarter of a century acknowledged absolutely the right of self-government in the colonies. We do not expect Canada or of Australia to be modulated according to our own ideas. We grant them a greater freedom from interference than, as amongst the three kingdoms, the Legislature grants to the peculiar ideas that may happen to prevail in one of those three. We have carried it to this point: that, as far as regards the Administration, I believe it may be said that the only officer appointed by the Colonial Secretary is the Governor; and I believe there cannot be a doubt that, if it were the well-ascertained desire of the colonies to have the appointment of their own Governor, the Imperial Parliament would at once make over to them that power.”

That shows the enormous power that the colonies have been given—a power such as no colonies of other empires ever possessed—a power, I may say, unique in history. And I say, with regard to this wider question of Imperial federation, that we are not ripe for that. If we are ripe for anything, we are only ripe for this Australasian federation. We are not even ripe for complete federation with the other colonies, because that would go further than this Federal Council Bill goes. But we are ripe for what is stated in the resolutions—namely, for bringing us into closer and more intimate connection with the Australian Colonies. But how is this Imperial federation to be brought about? How is it to be managed? The House of Commons will not give up its power; and I think that, if we are not ripe for Australasian federation now, we shall not be ripe for Imperial federation perhaps a century hence. The objection that has been urged—namely, that this will
some way or other, prevent Imperial federation—I think I have sufficiently answered. And, now, let me look at some of the dangers of federation. I admit that there are dangers in federation. There is always a danger of a strong Government overriding weak Governments. We saw that in Provincialism. We saw what may be termed the federal States of New Zealand being wiped out by the central Government as soon as there came a strong financial pressure; and I regret to notice that some Australian statesmen, who are advocating this federation, are continually using the word "dominion," as if this Australasian dominion, as they term it, is to be akin to Canada. I think we are not ripe for that. The question of dominion goes far beyond federation, and the proposals contained in this Federal Council Bill. That is one danger. There is always the danger of the central Government overriding the weaker Governments; but I do not see, if we agree to this Federal Council Bill, that any danger can arise from that, because this Council is exceedingly limited in its jurisdiction; and I apprehend that the Imperial Government would never for one moment hesitate to give the right to any colony to leave this Federation. If there was any doubt about that, there could be a clause inserted in the Bill, so that on the face of its charter there should be the right of secession granted to any colony in the event of its desiring to leave the Federation. As far as that question is concerned, I do not see that any danger can arise from it; but, if there be a danger from union with Australia, because of the Federal Council overriding us, how much greater would the danger be if the federation were Imperial and if we were united to England! That would be a danger tenfold greater. I think I have said enough to show that it ought not to be the policy of New Zealand to at once break off negotiations with the Australian Colonies and to pursue a policy of isolation. Of course in this respect we are placed under a great disadvantage in discussing this question by the New South Wales representative Chamber declining, by one vote, to even discuss this Federal Council Bill. Those who know the history of New South Wales politics can, however, tell the reason why. I believe that the feeling amongst the New South Wales people for federation, for union, is far stronger than in the Parliament of that colony. Political parties are divided there; old feuds exist; and the feeling against Victoria, and the City of Melbourne especially, is so strong with some of the older New South Wales politicians that they will have nothing to do with anything that is pressed forward by Victoria. I believe that had a great deal to do with the non-success of the resolutions in the Sydney Parliament. I have said that in that respect we are placed at a disadvantage. The representative Chamber has not concurred in these resolutions, though in the Council they have agreed to them and passed them by a considerable majority. What, then, should we do in this matter? I again urge the House not to pursue a policy of isolation, and the resolutions are so framed as to prevent this. I do not care much about Resolution (e)—whether it be put or not; and, to allow the most ample opportunity to the members to record their opinions, I shall ask that the resolutions be put separately. This Resolution (e) may be in one respect unnecessary, for the resolutions go on to show what alterations should be made in the Federal Council Bill, and, if the alterations are to be made in the Bill, then that simply says that, before the Federal Council Bill is passed, there must be new negotiations., or, rather, negotiations must be continued, and that we cannot agree with the Bill as at present prepared. But let me say one or two words generally about this question from a general point of view. I pointed out that, if we are to have any voice in the future of Australasia and of the Pacific Islands, New Zealand by herself can do little or nothing. I know that we have passed a Confederation Bill—I mean the Act of Sir George Grey's—which enables the Government, if it had received the Queen's assent—and we pressed the Agent-General to ask that the Queen's assent should be given to it—to deal with any island that chooses to annex itself to New Zealand. But New Zealand would require the sanction of the Imperial Government to any annexation or union of any island with us; and, if New Zealand was standing aloof from the Australian Colonies, it is not likely the Imperial Government would listen to many of our recommendations. What is to be gained by this question of federation? I ask this House to look into the future. I ask this House to remember that we have a national feeling in New Zealand, weak, exceedingly weak, at percent, but yearly getting stronger. There is a far stronger national feeling in Australia then in New Zealand. One cannot be in Melbournes for instance, without realizing that there exists a feeling of Australia for the Australian such as does not exist in New Zealand. There is a far stronger national life there, no dock caused by there being a metropolis, for we have no centre like Melbourne. I was exceedingly struck by this in Melbourne when Irish informers attempted to land; I was struck with the strength of feeling amongst all classes that Australia was a nation that had national life and feeling. What will the future of Australia be, if its scattered population has that feeling now? Fifty years hence how many millions of people will be there! And what will be the future of New Zealand if we are to stand aloof and not live on more than terms of amity with our Australian neighbours by being allied them, in case of war and a dozen thing that may occur? At present we are on the best of terms with the Australian Colonies For example, to show the feeling that exists between us and Victoria, there has not been a single case of small-pox in Melbourne and the suburbs but the Premier of Victoria has wired across to tell us of it, so that we might take all necessary precautions. There is from the telegrams that pass between this and the other colonies, a strong feeling of friendship existing; and I say we ought to foster it in every possible way we can. Even from a selfish point of view, we ought to encourage a friendly feeling. They have products which we
have not, and we have some that they do not possess. These we can exchange, and trade will increase. We shall not be benefited by isolation. What we require is some such alliance as is here proposed, some kind of Council, not quite federal, but yet more than consulting. And now let me say one or two words more about a general federation. It may be from my early training, but I have always had a horror of war. I look upon all war as criminal; and I have always looked with hope to the time when nations, like individuals, will be able to settle their grievances and differences without an appeal to arms. It seems to me that the very existence of war show that our civilization is not far advanced beyond the savage state. Well, how is war to be prevented in future? It is only by extending federation Instead of war conferences we should have peace conferences; and we ought to be careful, in founding our new nation, to lay down [unclear: some] broad lines for our future guidance. How can we lay those better down than by having [unclear: some] such arrangement as is sketched forth in [unclear: these] resolutions? I quite agree with the [unclear: honourable] member for Auckland East in his aspirations for a wider union. I should like to see, in one respect, a stronger bond even between the [unclear: nies] and the Mother-country. I should like to see that bond not extended to England [unclear: al] but I should like to see it extended to [unclear: this] United States. I do not see why there [unclear: should] not be a federation between the colonies of other countries and ourselves. If we are to have French and German colonists in the Pacific, why should we not have some kind of federation recognized with the colonies of I these countries? Whilst the colonists do not deny their allegiance to their Mother-country, they should be united, and there should be some agreement among them, some common meeting-ground among them, on which they could discuss their grievances and their relationship, so as to prevent all war in the future. I see no difficulty in that. If there is a difficulty, then it simply means that this system of standing armies, this system of big navies, of having large sums, shall I say, wasted for the defence of our seaports—that all this is to come upon us, and that, instead of having peace in these new lands, we are to have introduced all the terrible evils of war. What has been the curse of Europe? The enormous standing armies have crushed the population. The expense of the armies and navies has had to be borne by the workers. We are, as yet, merely a handful of people; but if we could, by uniting with the other Australian Colonies, lay down some line—namely, the line of federation—to show to the older countries that, so far as we are concerned, we were to settle our future grievances, not by appeals to arms, but by mutually meeting and discussing our differences, we should be doing something for our race, and something to make us known in history. If it be that the world is so constituted that there is to be nothing but war, war, in the future, then the energies and resources of the people will be fettered. But I believe that there is progress in the world. I believe that the progress of the world is only consistent with peace—consistent with a greater diffusion of education. If you get peace notions diffused, that is, perhaps, the highest kind of education; so that what a modern poet has predicted may come true,—

There shall come a time when brotherhood shows stronger
Than the narrow bounds which now distract the world;
When the cannons roar and trumpet blare no longer, And the ironclad rusts, and battle-flaps are furled;
When the bars of creed and speech and race, which sever
Shall be fused in one humanity for over.

Sir, I move the resolutions standing in my name
Motion made, and question proposed,—
"Whereas, at a meeting of delegates from the following colonies—namely, Fiji, New South Wales, New Zealand, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia, held in Sydney, during November and December, 1888, the following resolutions were agreed to:—

• That further acquisition of dominion in the Pacific, south of the Equator, by any foreign Power would be highly detrimental to the safety and well-being of the British possessions in Australasia, and injurious to the interests of the Empire;
• That this Convention refrains from suggesting the action by which effect can best be given to the foregoing resolution, in the confident belief that the Imperial Government will promptly adopt the wisest and most effectual measures for securing the safety and contentment of this portion of Her Majesty's dominions:
• That, having regard to the geographical position of the Island of New Guinea, the rapid extension of British trade and enterprise in Torres Straits, the certainty that the island will shortly be the resort of many adventurous subjects of Great Britain and other nations, and the absence or inadequacy of any existing laws for regulating their relations with the native tribes, this Convention, while fully recognizing that the responsibility of extending the boundaries of the Empire belongs to the Imperial Government, is emphatically of opinion that such steps should be immediately taken as will most conveniently and
effectively secure the incorporation with the British Empire of so much of New Guinea, and the small
islands adjacent thereto, as is not claimed by the Government of the Netherlands:

• That, although the understanding arrived at in 1878 between Great Britain and France, recognizing the
independence of the New Hebrides, appears to preclude this Convention from making any
recommendation inconsistent with that understanding, the Convention urges upon Her Majesty's
Government that it is extremely desirable that such understanding should give place to some more
definite engagement, which shall secure those islands from falling under any foreign dominion; at the
same time, the Convention trusts that Her Majesty's Government will avail itself of any opportunity that
may arise for negotiating with the Government of France, with the object of obtaining the control of those
islands, in the interests of Australasia:

• That the Governments represented at this Convention undertake to submit and recommend to their
respective Legislatures measures of permanent appropriation for defraying, in proportion to population,
such share of the cost incurred in giving effect to the foregoing resolutions as Her Majesty's Government,
having regard to the relative importance of Imperial and Australasian interests, may deem fair and
reasonable:

• That the Convention protests, in the strongest manner, against the declared intention of the Government
of France to transport large numbers of relapsed criminals to the French possessions in the Pacific, and
urges Her Majesty's Government to use every means in its power to prevent the adoption of a course so
disastrous to the interests of Australasia and the Pacific Islands:

• That the Convention expresses a confident hope that no penal settlement for the reception of European
criminals will long continue to exist in the Pacific, and invites Her Majesty's Government to make to the
Government "of France such serious representations on this subject as may be deemed expedient:"

"And whereas, at the said Convention, a draft Bill to constitute a Federal Council of Australasia was also
agreed to: And whereas, in pursuance of the undertaking given by the delegates from the Colony of New
Zealand, it is desirable that the resolutions of the said Convention should be submitted to this Legislature:

"This House resolves,—

"That it agrees generally with the resolutions of the said Convention; but, in order that its views may be
specifically expressed, it resolves as follows:—

• That it approves of the steps taken by the British Government for the establishment of its rule over New
Guinea, and hopes that like measures will be taken for a Protectorate over the islands of the Pacific Ocean
not under the dominion of any stable Government:

• That this colony is willing to pay, in proportion to its population, a share in the sum of £15,000 proposed
by the Imperial Government:

• That it desires respectfully to protest against the transportation of criminals to the French possessions in
the Pacific:

• That it requests the British Government to make such representations to the European Powers as will
prevent the maintenance of penal establishments in any of the Pacific Islands:

• That the establishment of such a Federal Council as is proposed in the Convention draft Bill is premature:

• That, so far as the Bill aims at enabling the colonies to jointly initiate legislation on questions of common
interest and [unclear: importance] to the several colonies, it has the cordial support of this House:

• That, to place the proposed measure [unclear: in] accordance with these opinions, it will be necessary to
vary the Bill, so as to provide—[unclear: First] that the Federal Council shall not make representations to
the Imperial Government direct, but to the several Colonial Governments; second, that any measure it
initiates shall not have any force within any colony, not affect any colony, until it is adopted by the
Legislature of such colony."

—(Mr. Stout.)

"Wellington: GEORGE DIDSURY, GOVERNMENT Printer.

ART. LII.—Recent Discovering in the Neighbourhood of Milford Sound.

By DONALD SUTHERLAND. Communicated by Alexander McKay.
[Read before the Wellington Philosophical Society, 15th August, 1884.]

Plate XLII.
MESSRS. SUTHERLAND and McKay, well known as explorers and prospectors of Western Otago, have for some years past devoted their attention to the vicinity of Milford Sound, and from their principal camp at the head of that Sound, they have explored the country in almost every direction. Surrounded as Milford Sound is by impassable mountains to the east and north, the valley of the Arthur River lying southward of the head of the Sound presents the only hopeful route by which to reach the Lake District of Otago. The eastern branch of the Arthur River, above Lake Abraham, was explored to its source, but no outlet was discovered in this direction, the valley being bounded on either hand and closed at its upper end by high and excessively rugged mountains, presenting some of the most remarkable scenery to be met with in the whole district.

The mountains on the north-east side of the valley are specially striking, and have been called by their explorers the Balloon Mountains. From the river valley these rise as vertical precipices to a height of 5,000 feet, and attain an altitude between 8,000 and 9,000 feet above sea-level. It is here that the Sutherland Falls are situate, which have a height of 5,000 feet, a considerable volume of water being precipitated from that height in an almost unbroken sheet into the valley where this is not more than 800 feet above sea-level. At the source of the more westerly branch of the river, a pass was discovered leading in the direction of the head of Bligh Sound, by which it is hoped communication may be established with some of the western arms of Te Anau Lake.

It seems certain from Maori report that by this way an available route exists, but as yet no European has reached Te Anau Lake, starting from Milford Sound,—or Milford Sound from the other end of the journey. It is, however, probable that a route this way to Milford Sound was known to the Maoris, as on several points of it traces of temporary or more permanent camps have been discovered.

It is not with the results of these explorations that this paper more particularly deals, but with those of subsequent date made on the coastline between Milford and Bligh Sounds.

Eighteen months ago McKay left Milford Sound, and Mr. Sutherland has since, for the most part, explored single-handed. A few days since he passed through Wellington and gave me an account of his later discoveries which, in his own words, is as follows:—

"During the month of October last I made an attempt to reach the top of Mitre Peak following the valley on its south side, hoping thus to gain the top of the ridge connecting the Mitre with the Llawrenny Peaks to the south. In this I failed, as the upper end of the valley is surrounded by precipices or smooth rock surfaces, sloping at high angles on which no footing could be found. The upper end of this valley is considerably wider than the middle and lower part forming a semi-circular basin surrounded by precipices as pronounced on the side next the Llawrenny Peaks as towards the Mitre.

"Towards the upper end of the valley blocks of marble occur in the detritus covering the low grounds, but marble was nowhere observed in situ. There is also considerable quantity of the purer hornblende rock of which samples had formerly been obtained in the lower part of this valley.

"I next determined to examine the coast-line south of the entrance to Milford Sound, and as weather availed used the boat for this purpose. Landing two miles south of Fox Point, at the mouth of a valley running some distance back into the ranges, I explored this to its upper end considerably east of the entrance to Milford Sound. Its length may be estimated at six miles, its width as two. The valley and the ranges to the north and south are covered with heavy bush.

"For a distance of four miles back from the beach the valley is but little above sea-level, and the stream flowing through it, though of no great volume, is sluggish and navigable for boats for the four miles mentioned. Towards its upper part this valley narrows, and unlike that on the south side of Mitre Peak, does not open out to form a semi-circular basin surrounded by precipices. The mountains are nevertheless very abrupt, and many large slips choke the upper part of this valley, making travelling difficult.

"There is here a greater variety of rocks than in Milford Sound. The principal rock is schist, similar to that met with at Fox Point. Quartz is abundant, although no reefs of this were noticed. Marble and asbestos also occur, but there is an absence of the hornblende rock found in the valley south of Mitre Peak.

"Continuing to the southward I next landed at Poison Bay, and explored the valley of the river which enters the sea at that place. This stream has a volume little less than the Cleddau River at the head of Milford Sound. It drains the south and south-west slopes of the Llawrenny Peaks. Six miles from the coast the river issues from a deep narrow gorge, beyond which it divides into two branches, the largest of which has a direction at first to the south-east, but towards its source turns more to the eastward. The smaller branch rises to the north-east among the Llawrenny Peaks. Below the gorge the course of the river is between west and north-west to the sea. Its valley in this part has a breadth of a mile and a half of flat alluvial land. The hills bounding it slope to the valley at moderate angles, though here and there they are broken by deep gulches and ravines. The country in this part is heavily covered with bush.

"Blue clay-slate is the most abundant rock. This is not a mica schist, but more of a roofing slate, splitting freely into thin flagging. Marble and greenstone occur in the bed of the stream, and in the slaty beds several
quartz reefs were noted.

"The valley varies but little in breadth, being as wide at its upper end: as near the coast. The river enters the sea on the south side of the bay.

"Leaving Poison Bay I went five miles to the southward, and landed at Little Bay, where entering a tidal river I determined to follow this as far as I could with the boat. This river (pi. xliii.), which is about two chains in width, has on its bar a depth of three fathoms at low water, inside of which there is a greater depth. Followed inland the average width of this tidal river is maintained for a distance of one and a half miles, beyond which it expands TRANS.NZ.INSTITUTE.VOLXVI.PI.XLII. Rugged Mts OCEAN SUTHERLAND SOUND. SCALE. 1 Mile ½ Inch. and forms a salt-water lake, divided into two parts by a shingle bar, dry at low water. The lower part has its greatest length across the valley, being better than a mile in this direction, and about half a mile in breadth from the outlet to the shingle bar dividing it from the upper part of the lake. In this basin the depth of water is very considerable, some twenty fathoms.

"The shingle bar, dividing the lake into two parts, and dry at low water, is about half a mile wide at low water; no river connects the two parts of the lake, but the water from the upper part flows over or percolates through the shingle, so that no principal stream is formed.

"Beyond this the upper part of the lake, better than a mile in width, extends to the eastward a distance of six miles, and is bounded on the north side by precipitous mountains not quite so nearly vertical as in Milford Sound. On its southern side the lake has a fringe of flat land, three quarters of a mile wide, between it and the mountains, which are less abrupt than on the northern side of the lake, saving towards its upper end, where they are equally so. At its upper end the lake is narrowed to less than half its greatest width, and there receives two rivers coming from the north-east and south-east respectively, much as the Cleddau and Arthur rivers enter Milford Sound.

"Near their entrance into the lake these rivers are each about a chain in width, and though the weather was fine and the rivers low, they were not fordable when I saw them. That coming from the north-east has a valley about a quarter of a mile in width, and for a mile this has a moderate fall, beyond which it has a higher slope, and appears to become a rugged mountain valley, although the mountains on either side are not remarkably abrupt.

"The stream falling into the lake on the south side is rather the largest of the two. This flows over a rough bouldery bed in a valley considerably less than a quarter of a mile wide, which terminates half a mile from the lake, beyond which the river flows in a tremendous ravine, not more than two or three chains in width, whose vertical sides rise to a height of 1,500 or 2,000 feet.

"By these two rivers a small delta has been reclaimed from the upper part of the lake; and off the mouth of the northern river a small island of shingle is dry at high water. From the sea into the lower part of the lake the tide runs in with a rate of five knots, and over the shingle bar at the rate of three knots an hour.

"The lake abounds with fish in the lower basin, and in the lower part of the upper, though none were caught at its upper end, and following them there is no scarcity of sharks, which infest the tidal river and the lake wherever other fish are found.

"Below the lake the alluvial land between it and the sea is about one and a half miles wide, heavily timbered and abounding with bird life,—wekas are especially abundant; scarcely less so are pigeons, kakas, kiwis, kakapos, and roas. Redbills and penguins are in great numbers on the shingle bar between the two parts of the lake when the tide is out, and as far as birds and fish supply it, there is no scarcity of the means of living.

"The characters of the rocks here resemble more that variety of granite found in the Cleddau River, at the head of Milford Sound, than the other: localities of which the rocks have been noticed. There is yet a greater number of varieties than in the Cleddau river-bed; but in all these there is still a resemblance."

Such is Mr. Sutherland's narrative, and I take it for granted that it is sufficiently interesting and important to merit being read here; and from this it may be inferred that besides the larger sounds excavated to such a depth that they are now deep arms of the sea extending far inland from the coast-line, there was a second series of sounds the glaciers that excavated which were connected with less extensive snow-fields,—the great glacier of Milford Sound (a branch of which filled the valley of the Arthur River) dividing these from the greater snow-fields of the Darran Mountains and their southern continuation; they thus were unable to excavate their beds to the same level.

Some of these as we see are now filled and form level lands fit for settlement, while in the case of the Salt-water Lake inland from Little Bay, this is yet a sound to all intents and purposes, owing its greater depth and length to the fact that there is here between the watershed to the Arthur River and the coast-line a greater breadth and a greater elevation of the country than further to the north, south of Milford Sound, and west of the Arthur River.

The glacier excavating this sound must have been fed from the Balloon Mountains, and is an evidence of the correctness of Mr. Sutherland's estimate, that these are higher than the mountains immediately south of
Milford Sound.

This lake at Little Bay is not the only example of the kind on the west coast of Otago. Lake McKerrow, in the lower part of the Hollyford Valley and its tidal river, presents the same phenomenon on a much larger scale. That, however, belongs to the valleys of the larger glaciers reaching back to the Darran Mountains, while this has been excavated by the glaciers of the coast ranges.

The distances, as estimated by Mr. Sutherland, may not be in all cases correct, the difficulties of travelling in such a country leading to an over-estimate of these.

Regulations for the Conduct of Public Business and for the Civil Service.

[unclear: Conduct] from the New Zealand Gazette, No. 5, 23rd January 1873, and No. 45, 23rd July, 1885.]
George Didsbury, Government Printer, Wellington.

Regulations for Conduct of Public Business, and for the Civil Service.

(Extract from the New Zealand Gazette, No. 5, 23rd January, 1873.)

• Public documents requiring the signature of the Governor are to be signed by a Responsible Minister before being presented to His Excellency for signature.
• No Proclamation is to be issued until duly signed by the Governor and countersigned by a Responsible Minister.
• All memorials or petitions addressed to the Governor are to be sent through, and are to be answered by, some Responsible Minister.
• All memorials or petitions forwarded to the Governor for transmission to Her Majesty must be accompanied by copies in duplicate of such memorials or petitions.
• Copies in duplicate of official documents required by the Governor for transmission to the Colonial Office must be prepared by the office which furnishes the originals.
• Ministers will not correspond officially with any heads of departments except those under their own immediate supervision. Minutes of reference to be signed either by a Responsible Minister or by his Secretary.
• All correspondence with representatives of foreign Powers is to be conducted by the Colonial Secretary in the name of the Governor, and, except when relating to mere matters of routine, to be submitted to the Governor, for his information and approval, before being forwarded.
• All correspondence with other Colonial Governments, or with that of India or its dependencies is to be conducted by the Colonial Secretary, and to be submitted to the Governor for his information. In matters of routine connected with the Customs Police, Post, or Telegraph Departments the heads of those departments may correspond direct with the heads of the same departments elsewhere.
• All official documents which are required to be laid before the Governor are to be forwarded with all possible despatch to the Premier, “for transmission to His Excellency for his approval” or “information,” as the case may be.
• All circular instructions affecting the Service at large are to be signed by the Premier, and by him forwarded to the other Ministers for communication to the several heads of departments under their control.
• All official letters or documents signed on behalf of Ministers or heads of departments by their Secretaries or clerks are expressly to state that they are written by direction or authority of the Minister or head of such department.
• All official notices for publication in the Government Gazette, whether signed by Minister or otherwise, are to be sent to the Colonial Secretary’s office—for transmission to the Government Printer—not later than 3.30 p.m. on the Wednesday preceding the day of publication. The Gazette is ordinarily to be published on the Thursday of each week.
• Responsible Ministers are empowered to authorize expenditure in and approve for payment the accounts of the various departments under their respective control, within the limits prescribed by the Appropriation Act; but any excess must be approved by the Treasurer. The Treasurer is authorized to refer back to Responsible Ministers any voucher of an unusual character, or concerning which he may deem further information desirable.
• Where the sanction of the Governor in Council is required to any appointment, act, or deed heads of the departments to which such documents refer are required to assure themselves that such sanction has been duly obtained.
• All memorials or petitions for the remission of judicial penalties, fines, and sentences are to be addressed to the Governor; and, should it be thought proper to take any action thereon, such memorials or petitions, if they refer to a sentence of the Supreme Court, will be forwarded by the Colonial Secretary to the convicting Judge, for his report thereon; if to a sentence of any other Court, by the Minister of Justice to the Judge or presiding Magistrate of such Court, for report, prior to the subject of such memorial being disposed of.

• All appointments to the Commission of the Peace are to be made by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Executive Council.

• Appointments to offices having attached to them a salary of £200 per annum or upwards are to be made by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Executive Council.

• Appointments to offices of a less salary than £200 per annum are, except when otherwise required by law, to be made in the name of the Governor by Ministerial heads of departments.

• Appointments to offices are to be made subject to the provisions of the Civil Service Act, and are with all convenient speed to be gazetted. The warrants of appointment are to be prepared in the various Ministerial offices, and duly recorded.


The Colonial Secretary also corresponds with the Judges of the Supreme Court, the Speaker of the Legislative Council, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, Clerk of Executive, and Clerks of both Houses of Parliament, the Superintendents of Provinces, Chairman, County of Westland.

The Colonial Treasurer corresponds with and has under his directions—Treasury, Public Trustee, Trust Funds, Provincial Auditors, Receivers of Land Revenue, Imperial Pensions Office, Sinking Fund Commissioners, Registrars of Joint-Stock Companies.

The Postmaster-General has under his directions—Postal Department, Telegraph.

The Minister of Native Affairs has under his directions—European and Native Officers of Native Department, Native Land Court, Militia and Volunteers, Defence, Confiscated Lands, Native Reserves, Native Land Purchase, Inspector of Surveys.

The Minister of Justice has under his directions Attorney-General, Land Transfer, Deeds Registry, Registrars of Supreme Court, District Courts, Resident Magistrates' Courts, Petty Sessions, Justices of the Peace, Crown Solicitors and Prosecutors, Coroners, Jurors, Bankruptcy.

The Commissioner of Stamps has under his direction the Stamp Department.

The Commissioner of Customs has under his directions—Customs Offices and Services, Distilleries, Marine.

The Secretary for Crown Lands and Minister of Immigration has under his directions—Commissioners of Crown Lands, Immigration under Immigration and Public Works Act.

The Minister for Public Works has under his direction—Public Works under Immigration and Public Works Act.

Regulations for Civil Service.

1. Hours of Business.

The various offices of Government are, except when otherwise ordered, to be open to the public from ten o'clock a.m. to four o'clock p.m., and on Saturdays from ten o'clock a.m. to two o'clock p.m. Officers are expected to be in attendance in ample time to permit of the offices being in full working order when opened to the public. The permanent lead or the chief clerk of each department or office will be charged with the duty of seeing that these hours are regularly observed by all officers, and will report on the attendance of each officer in the detriment or office at such times and in such manner as may be directed by the Responsible Minister. A time-book of the arrivals and departures is required to be kept in each office, and laid before Ministerial head of department every Monday morning.

2. Overtime.

All officers will be required to attend at their offices for such longer period as may from time to time be required for the completion of arrears of work, or in consequence of any departmental or public exigency; and no charge for overtime will be allowed except where expressly authorized by regulations agreed to by the
Governor in Council unless under the express authority of law.

3. Hours of Business to be devoted strictly to Business.

All officers are required to devote themselves, during the hours of business, exclusively to the discharge of their public duties. No officer will be allowed to leave his office during such hours except on official business, or by express permission the permanent head of the department or brawl. Officers having to attend at more than one place of business shall, as far as possible, attend at stated times, and shall post a notice of such times of attendance at the doors of their several offices. Officers are not, during the hours of business, to receive private visitors, or otherwise to allow their attention to be engaged in private affairs.

4. Fees or Remuneration not to be received.

No fee, reward, or remuneration of any kind whatsoever, beyond his salary, shall be received and kept for his own use by any officer for the performance of any service for the Government. All fees received by officers attending in their official character, under a subpoena or order to give evidence or to produce papers in any Court, shall be paid by such officers into the general revenue and such officers shall duly enter and account for all fees' received by them for the performance of such duty, and shall transmit to the head of their branch an account and vouchers of all the necessary expenses, if any, incurred by them in the performance of such duty.

5. Officers not to engage in Private Business.

No officer shall accept, or shall continue to hold or discharge, any paid office in connection with any banking, insurance, or mining company, or any building society, or any similar body whatsoever, without the express permission, in writing, of the Responsible Minister.

6. Professional Officers not to engage in Private Practice.

No professional officer to whom "The Civil Service Act, 1866," applies shall engage or continue in the private practice of his profession without the authority of law, or the express, permission, in writing, of the Responsible Minister.

7. Officers not to be Members of Local Bodies.

No officer shall accept or continue to hold the office of mayor, president, chairman, or member of the Council or Board of any province, county, city, town, borough, shire, or road district.

8. Addresses and Testimonials.

No address or testimonial shall be accepted by any officer in respect of his official duties, without the sanction, in writing, of the Responsible Minister of his department.


Every officer shall obey promptly and with readiness all instructions that may be given to him by the officer under whose immediate control or supervision he is placed. If any officer should think that he has ground of complaint arising out of such instructions, or from any other cause whatsoever he may at all times report the same, through the permanent head of his branch, to the Responsible Minister of the department.

10. Absence from Office or District.

Except in cases of sudden illness or other emergency (which shall be immediately reported to the Responsible Minister by or through the permanent head) no officer shall be absent without leave from his office or place of business, or from the district to which he is appointed.

11. Applications for Leave of Absence.

Applications for leave of absence shall in all cases be made, in writing, by or through the permanent head to the Minister of the department, and shall be accompanied by a statement showing the total length of absence of the officer from duty, from all causes, during the previous part of the same year. The permanent head shall also, in all cases of application for leave of absence by any officer under him, make a special report (1) as to the general conduct of the officer during the previous portion of the year, and (2) as to the regularity or irregularity of attendance by the officer for the same period during the hours of business prescribed by the first regulation.

12. Leave of Absence.
Any officer absent from his office or his district without such application having been made and granted shall, except in case of sudden illness or other emergency mentioned in the last but one preceding regulation, be deemed to be absent without leave. The duties of any officer absent on leave under the provisions of the 27th section of "The Civil Service Act, 1866," shall be performed by his brother officers, without additional salary or remuneration, in such manner as the Minister may authorise or direct.

13. Leave of Absence on ground of Illness or other Pressing Necessity.

Applications for leave of absence on the ground of illness, under the 27th section of "The Civil Service Act, 1866," must be supported by a medical certificate, stating nature of complaint, to the satisfaction of the Responsible Minister that such leave is necessary; and applications for leave of absence on the ground of other pressing necessity, under the section aforesaid, must be supported by reasonable proof of the existence of such necessity.

14. Change of Station.

All officers stationed in any place or district will be liable to be removed at any time to any other place or district, and, when so removed, the actual reasonable travelling expenses of themselves and their families will be paid, on production of proper vouchers, except in case of removal at their own request, or in consequence of any fault of their own, or of promotion, in which latter case they will be allowed a reasonable sum, to be fixed by the Minister, for expenses.

15. Accounts and Public Honeys.

In the matter of accounts and the collection and payment of public moneys officers are enjoined to conform strictly to the provisions of law, and to such regulations and directions as may from time to time be issued by order of the Honourable the Treasurer.

16. Officers not to incur Liability on behalf of the Government, or to alter General Conditions &c., of Contracts.

No officer shall be authorised to incur, or shall attempt to incur, any liability, or shall have authority to make, or shall attempt to make, any contract on behalf of the Crown, or of the Government or of any department of the public service without the authority, in writing, of the Minister of his department. The general conditions and forms of specifications of contracts which may from time to time be prescribed to any department shall be strictly adhered to by the professional and other officers of such department, unless in any specious circumstances an alteration therein may be mad and be approved, in writing, by the Responsible Minister.

17. Requisitions.

Requisitions for stores, stationery, furniture, Sittings, and repairs to buildings are to be made in strict accordance with the regulations in that behalf, or with such instructions as may from time to time be given by a Minister.

18. Public Property in Care of Officers.

All officers will be held responsible for the careful use and preservation of all Government property in their possession, custody, or care. Officers in charge of public buildings will, in the event of repairs being required, make a requisition for the same, and are not to allow the buildings to fall into decay, or to become permanently injured, for the want of such repairs.

19. Information not to be given.

No information out of the strict course of official duty shall be given, directly or indirectly, by any officer without the express direction or permission of a Responsible Minister.

20. Communications not to be made to the Public Press.

No officer shall make any communication, directly or indirectly, to the Press upon any matter affecting the department in which he serves, or the business of the officers thereof, or relating to the public service, or his own official position or acts, or upon any political subject or question connected with New Zealand, without the express permission or authority of a Responsible Minister.

21. Applications of Officers how to be made.
The application of any officer for promotion, leave of absence, change of quarters, increase of salary, or upon any other matter affecting his position in the Service shall be made by the applicant himself by or through the head of his branch or department; and if it be made by or through any other person it will be treated as irregular. Officers exciting parliamentary action with a view to increase of their salaries will be liable to summary dismissal from the Service.

22. Officers in the Civil Service not to take part in Politics.

In order that officers of all ranks may be enabled to render loyal and efficient service to Government it is necessary, and they are hereby expressly required and enjoined, not to take any part in political affairs otherwise than by recording their votes at elections; and every violation of this regulation will be forthwith visited with such penalty as the circumstances of the case shall appear to demand.

23. Charges against Civil Officers.

Any officer against whom an accusation is made under the 26th section of "The Civil Service Act, 1866," may be suspended by the permanent head of the department, or by any Minister, or by the officer in charge of the office in which the accused serves. When any complaint is made against any officer under the 26th section of the Civil Service Act timely notice of such complaint, and a copy of the document reporting it, shall be given him, in order that the complaint and any explanation offered by the accused may be laid simultaneously before the Board of Inquiry.

24. Boards of Inquiry: Time and Place of Meeting.

The members of any Board of Inquiry under the Civil Service Act shall fix the time and place of their sittings; and the Chairman shall inform the accused, in writing, accordingly, and require his attendance at the time and place fixed. If the accused cannot be found, a notice requiring his attendance may be sent by post to his usual or last known place of abode; and if he do not attend, or send a sufficient excuse for his non-attendance to the satisfaction of the Board, the inquiry shall proceed in his absence.

25. The Board to have Materials for Prosecuting the Inquiry.

Any statement of the accused, and all other papers relating to the subject of the inquiry, shall be sent to the Chairman of the Board, who shall, by summons under his hand, require the attendance of any person whose evidence shall, in the judgment of the Board, be material to the subject-matter of the inquiry; and the Board may, if they think fit, administer an oath to any witness.

26. Accused Officer may be examined.

The accused officer may in all cases be examined by the Board, and his attention shall be called to any points on which his explanation or evidence may be deemed by the Board to be incomplete or obscure, or inconsistent with any other part of his evidence, or with the statement made by him as aforesaid. The accused officer shall be allowed to cross-examine every witness giving evidence against him before the Board.

27. Evidence of other Misconduct to be reported.

If, in the course of the inquiry, it should appear to the Board that there is evidence to support an accusation or accusations of breach of duty or misconduct other than the accusation or accusations of which the accused shall have denied the truth, the Board shall report the same to the Governor in Council.

28. Notes to be kept.

The Chairman or other member of the Board shall take full notes of the evidence given before them, and of the information elicited by the Board during their inquiry, and the written statements or documents used in the course of the inquiry shall be attached to the proceedings.

29. Reports and Notes to be forwarded through the Responsible Minister.

When the inquiry is concluded the Board shall forward their report to the Governor in Council, through the Minister of the department at whose instance they were appointed, stating their opinion of the case, and adding any remarks they may think fit to make as to any matters connected with the inquiry. The notes of evidence and proceeding shall be forwarded with the report.

30. Proceedings of the Board may be Private.
Except when otherwise directed by the Governor in Council the proceedings of Boards of Inquiry shall be private.

31. Payment of Salary after Suspension.

Unless it shall be otherwise specially ordered by the Governor in Council, if any officer be suspended pending the investigation of any complaint or accusation against him, and he be afterwards dismissed from the Service, he shall receive no salary or pay from the date of his suspension; and, if he be reduced, the reduced rate of salary or pay shall take effect from the date of his suspension; and, if he be fully acquitted of the charges made against him he shall receive arrears of pay in full from the date of his suspension.

32. Penalties.

The commission by any officer of anything forbidden and the neglect or violation of anything enjoined in or by these regulations shall be deemed to be a breach of duty or misconduct that may render it unfit that the officer should remain in the Civil Service; and the penalty for such breach or misconduct shall be dismissal from the service, or reduction to a lower rank in the service, or to a lower salary within the class, or deprivation of future annual increment, or of leave of absence. All cases of dismissal and reduction under these regulations shall be notified in the Government Gazette.

33. Communications from one Department to another.

All communications from one department to mother shall be addressed by and to the Responsible Ministers of the said departments respectively, or by their direction.

34. Officers required to be acquainted with these Regulations.

All officers are required to acquaint themselves with these regulations. Officers at the head of the Various branches of each department are directed to send in requisitions for copies of these regulations for the use of all officers under their control; and Key are hereby required and enjoined to post, and to keep posted, a copy of these regulations in all offices and rooms to which officers of the Civil Service commonly have access, or in which they perform their duties. Officers at the head of the various branches of each department will be held responsible for the Enforcement of these regulations, and are expressly required to report to the Responsible Minister every breach; or neglect of any regulation, and all other acts of misconduct or defaults on the part of any officer under their control.

35. These regulations are in no way to affect duties, or responsibilities, or penalties now or hereafter to be imposed by law.

Travelling Allowances.

The following regulations respecting the issue of travelling allowances to public officers travelling on the public service, and entitled to travelling allowance, will henceforward be in operation:—

- Ministers and Judges of the Supreme Court to receive travelling allowance at the rate of two guineas per diem. Transport by land or sea to be provided by the Government. At sea an allowance of 5s. only per diem will be sanctioned.
- All other officers to receive travelling allowance at the daily rate of 3s. 6d. for every £100 of the salary received by them respectively. No allowance however, to be less than 7s. 6d. per diem. Transport by land or sea to be provided by Government. At sea an allowance of 2s. 6d. only per diem will be given.
- The Government or the officer to have the option, before the travelling commences, to arrange specially that, instead of receiving an allowance, the actual expenses reasonably incurred by such officer shall be paid by the Government on the production of proper vouchers. The Government to decide whether or not any expenses in respect of which a claim is made have been reasonably incurred.
- No travelling allowance to be paid unless the officer is absent at night from his usual residence but actual reasonable expenses will be paid.
- No forage allowance will be given or Government horses be lent to officers in the Civil Service. This is not to apply to those Civil servants for what forage allowance has been specially appropriated by the Legislature, or to persons in the Militia Service.
- When an officer is required to travel on public business not pertaining to his department a special rate of allowance will, if necessary, be fixed before the travelling commences.
- Coroners' mileage allowance, and any allowance fixed by law, will remain as at present.
- In the case of officers removed from one station to another the actual reasonable travelling expenses incurred for themselves and their families will be paid upon the production of proper vouchers, except
when that removal has been occasioned at their request, or in consequence of any fault on the part of the officer removed, or in course of promotion, in which case the Minister having control of the department to which the officer is attached will decide what allowance, if any, should under the particular circumstances be granted.

REGULATIONS FOR GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

Attendance.

1. The hours of attendance shall be from 8.30 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with an interval of one hour for dinner, except on Saturdays, when the hours shall be from 8.30 a.m. to 1 p.m. continuously. If, during the parliamentary session, it may be found necessary to organize a staff of night-hands, the hours of attendance shall be from six o'clock p.m. to two o'clock a.m., one hour being allowed for supper.

2. Punctual attendance must be strictly observed. The Overseer (or, in his absence, the Sub-Overseer) will be required carefully to note late arrivals and absentees, and report them to the Government Printer every morning by ten o'clock. Five minutes after the proper time will be considered late: when lateness in arriving extends to twenty minutes one hour will be deducted.

Overtime.

3. If at any time during the sitting of Parliament, or in the recess, the attendance of any portion of the staff should be required earlier in the morning or later at night than usual the extra time will be paid for as overtime, according to the following scale: Overseer and Sub-Overseers, 2s. per hour; Readers, 2s. per hour; Compositors, Pressmen, Machinist, and Engine-driver, 1s. 8d. per hour; Assistants, 1s. per hour.

Absence.

4. Any person who shall absent himself from the office must, not later than the following day, report in writing the cause of his absence; and if such absence be caused by sickness, and extend beyond two days, he must then forward a medical certificate.

Sickness.

5. In cases of sickness the Government Printer may, on receiving a certificate signed by a legally qualified medical practitioner, declaring the inability of any person to discharge his duties, grant to such person, for a period of three months, salary at the following rate: For the first month, full salary; after the first month, half salary.

6. The period over which the above payment! may extend shall not exceed three months in any one year; but, in the event of prolonged sickness, the Government Printer may bring any such special case under the notice of the Minister, should he consider such a course necessary.

7. Any person guilty of practising imposition on the plea of sickness shall be subject to instant dismissal, or, at the discretion of the Government Printer, to such other punishment as he may deem proper to inflict.

8. In cases of sickness the Government Printer may appoint one or more visitors, and may also require a medical certificate as often as he deems it necessary.

Leave of Absence.

9. Leave of absence for a period of one week in each year may be granted to every person during the recess, or at such time as may be deemed most convenient.

Qualification.

10. The privileges contained in the foregoing regulations, in respect to sickness and leave of absence, shall apply only to those who have been continuously employed in the department for two years or more.

[Extract from the New Zealand Gazette, 23rd July, 1885.]

Amended Regulations for Civil Service Travelling Allowances.

WM. F. DRUMMOND JERVOIS, GOVERNOR.

In pursuance and exercise of all powers and authorities vested in me in that behalf I, William Francis Drummond Jervois, the Governor of the Colony of New Zealand, do hereby make the following regulations respecting the travelling allowances of officers in the Civil Service of New Zealand, and do direct that the same
shall come into force on the first day of August next ensuing.

REGULATIONS.

• All salaried officers, except as hereinafter provided, shall receive travelling allowance for personal expenses at the daily rate of 3s. 6d. for every £100 of the salary received by them respectively: Provided, however, that the minimum allowance to be so paid shall be 10s. per diem, and the maximum Allowance, except as hereinafter specified, shall be £1 ds. per diem.

• These allowances shall be paid only where an officer is necessarily absent from his head-quarters at night; but, for all journeys where an officer is not obliged to be absent at night, actual expense! will be paid to an amount in no case exceeding the full daily rate above authorised for personal expenses, on production of a statement giving details of the nature of the charges, with dates, places and to whom paid, but without being obliged to produce receipts.

• The above regulations as to a maximum allowance shall not apply to the existing holders of office! entitled under the present system to higher rates, or to cases in which a temporarily higher rate shall be specially sanctioned by the Minister; nor shall anything in these regulations preclude the Minister from specially authorising temporary special rates or amounts for travelling, to meet special cases, as hitherto.

• Cost of transport by land or sea will be paid for by the Government, or, when paid for by the officer travelling, the same will be recouped to him on production of vouchers; but no vouchers for such expenses will be required for sums of less than 10s and vouchers for railway fares will not be required if the railway travelled upon and the extent of the journey is stated.

• For all days at sea, after the first day, an allowance of only 2s. 6d. per diem to be given. For the first day at sea the ordinary allowance may be drawn.

As witness the hand of His Excellency the Governor, this seventeenth day of July one thousand eight hundred and eighty five.

P. A. BUCKLET.

GEORGE DIDSBUY, Government Printer, Wellington,—1887.

[unclear: and Hon. Attendance.]

WM. F. DRUMMOND JERVOIS, Governor,

By his Deputy,

James Prendergast.

In pursuance and exercise of the powers conferred by "The Civil Service Act, 1866," and its amendments, and of all other powers and authorities vested in me in that behalf, I, James Prendergast, for and on behalf of His Excellency the Governor of the Colony of New Zealand, and as his duly-appointed Deputy, do hereby make the following regulations respecting the travelling allowances of officers in the Civil Service of New Zealand, and the hours of attendance, and do direct that the same shall come into force on the first day of February next ensuing.

REGULATIONS.

For Travelling Allowances.

1. All salaried officers, except as hereinafter provided, shall receive travelling allowance for personal expenses at the daily rate of ten shillings for officers receiving salaries not exceeding four hundred pounds per annum, and twelve shillings and sixpence for all other officers.

2. These allowances shall be paid only where an officer is necessarily absent from his head-quarters at night; but, for all journeys where an officer is not obliged to be absent at night, actual expenses will be paid to an amount in no case exceeding the full daily rate above authorised for personal expenses, on production of a statement giving details of the nature of the charges, with dates, places, and to whom paid, but without being obliged to produce receipts.

3. The above regulations shall not apply to cases in which a temporarily higher rate shall be specially sanctioned by a Minister; nor shall anything in these regulations preclude Ministers from specially authorising temporary special rates or amounts for travelling, to meet special cases, as hitherto.

4. Cost of transport by land or sea will be paid by the Government, or, when paid by the officer travelling, the same will be recouped to him on production of vouchers; but no vouchers for such expenses will be
For sums of less than ten shillings, and vouchers for railway fares will not be required if the railway travelled upon and the extent of journey is stated.

5. For all days at sea, after the first day, an allowance of only two shillings and sixpence per diem to be given. For the first day at sea, the ordinary allowance may be drawn.

For Hours of Attendance.

6. The hours of attendance for officers of the Civil Service will be from nine o'clock a.m. to one o'clock p.m., and from two o'clock p.m. to five o'clock p.m., except on Saturdays, when the office hours will be from nine o'clock a.m. to one o'clock p.m. Officers are expected to be in attendance in their offices during the whole of the hours specified above. The chief clerk of each department or office is to keep a book in which the hours of arrival and departure of each officer are to be noted, and he will be held responsible for their due attendance, and will furnish periodical reports thereon to the permanent head of the department.

As witness the hand of His Excellency Sir James Prendergast, Knight, Chief Justice,' as such Deputy of the said Governor as aforesaid, this hundred and eighty-eight.

H. A. Atkinson.

GEORGE DIDSUBY, Government Printer, Wellington,—1887.

SKETCH of the GEOLOGY of NEW ZEALAND.

[From the QUARTERLY JOURNAL of the GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY fo May 1885.]

By Captain F. W. HUTTON, E.G.S., Professor of Biology in the Canterbury College, University of New Zealand.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION.

SIZE for size there are few places in the world where such a variety of geological phenomena are gathered together as in New Zealand. Sedimentary rocks are represented of nearly all ages, from Archaean upwards, and all but the lowest have yielded fossils, in some places abundantly. We have metamorphic and eruptive rocks of nearly all kinds. We have volcanic cones of all sizes, from low hills to Ruapēhu

In all names of Maori origin pronounce the vowels as in Italian.

, more than 9000 feet in height; and we have them in all stages of degradation, from mere stumps to fresh scoria-cones, and one, Tongariro, still active. We have also solfataras and mud volcanoes, fumaroles, geysers, and hot springs in abundance. We have a mountain range with an alpine structure, and with glaciers and glacier lakes almost equalling those of Europe. But one thing is missing,—there are no lied Sandstones, either with or without salt and gypsum, and no magnesian limestones. New Zealand appears never to have been the site of great lacustrine deposits. In addition to all these advantages our geographical position is one of great interest. It is in New Zealand alone that we have any record of the ancient floras and faunas that overspread the South Pacific; and it is here we must look for evidence of the changes that have taken place in the physical geography and climate of this enormous area. Situated at the antipodes of Europe, any change of climate, brought about by shifting in position of the earth's axis, by changes in the obliquity of the ecliptic, or by any purely cosmical cause whatever, must find its parallel in New Zealand, and, consequently, New Zealand is to Europe a base of verification for all such-like hypotheses.

The geology of New Zealand has been studied for the last twenty-five years, and a great deal is known about it. Valuable memoirs on various detached districts will be found in the 'Quarterly Journal,' in Dr. Hochstetter's works, in the 'Transactions of the New Zealand Institute,' and in the records of the geological surveys of the colony. In the official 'Handbook of New Zealand' (2nd ed., Wellington, 1883), Dr. Hector has given a geological map of the island and an excellent summary of the distribution of the different formations and their principal fossil contents; but, up to the present, no one has attempted to describe the geology of New Zealand as a whole. I have therefore thought that, as during the last eighteen years I have travelled over the greater part of both the North and South Islands, from the Bay of Islands to Foveaux Straits, it might be useful to offer to the Society a slight sketch of the general geological structure of the country.

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For those places which I have not personally examined I have used the observations of others; but in all such cases I have given my authority and a reference to the publication in which it will be found. Several of the opinions expressed are not universally agreed to by other New-Zealand geologists. I merely state my own views, which may be wrong, but which have been arrived at by a long and conscientious study of New-Zealand
geology. The chief point of difference between the Survey and myself, I have already discussed in a paper which I have had the honour to submit to the Society


On this point I have always followed Dr. von Hochstetter, and have never consented to the removal of the Aotea series and the brown coals of the Waikato from the Oligocene into the Cretaceous-Tertiary formation of Dr. Hector, where they are grouped with the Saurian beds of the Waipara, and with the Coal-measures of Pákawau, near Nelson. The other points of difference are of minor importance; and I have not thought it advisable to discuss them here, as discussion would be out of place in a mere sketch like the present.

GROUPING OF THE ROCKS.

The geology of a district can be studied quite irrespective of any other part of the world. We can group its rocks by means of unconformities (stratigraphical and palaeontological) into systems and series, and after having made out its geological history, we can compare it with that of other parts of the world by endeavouring to refer the systems and series to their probable equivalents in Europe. On the other hand, we may commence by trying to refer the rocks of the district to their European equivalents, and refrain from giving names to the local systems. The first plan has been adopted by Dr. von Haast and by myself; but Dr. Hector prefers the second for the larger groups, giving local names only to the series. Of course there is no real difference between the two methods, it is merely a question of nomenclature; but in a district so far from Europe as is New Zealand, the second plan must for many years be more or less uncertain, and constantly liable to change as our palaeontological knowledge increases; and different geologists may call the same group of rocks by different names. The first plan is not open to this objection, and is, indeed, the same as that necessarily employed in Europe. As geological investigation advances, other systems and series may have to be added; but those that are once generally accepted remain for all time.

It is on this first plan, therefore, that I propose to group our rocks; but as the method has as yet been applied only to separate districts, many of the names used are synonymous, and it becomes necessary to introduce a modified scheme applicable to the whole of New Zealand. This I have attempted to do, and will state the considerations that have guided me in drawing it up. In the first place the names of the systems and series should be geographical, and taken from the most typical districts, where the rocks are best developed and contain the most fossils; but names already in pretty general use should not be altered, although some other locality might logically furnish a better name. In the second place the names of the systems and of the series should be of Maori origin, in order that they may be characteristic, and may convey to geologists in all parts of the world the idea that they belong to New Zealand. In the third place, priority in nomenclature should be allowed considerable weight. The following Table shows the arrangement I propose. The right-hand column gives the probable European equivalent, that is the probable age; but it must be understood that this is merely provisional and constantly liable to change. I have introduced among the systems two new names—Hokanui and Takaka, each of which represents a natural group of rocks to which no collective name has previously been applied; and yet names are necessary, for in many parts of New Zealand we can refer rocks to one or other of these systems, and yet, in the absence of fossils, it is impossible to say to which series they belong. The grouping of the Tertiary rocks is founded on that given in a former communication to the Society "Synopsis of the younger Formations of New Zealand." Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc. vol. xxix. p. 372.

Table of Sedimentary Formations in New Zealand.

In the South Island the New-Zealand Alps, dividing Canterbury from Westland, form a narrow range, which rises in Mt. Cook or Aorangi to an altitude of 12,349 feet. To the north and to the south the mountains bulge out, somewhat in the shape of a dumbbell, the handle being bordered on the west by the plains of Westland, and on the east by the plains of Canterbury. The southern end of the dumbbell is also notched by the plains of Southland. The mountains are formed by a main anticlinal curve (fig. 1, a a) running from the neighbourhood of Lake Wánaka, in Otágo, in a north-easterly direction to Tasman's Bay, and forming the ge-anti-clinal of New Zealand. The greater part of the west side of this anticlinal has been removed by denudation in Westland, so that the ridge of the Alps no longer coincides with the axis of the curve, but forms part of its south-easterly face. On the Canterbury side the rocks are thrown into three broad synclines (fig. 1, b, c, d), separated by two anticlines (fig. 1, e, f) running more or less at right angles to the main anticline. The most southerly of these synclines (b) goes from the neighbourhood of Palmerston, in Otágo, in a northerly direction to Lake Púkaki; the second (c) from the Gawler Downs, in South Canterbury, in a westerly direction to the junction of the Havelock and Clyde rivers, in the Upper Rangitata; the third (d) runs from Waiau in a northerly direction to the neighbourhood of the Wairau Gorge, in Nelson Province. The secondary anticline (e) runs from Hunters Hills, in South Canterbury, northerly to the Two Thumb range, dipping to the north. Mt. Cook is placed at the point where the synclines b and c and the anticline e meet (fig. 1, x). The anticline f runs from the gorge of the Ashley in a westerly direction. In Otágo the main anticline turns sharply to the south, dipping slightly in that direction, and on its westerly slope a syncline (fig. 1, g) runs from the Greenstone River, west of Lake Wakatipú, through the Hokanúi Mountains to Catlin's River, following with considerable exactness the direction of the Otágó anticline. In the northern part of the South Island the main anticline, turning more to the north, runs out at Tasman's Bay, and is flanked on the north-west by a syncline (h) passing through Snowdon and the Anatoki Mountains to Golden Bay; and on the south-east by another syncline (i) near Nelson, followed by an anticline (k) which runs from the neighbourhood of Top-house in a north-easterly direction through Picton and Queen Charlotte Sounds.

All the sedimentary rocks, up to the Hokanúi System inclusive, partake in these flexures. The Waípara System is also, to some extent, involved in Otágo and Nelson; while the rocks of the Oamarú and younger systems either retain their original plane of deposition or are occasionally locally disturbed. These last occupy, for the most part, valleys, or wrap round spurs of the older rocks. A large fault (fig. 1, m) occurs in the west part of Otágó, running in a nearly north and south direction through Lake Te Anau, and throwing up the Manapoúrí System to the west.

'Geology of Otago,' p. 23, Dunedin: 1875.

No clear evidence of the age of this "Te Anau fault" has as yet been obtained, as the junction between the Manapoúrí and Maítai Systems has not been closely studied; but it appears to have been formed before the deposition of the Maítai System.

The North Island is very different. A narrow ridge, rising in the Kaimánawa Range, east of Lake Taupo, to 5000 feet or more, runs from Wellington in a north-easterly direction, to near the East Cape, attaining here also, in Hikurangi, a height of 5500 feet. It is bordered on the south-east by hilly country, occasionally attaining nearly to the altitude of the main range, and on the northwest by country which is broken, but generally low, with the exception of three great volcanic cones—Mt. Egmont (8280), Ruapêhu (9195), and Tongaríro (6500)—near the central part of the island. The rocks also differ much from those of the South Island. The crystalline schists of the Tákaka System, which are so conspicuous on the south side of Cook's Straits, suddenly disappear and are quite unknown in the north. The main range is formed by rocks belonging to the Maítai and Hokanúi Systems, smothered on each side by Tertiary beds, through which rise, at intervals, throughout the Auckland Province, isolated ridges and peaks of the older Maítais and Hokanúis.

This sudden change at Cook's Straits strongly suggests the presence of a fault with the up throw to the south, although it is not possible to prove its existence. The rocks of the Oamarú and younger systems are found...
at nearly equal elevations on both islands; but are higher in the central part of the North Island than elsewhere. On the contrary, the rocks of the Waipara and older systems go to considerably greater heights in the South than in the North Island, consequently the "Cook's Strait fault," if it exists, was probably formed in the interval between the deposition of the "Waipara and Oamarú Systems, the downthrow being to the north.

Rocks belonging to the Hokanúi System are found on the eastern side of the Maitais in the Ruahine range in Wellington, and in the Eaukamara range near the East Cape. In the Kawhia and Raglan districts, in the Auckland Province, they lie on the western side of the Maitais. So probably the ge-anticlinal of the South Island runs through the centre of the North Island from Wanganúi to the Bay of Plenty.

All the rock systems, up to the Hokanúis inclusive, have much the same lithological characters throughout New Zealand, and can be broken up into series, which are chronologically distinct. They may be called "continental formations," that is, rocks formed on the shore of a continent with large rivers. All the rock systems above the Hokanúis are, on the contrary, very variable in lithological character in different localities, even when not far apart; the only exceptions being a few limestones, probably the relics of coral reefs. These may be considered as "insular formations," that is, as having been deposited round the margin of islands, from which ran no great rivers. It is impossible, at any rate at present, to divide these latter systems into series which are in all cases chronologically distinct. The series here are geographical, and overlap each other; but I have to some extent indicated their probable relations, in the table of formations.

Eruptive rocks cover but a small area in the South Island. Isolated exposures of granite occur along the ge-anticlinal axis from Paringa River in Westland to Lake Rotoiti in Nelson, and in a few other places west of the axis, the largest area being in the southwest of Otágo, at Preservation and Chalky Sounds. On the east there are a few patches of volcanic rocks of younger date. In the North Island, also, volcanic rocks are rare on the east side of the main range; but on the western side, from the centre of the island to Auckland, they cover more than half the country, and appear again in great force further north, between Hokianga and the Bay of Islands. There is no granite in the North Island.

Dr. Hector has estimated the percentage of area covered by these different formations as follows

Good roofing-slate is found in the Tákaka System in Otágo; statuary marble in the Manapoúri System at Caswell Sound; lithographic limestone, with rocks belonging either to the Waipara or Oamarú Systems, south of Bruce Bay, on the west coast of the South Island. Coal in thin beds is found in the Mataúra Series, but there are no workable seams older than the Matakéa Series at the base of the Waípara System. From the date of the Hokanúi System to the present day land has existed continuously in New Zealand, and no doubt decaying vegetable matter has constantly accumulated in favourable localities. But it was only when these accumulations were covered up by deposition that they have been preserved. This occurred in two ways:—(1) By marine deposits on subsidence of the land; and (2) by lacustrine and fluviatile deposits. Consequently we find coals or lignites at the base of the Waípara, Oamarú, Paroóra, and Wanganúi Systems covered by marine beds; and also we have coals and lignites of intermediate age covered by fresh-water beds. These latter, however, we may for convenience group in each case in the system to which the overlying series belongs, although there may be an unconformity between them. The New-Zealand coals, therefore, belong to what I have called insular formations. They do not form large basins, as in England, N. America, or Australia but occur wrapping round hills formed by older rocks, and are consequently almost always worked by day-levels and not by shafts.

**DESCRIPTIVE GEOLOGY.**

**Manapoúri System.**

This system is largely developed on the west coast of Otágo, from Preservation Inlet to Milford Sound, extending inland to Lake To Anau. Elsewhere it is only known on the west side of Tasman's Bay in Nelson, from Motueka to Separation Point (Ríwaka series); but it may probably occur in Westland also.

The rocks consist of grey and red gneiss, garnet-bearing schist, hornblende-schist, mica-schist, quartz-schist, and occasionally granular limestone. Scales of graphite have been found in the mica-schist at Dusky Sound. The beds are not contorted, and the dip is almost constantly westerly, varying from 45° to 80°, the only easterly dip recorded being at the marble quarries on the north side of Caswell Sound


; and here this dip seems to be local, for the marble on the south side of the Sound dips S.W., 45°. We can
only escape from the conclusion that these rocks have a thickness of many miles by supposing either that the piano of foliation does not always coincide with the original plane of bedding, or that a series of reverse folds occur, neither of which has as yet been proved.

**Táhaka System.**

This system covers a large extent of country in Collingwood County, and can be traced south, continuously through Mt. Arthur, Merino Mts., Lyell Mts., Brunner Mts., Victoria Mts., Werner Mts., and along the westerly base of the New Zealand Alps into Otágo, where it again expands considerably, and turning eastward with the anticlinal axis, covers the greater part of the interior of that province, reaching the sea in the neighbourhood of Dunedin. The centre of the secondary anticlinal fold in S. Canterbury (fig. 1, e) and the one in Marlborough (k) are also occupied by these rocks.

In the north-west part of the Tákaka System can be divided into three series, all of which appear to be conformable. The lowest of these is the *Mt. Arthur Series*, which consists principally of crystalline limestone with bituminous and micaceous schists. This series has yielded to Mr. A. McKay, the indefatigable assistant of the Geological Survey, a few Crinoids and a Coral. The middle or *Aorere Series* is formed principally by blue slates, but also contains sandstones as well as felspathic and quartzose schists. In the slates, Mr. J. L. Morley and Mr. S. H. Cox have collected Graptolites, some of which appear to be identical with Australian Ordovician forms. The upper or *Baton-River Series* consists of calcareous slates and argillaceous limestones with slates and sandstones. The following list of the "more important or abundant" fossils of this series is given by Mr. McKay (Reports of Geological Survey, 1878-9, p. 126):

- Calymene Blumenbacliii.
- Homalotus Knightii.
- Orthoceras.
- Murchisonia terebralis.
- Avicula lamnoniensis.
- Pterinea spinosa.
- Pterinea radiata.
- Rhynchonella Wilsoni.
- Stricklandia lyrata.
- Atrypa reticularis.
- Orthis.
- Strophomena corrugatella.
- Chonetes striatella.
- It also contains many corals and corallines.

Fossils of the Baton-river Series have been found as far south as Reefton, and in addition *Spirifera vespertilio* and *Homalotus ex-pansi*, Hector Trans. N. Z. Institute, vol. ix. p. 602 (1877).

but beyond that the metamorphism gets more pronounced, and the rocks of the system pass altogether at the base into chlorite-schist and quartzose mica-schist, with occasional beds of graphite (Wánaka Series), and in the upper parts into phyllites with clay-slate and quartzite (Kakanúi Series). No calcareous rocks are known in the south.

The thickness of this system in Otágo cannot, I think, be less than 100,000 feet; but in the Nelson Province Dr. Hector estimates it at from 15,000 to 18,000 feet only.

The junction of the Tákaka with the underlying Manapouři System can be studied in the Ríwaka Mountains, west of Tasman's Bay, and here Mr. S. H. Cox has shown a complete unconformity between the two (fig. 2, b and c).

**Fig. 2.—Digagrammatic Section from the West Coast of New Zealand to Tasman' Bay.**

* a. Granite.
It is very remarkable that in the Province of Nelson, where there are several exposures of granite in connection with this system, and where the rocks are, in places, violently disturbed, metamorphic action has been much less than in Otágo, where the rocks lie nearly flat and no granitic areas occur. This militates much against Mr. Mallet's idea that the heat of metamorphism is due to crushing. On the other hand, the enormous thickness of the system in Otago and the gradual decrease of metamorphic action upward make it probable that, in this case, the metamorphism is due to the internal heat of the earth.

**Maítai System.**

This system is found in the South Island, flanking the Takaka System on both sides of the main anticlinal (a, fig. 1), except in Westland, where it has been almost entirely removed. In the North Island it forms the chief part of the main range from Wellington to East Cape (Rimutáka Series), as well as most of the outcrops of old sedimentary rocks in the Province of Auckland. The rocks are chiefly argillites, red and black slates, and grey and green sandstones, with occasional beds of limestone in the South Island. Thick masses of greenstone-ash are found interbedded with the slates and sandstones in many places in New Zealand, but these rocks appear to be local.

The thickness is estimated by Dr. Hector at from 7,000 to 10,000 feet; but it is very difficult to form an opinion, as the stratification is often obscure.

That an unconformity exists between this and the Takaka System is evident. In Nelson it has been shown to rest indifferently on the Aorere and the Mt. Arthur Series. Cox, Reports Geological Survey, 1881, p. 47. Up. Devonian, a., the Baton-river Series being absent (fig. 2, d). In Westland, Mr. Cox describes these rocks as quite unconformable to the schists. Reports Geological Survey, 1874-76, p. 68, and sections, ; and at Reefton they have been shown to be unconformable to the Baton-river Series (= Reefton Series) by Dr. Hector, Mr. Cox, and Mr. McKay. At the Tapanuì Mts. in Otágo, the system rests partly on the Wánaka, and partly on the Kakariki Series, while in the West-coast Sounds it appears to rest upon the Manapúori System. But notwithstanding this unconformity, it is by no means easy to draw the line between this and the Takaka System in Otágo; for the metamorphic action has passed upwards through both, assimilating to some extent along the boundary the rocks of each system.

In consequence of the rocks being generally unfossiliferous, it has not yet been found possible to break up this system into distinct series. According to Dr. Hector, the following fossils occur in limestone at the Dun Mountain, near the base of the system:—*Spirifer bisulcati, Spirifer glabra, Productus brachythœrus*, *Cyathophyllum* and *Cyathocrinus*. In the upper part of the system the only fossils known are the tubes of two or more species of Tubicolous Annelides, perhaps *Cornulites* See McKay, Rep. Geol. Surv. 1879-80, p. 90.

The Rimutáka Series of the North Island no doubt belongs to the Maítai System. The Te Anau Series of Dr. Hector is now considered by the Geological Survey as forming the base of the Maítai System, but formerly it was placed at the base of the Hokanui System. Reports of Geological Survey, 1876-7, p. v. It is said to consist of "an enormous thickness of greenstone breccias, aphanite slates, and diorite sandstones, with great contemporaneous flocs and dykes of diorite, serpentine, syenites, and felsite"

'Handbook of New Zealand.' 1883, p. 36.

; and it appears to me to be merely the igneous rocks belonging to the system, and not to represent any particular horizon. I say this, however, with much hesitation, because Mr. S. H. Cox, to whose opinion I attach great weight, differs from me on this point and agrees with Dr. Hector.

Remarkable beds of manganese ore, generally associated with red jasperoid slates, are found in several places in the Auckland Province and also near Wellington. In many respects these rocks remind one of the deposits now being formed in the deeper parts of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and the absence of fossils strengthens the impression.

This system is the same as my "Kaikoura formation." The "Westland formation," and the lower part of the "Mount Torlesse formation" of Dr. von Haast also belong to it. The rocks called "Maítai slates" by Dr. von
Hochstetter are seen in the neighbourhood of Nelson to overlie rocks containing Monotis belonging to the Wairóa Series; and in addition to this, Dr. Hector collected from them, in 1866, fossils which were said to be Inoceramus.

Reports of Geological Survey, 1870-1, p. 113, and 1878-9, p. 117.

For these reasons I have, in my report on the Geology of Otágo (1875), associated Dr. Hochstetter's Maítai slates with the Wairoa Series; and Dr. Hector in 1877 considered them to be the same as the Kaihíku Series of the Nuggets and Mt. Potts.


But on the other hand these slates resemble in lithological character those found in other parts of New Zealand underlying the Hokanúi System; and there is therefore some doubt as to the true position of the Maítai slates. Consequently I should have preferred to retain my name of " Kaikoura " for this system; but the term Maítai has been largely used by the Officers of the Survey for the present group of rocks, and I do not wish to destroy this approach to uniformity by insisting on the desirability of employing some other name. I am the more ready to do so, as I think it probable that the superior position of the Maítai slates to the Wairóa Series near Nelson may be due to inversion.


and that the supposed Inoceromus may belong to some other genus of the same family.

**Hokanúi System.**

This system is found in the *North Island* between Kawhia and the Waikato, and again at Port Waikato (Putatáka Series).

Rocks of this age were said by Dr. Hector to occur north of Auckland near Mahurangi (Geol. Rep. 1874-6, p. vi), and doubtfully at the island of Kawau (Geol. Rep 1868-9, p. 45); but this has not been confirmed by Mr Cox (Geol. Rep. 1879-80, p. 14).

It also occurs at Wellington, in the Ruahine range, and again in the Raukamára range, near the East Cape. In the *South Island* it is found on the eastern side of the ge-anticline, outside the Maítai rocks, and occupies part of the synclines, b, c, and d, already mentioned (fig. 1), as well as the Southland syncline (g). In Westland and in the north-west of the Nelson Province it is quite unknown. A small patch is found near Nelson (Wairóa Series), but the two largest areas covered by this system are on the northeast and on the south of the island.

Commencing in the neighbourhood of Kaikoura peninsula, it skirts the main range to the Hanmer plains, sending northwards a long tongue towards the Wairau gorge. To the south it reaches the Canterbury Plains at the gorge of the Ashley. It reappears in the Malvern Hills, and in the north branch of the river Ashburton, whence it runs southwards to the neighbourhood of Mt. Peel, extending inland through the Clent Hills and Rangitáta River as far as the junction of the Clyde and the Havelock, near Mt. Potts. Another exposure of these rocks occurs somewhere near the Mackenzie Plains, in the centre of the basin formed by the main anticline and its easterly extension in Otago (a, a, fig. 1), and the secondary anticline (e) running from Hunters Hills towards Mt. Cook. Mr. A. McKay has proved the existence of this exposure by finding fossils belonging to the system in boulders in the Waitaki.


; but the rocks have not yet been detected in situ. The southern development of the system is on the coast between the rivers Clutha and Mataúra, passing inland through the Hokanúi Mountains to beyond Mt. Hamilton. This is the best locality for making out the series of rocks forming the system, a work which has been ably accomplished by Mr. S. H. Cox


The rocks are principally blue slates and green or brown sandstones, with beds of conglomerate sometimes passing into breccias. There are no limestones. In the lower series beds of greenstone ash occur, and in the upper thin seams of coal. It is a littoral formation, plant-remains being found throughout. The thickness has been estimated both by Mr. Cox and by myself at between 20,000 and 25,000 feet in Southland.

This system is undoubtedly unconformable to the Maítai System, but it not easy to get good sections to prove this. The best is perhaps in Southland, at the Takitimú Mts., where I reported an

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**Fig. 3.—Section from Oreti River to the Takitimú Mountains.**
Maítai System.

Waípara System.

Hokanúi System.

Oamarú System.

unconformity in 1872

, and this has since been confirmed by Mr. Cox

(fig. 3, e). In no place, however, is it known to rest on the Maítai System.

The Hokanúi System forms the upper part of Dr. von Haast's "Mt. Torlesse formation." It has been divided into a considerable number of series, all conformable to each other, but distinguished by their fossils. The fossils, however, have not been described; and, although it may very probably be true that all these series will be found to be necessary, at present it is impossible to recognize them in the field, and it therefore seems to me preferable to reduce the series to three at the most. The Kaihíku, Series forms the base of the system; but fossils are rare, and I doubt much whether it can be separated from the Wairóa Series. The only characteristic fossil mentioned by Dr. Hector is *Trigonotreta undulata*. Labyrinthodont teeth and *Glossopteris* are found both here and in the next higher series. Remains of what appears to be an *Ichthyosaurus Ichthyosaurus australis*, Hector, Trans. N. Z. Institute, vi. p. 355.

have been found near Mt. Potts, in S. Canterbury, in beds recognized by the Geological Survey as belonging to the Kaihíku Series. Dr. Hector considers this series of Permian age; at the same time he notices the absence of "the usual Palæozoic elements of a Permian fauna," and, I may add, of a Permian flora also.

The Wairóa Series is well characterized by the following:—

- Belemnites (?) otapiriensis, *Hector*.
- Monotis salinaria, *var. richmondiana*,
- *Zittel*.
- Halobia Lommelli, *Wissm*.
- Mytilua problematicus, *Zittel*.
- Spirigeria Wreyi, *Suess*.

There are also several Spirifers which are referred by Dr. Hector to new genera or subgenera (not yet described) called *Clavigera, Rastelliyera, and Pstioidea*.

Dr. Hector also mentions *Nautilus mesodiscus, Nautilus goniatites, Pleuro-tomaria ornata*, and *Tancredia truncata*.

Among the plants are *Dammara fossilis* (Ung.), *Zamites, Rhacho-phyllum, Glossopteris*, and *Neuropteris*.

- The Mataura Series is characterized by
- Ammonites novo-zelandicus, *Haver*.
- Belemnites aucklandicus, *Haver*.
- —Hochstetteri, *Hector*.
- Belemnites catlinensis, *Hector*.
- Inoercamus Haasti, *Hoehst*.
- Aucella plicata, *Zittel*.

The plants are *Poly podium Hochstetteri*, Ung., *Asplenium palæopteris*, Ung., *Taniiopteris linearis*, and *Macroteniopteris lata*.

Dr. Hector also mentions *Trigonia costata, Spiriferina rostrata, Epithyris, Cycadites, Echinostrobus*, and *Camptopteris*.

Waípara System.

In the *South Island* this system extends, with a few interruptions, from Cape Campbell in Cook's Straits to the river Ashburton in S. Canterbury (Amúri Scries), and an isolated patch occurs in the Trelissick basin on the upper Waimakariri. In Otágo it includes the coal-measures of Shag-point and the Horse Range (Matakéa Series), as also the coal of Mt. Hamilton and possibly a small patch on the north shore of Lake Wakatipu. In the Nelson Province it includes the coal-measures of Pákawau, and the bituminous coals of the Buller and Greymouth. In the *North Island* Mr. McKay has recognized the system on the east coast of Wellington.
Reports of Geological Survey, 1878-9, p. 79.

and it apparently covers a large extent of country in the Waiapu district, in which oil-springs are situated (Awanúi Series); and again on the Wairoa river north of Kaipara Harbour

Cox, Reports of Geological Survey, 1879-80, p. 22.

in Auckland. But until the fossils from these North-Island localities have been carefully compared with those from the typical districts at Amúri and Waípara in the South Island, it is impossible to feel quite certain about their age.

The thickness of the system at Amúri Bluff is estimated by Mr. McKay at about 1600 feet. I considered the Matakéa Series at Shag Point to be between 6000 and 7000 feet. The strata are usually much disturbed except in North Canterbury. In Marlborough they go, in Benmore, to an altitude of 4360 feet. In Buller county they form mountains 5000 or 6000 feet high, and at Mt. Hamilton in Otágo they occur at an elevation of 3700 feet. In the North Island the greatest elevation of the system is in the East Cape district, and perhaps does not exceed 2000 feet.

This system is quite unconformable to the Hokanúi System in Marlborough and Canterbury. The coal-measures of the Malvern Hills and of Mt. Hamilton (fig. 3, f) rest on the Hokanúi System; those of Shag Point, the Grey, and the Buller, rest on the Maitai System; and those of Pákawau in Nelson on the Tákaka System, showing a complete stratigraphical unconformity. The palæontological break is probably equally great, but it has not yet been proved.

The upper part of the system in Marlborough and Canterbury consists of white argillaceous limestone (Amúri limestone) often containing flints. Dr. Hector calls it a deep-sea deposit; but it must have been formed within a few miles of land, and in the Kaikoura peninsula has thin bands of fine conglomerate running through it. Near Oxford, in Canterbury, a chalky limestone occurs which, according to Dr. Hector, is "made up chiefly of minute shells of Foraminifera"


, but I can find none in it. Although it is remarkably pure, it must have been formed close to land, as the Oxford Hills behind it rise to a considerable height. It is no doubt the remains of an old coral reef; but as no fossils have been found in it, it is uncertain whether it belongs here or to the Oamarú System.

In the typical district remains of marine Saurians belonging to the genera Plesiosaurus, Mauisaurus, Taniwhasaurus, Polycotyles, and Leiodon have been found and have been described by Sir R. Owen


and by Dr. Hector


. Among the Mollusca are Belemnites australis, Phillips


, Conchothyra parasitica, McCoy

See Reports of Geological Survey, 1873-4, p. 37, footnote.

, a genus allied to Pugnellus, Conrad, of the North-American Cretaceous, Inoceramus, Trigonia sulcata, Hector


, and many others not yet described. The plants found at the base of the system at Waípara are chiefly dicotyledonous angiosperms and Dammara. From Pákawau Dr. Hochstetter obtained Equisetites, Neuropteris, and either Zamites or Phenicites; but leaves of dicotyledonous angio- sperms also occur there


. The reptilian remains occur above the beds with dicotyledonous leaves at the Waípara, and they occur above the beds with Belemnites australis at Amúri Bluff: but the relation of the Belemnite beds to the leaf-beds has not yet been made out. Mr. A. McKay reports having found Ammonites at the Ten-mile Creek near Greymouth


, and also near Waimirima, between Cape Kidnappers and Cape Turnagain on the east coast of Wellington Rep. Geol. Surv. 1874-6, p. 45

. He also mentions finding a skeleton, apparently reptilian, at Lake Wakatipú, from which "fragments of a jaw with long slender Plesiosaurus-like teeth" were obtained


. In the Otágo Museum there is a fragment of an Ammonite from the Matakéa Series near Shag Point Geology of Otago, p. 45.


; and Mr. Cox reports Inoceramus from the Wairóa river, Kaípara Harbour
A "smooth Inoceramus" is also mentioned by Mr. McKay as occurring in many places between East Cape and Cape Palliser.

Rep. Geol. Surv. 1877-8, p. 22

No undoubted Mesozoic fossils have been reported from any other of the districts considered by the Geological Survey as "Crctaceotertiary." According to Dr. Hector "no trace of a Belemnite possessing the upper part of its guard or phragmocone has been discovered in any bed above the black grit"


that is about the middle of the Amúri Series. But, he says, smooth fusiform bodies, with a minute depression or perforation at the lower end, which exfoliate from the central portion of the guard of \textit{B. australis}, have been found at Green Island, near Dunedin, at Waitaki, and at Mt. Hamilton in Otágo. He further says that these bodies form the \textit{Acanthocomax (? Actinocamax)} of Miller, and have frequently been mistaken for spines of \textit{Cidaris}. But as no whole guard of a Belemnite, even without the phragmocone, has as yet been found at any of these localities, nor in any rock supposed to be of the same age, the nature of this fossil must, for the present, be considered doubtful. The rocks in which it occurs at Green Island and at the Waitaki, I consider, from other palaeontological evidence, to belong to the Oamarú System. This fossil is identical with the "pseudo-belemnite" described by Dr. Mantell from what are known as the "Hutchinson Quarry beds " at Oamarú

Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc. vi. p. 329. The Ototara limestone of Mr. Mantell included the Hutchinson Quarry beds with abundant shells and corals, as well as the Oamaru building-stone.

Oamarú System.

In the \textit{North Island} this system occurs in many places north of Auckland and all down the west coast from Port Waikato to Mokau (Aotéa Series). On the east coast it appears to be largely developed in the northern part, of Hawke's Bay, extending inland to Lake Waikaremoana

Cox, Reports of Geological Survey, 1874-6, p. 102.

... and eastward to Poverty Bay (Turanganui Series); but the fossils require more examination before the proper position of this series can be ascertained. In the Wellington Province it has only been recognized in the neighbourhood of Cape Palliser


Valuable seams of coal lie conformably below marine sandstones belonging to this system at the Bay of Islands, and at Whangarei. The coal-beds of Drury and the Waikato underlie the system unconformably, but they probably belong to it

Trans. N. Z. Institute, iii. p. 244.

In the \textit{South Island} it occurs at Tākaka and Tata Island in Golden Bay, and extends down the west coast for some distance from Cape Farewell; it is found again from Cape Foulwind to Greymouth. On the east side of the island, commencing at Cook's Straits, it occurs at intervals along the eastern flanks of the mountains all through Marlborough, Canterbury, Otágo, and Southland to the Wniarui river. Some of the inland valleys on both sides of the Alps are also partly filled with rocks belonging to this system. Valuable seams of brown coal are found at Dunedin, Tokomairiro, Kaitangata, and Nightcap Hills in Southland. In Nelson Province the brown coals of West Wanganui probably belong here, as also may much of the brown coal up the Buller river.

I have, in another communication to the Society

"On the Geological Relations of the Weka-pass Stone."

... given my reasons for thinking that this system is unconformable to the Waipara System in the northern part of Canterbury. No well-defined junction is found in Otágo: but both at the Horse Ranges and at Mt. Hamilton (fig. 3, \textit{f} and \textit{g}), the general geological structure of the country leaves no doubt that the two are also unconformable there

Geology of Otago, p. 50.

... There is no published section showing the relation between the two systems at Greymouth. The system attains an elevation of about 4000 feet in the North Island, east of Lake Waikaremoana. In the South Island it probably never exceeds 2500 feet.

Remains of Cetaceans have been found at Caversham

Including a skull in the Otago Museum.

... near Dunedin, at Weka Pass, and many other places. A Zeuglodont (\textit{Kehenodon onemata}, Hector

has been found at the Waitaki. A gigantic penguin (Palaeudypetes antarcticus, Huxley
), occurs at Oamaru in the Ototara building-stone; a splendid specimen from here is in the Otágo Museum; also
at the Curiosity Shop on the Rakaia River, at Treliissick Basin, at Amári Bluff, and near Brighton on the west coast

‡‡. A crab (Harpactocarcinus tumidus, H. Wood-ward), originally obtained by Mr. McKay near Brighton
, has also been found in greensands at Wharekauri in the Waítaki

Of the Mollusca, the most interesting are Aturia ziczac, Sow., var. australis, McCoy, Mitra, Marginella,
Struthiolaria senex., Hutton, and Pholacomya. About 9 or 10 per cent, of the species appear to be recent. The
Echinodermata have been considered to have a Cretaceous facies, and this is to some extent true if they are
compared with European forms; but it is not true if the comparison be made, as it ought to be, with the
Australian Echinodermata.
The occurrence of Nummulites has been reported in the North Island from Waipu
, Lower Waikato
, Poverty Bay and the East Cape district
, and from the east coast of Wellington
, In the South Island, from the Greymouth district
, and between Westport and Cape Foulwind
But I doubt much if any true Nummulite has ever been found in New Zealand. At any rate I have never
seen one, although I have been shown the so-called Nummulites in the Wellington Museum.

Unger has described in the 'Reise der Novara,' several leaves belonging to the genera Fagus,
Loranthophyllum, Myrtifolium, and Phyllites, brought by Dr. von Hochstetter from Drury and Waikato. In the
same publication, Dr. Zittel has described Mollusca and Echinodermata from Papakura, Waikato South Head,
Motupípi, and Cape Farewell, all of which belong to this system. The Foraminifera of Raglan (=Waingaróa) are
described by Dr. Stache. Other Bryozoa, Foraminifera, and Entomostraca from the Ototara Limestone are
mentioned by Dr. Mantell
, and some corals and Bryozoa are described by the Rev. Tenison-Woods

The following are the most characteristic fossils:—

- Pleurotoma hebes, Hutton
  For descriptions see 'Catalogue of the Tertiary Mollusca and Echinodermata of New Zealand,'
  Wellington, 1873. The plates mentioned in the preface are not yet published.

- Struthiolaria senex, Hutton.
- Scalaria Browni, Zittel.
- —rotunda, Hutton.
- Dentalium tenue, Hutton.
- Panopea plicata, Hutton.
- Pecten Williamsoni, Zittel.
- —Fischeri, Zittel.
- —Hutchinsoni, Hutton.
- —athleta, Zittel.
- Lama lævigata, Hutton.
- —paleta, Hutton.
- Lovenia formosa (Zittel).
Macropneustes spatangiformis,
*Hutton*.
Meoma Crawfordi, *Hutton*.
Schizaster rotundatus, *Zittel*.
Isis dactyla, *Tenison-Woods*.
Flabellum laticostatum, *Tenison-Woods*.

*Pecten Hochstetteri*, *Zittel*, and *P. Ziltelli*, *Hutton*, are also characteristic, but they both pass up into the Pareóra System.

**Pareóra System.**

In the *North Island* this system is widely distributed in the north from Cape Rodney, Kawau, and Kaipara Harbour to Auckland, where it forms the cliffs round Waitemáta Harbour, and at Orakei Bay (Waitemáta Series); and extends south to the Waikato. Its only other occurrence on the west coast is at the White Cliffs in Taranáki. On the east coast it covers a large district between East Cape and Poverty Bay (Táwhiti Series); and commencing again at Napier, it is largely developed all down the coast to Cook’s Straits (Ahuríri Series). In the centre of the island it is found in the upper parts of the Rangitiki, Wanganúi, and Waitotára Rivers. In the *South Island* it is found on the west coast at Nelson (the cliffs), and from Reef ton to Hokítika (Kaníeri Series). It is much better developed on the east coast; in the Awatére valley in Marlborough (Awatére Series), between the Hurinúi and Wai para rivers, in the Trelissick basin, and again in S. Canterbury and Otága from the Rangitata to Moëraki. A few patches occur in S. Otága and in Southland, and it is extensively developed on the cast side of Lake Te Anau. It also occurs at the Chatham Islands.

In the South Island the upper part of the system is often formed by thick beds of gravel. This is best seen near Nelson, where, in the Port Hills, gravels are distinctly interbedded with sandstone containing Parcóra fossils; and these gravels, sometimes cemented into conglomerates, pass inland to Lake Rotoiti, attaining, in the Moutére and Wai-iti hills, an elevation of 2334 feet.

*Reports of Geological Survey, 1873-74, p. 49.* The same may be seen in the railway-cutting on the north side of Weka Pass in Canterbury.

This system attains, in the South Island, an elevation of 3000 feet at Mt. Pleasant, near Lake Te Anau, and also in several valleys in the centre of the New-Zealand Alps. In the North Island it goes to 4000 feet between Napier and the Mohaka River. The rocks, although thrown into rolling curves, are not violently disturbed except locally, and especially in the neighbourhood of volcanic rocks. There is a remarkable instance in the cliffs near Auckland. This section is hard to understand, but it is quite clear. The Parcóra System has been shown by myself

*Trans. N. Z. Inst. iii. p. 244.*

and by Mr. Cox


, to lie quite unconformably on the Oamarú System in the Auckland Province (fig. 4, *h* and *g*). In the East-Cape district, Dr. Hector and Mr. McKay show it unconformable to the Turan-ganúi Series


, In N. Canterbury no unconformity has been made out. In S. Canterbury Dr. von Haast reports unconformity between the two

*Geology of Canterbury and Westland, p. 318.*

, and in Otága the unconformity is usually well marked

*Geology of Otago, p. 58.*

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**Fig. 4.—Section from near Howivk, Auckland, to the Wairóa River.**

Howick. Turanga. Wairóa River.

*d*. Maítai System.

*g*. Oamarú System.

*h*. Parcóra System.

The humerus of a Porpoise (*Phocænopsis Mantelli*, Huxley

was found by Mr. Mantell at Awamóa, near Oamarú. He also found a fragment of a bird's bone, 1½ inch in diameter, in a septarium from Hampden (=Onekakára)


, and this, from its size, must have belonged to a Moa. Teeth of the huge Miocene shark, \textit{Carcharodon megalodon}, Owen, have been found near East Cape. But the system is chiefly characterized by its numerous species of \textit{Struthiolaria}. The other interesting Mollusca are \textit{Polytropa}, \textit{Siphonalia}, \textit{Cominella}, \textit{Turbinella}, \textit{Ancillaria}, \textit{Conus}, \textit{Sigaretus}, \textit{Xenophora}, \textit{Rotella}, \textit{Monodonta}, \textit{Crassatella}, \textit{Perna}, \textit{Trigonia}, \textit{Limopsis}, and \textit{Solenella}. \textit{Large species of Cucuttoea, Cardium spatiosum}, and \textit{Turbo superb} suggest a sea warmer than at present; but with these lived several species which are now found as far south as Foveaux Straits,—e.g. \textit{Voluta pacifica}, \textit{Triton Spengleri}, \textit{Venus Stutchburyi}, and \textit{Pectunculus laticostatus}. From 20 to 45 per cent, of the species of Mollusca and Brachiopoda are recent. Fossil plants of the system are numerous near Tapanúi in Otágo. Dr. Zittel has described several Mollusca from Cape Rodney, Napier, cliffs near Nelson, and the Awatére Valley. Dr. Stoliczka has described the Bryozoa, and F. Karrer the Foraminifera from Orakei Bay.

The following may be considered as characteristic:—

- \textit{Cominella Robinsoni} (Zittel).
- \textit{Voluta corrugata}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Pleurotoma sulcata}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Conus Trailli}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Natica solid a}, \textit{Sow}.
- \textit{Struthiolaria cincta}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{—tubereulata}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Dentalium Mantelli}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{—læve}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{—solidum}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Cardium spatiosum}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Crassatella ampla}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{Limopsis insolita}, \textit{Sow}.
- \textit{Pecten secta}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{—Triphooki}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{—accrementa}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Ostrea ingens}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{Flabellum corbicula}, \textit{Ten.-Woods}.
- \textit{Platyhclia distans}, \textit{Ten.-Woods}.

\textit{Pectunculus globosus}, \textit{Hutton}, and \textit{Ostrea nelsoniana}, \textit{Zittel}, may also be considered as characteristic, but they occur as well in the Oamarú System. Indeed these two systems are closely connected palæontologically, and the following highly characteristic species occur equally in both, but do not occur outside, these systems:—

- \textit{Turritella gigantea}, \textit{Hutton}.
- \textit{Scalaria lyrata}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{Dentalium giganteum}, \textit{Sow}.
- \textit{Cucullæa alta}, \textit{Sow}.
- \textit{Pecten Burnetti}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{—polymorphoides}, \textit{Zittel}.
- \textit{Ostrea Wüllerstorfi}, \textit{Zittel}.

\textbf{Wanganúi System.}

Marine beds belonging to this system have been proved by palæontological evidence only in the southern half of North Island, from Patea and Wanganúi on Cook's Straits (Pútiki Serios), to the Ngaruroro River (Kéreuru Series), and Esk River (Pétano Series) in Hawkes Bay. There can be no doubt, however, that the system also occurs at Poverty Bay (Ormond Series), at Taranáki, round Mánukau Harbour, on the west side of Whangarei Harbour, and in various other places in the province of Auckland. In the South Island the marine beds of the north appear to be represented by thick unfossiliferous gravels, which are very difficult to distinguish from the upper gravels of the Pareóra System. These beds rest unconformably on the Pareóra System in the western part of Wellington Province

McKay, Rep. Geol. Surv. 1877-78, p. 19; and \textit{I.c}. 1878-79, p. 84.

, and also in Hawkes Bay
McKav, *l.c.* 1878-79.
, wherever the junction has been seen, the only doubtful place being at Pohui, east of Napier, where, according to Mr. Cox

, the unconformity mentioned by Mr. Percy Smith below his "Pohui papá

" does not exist. The marine beds attain an elevation of more than 2000 feet near Napier.

I have elsewhere


given reasons for concluding that the former great extension of our glaciers was caused by greater elevation of the land during the interval between the Pareóra System and the marine beds of the Wanganui System. As these marine beds are fossiliferous in the North Island only, where there are no traces of former glaciation, it is not possible to get direct proof of this; but in Otágo the old Taieri moraine, between Lake Waihola and the sea, which forms low rounded hills between 400 and 500 feet in height, is, on the seaward side, covered nearly to the top by marine gravels, which may belong to this system or may be younger.

The fossils of this system are very different from those of the last. We miss the species of *Struthiolaria* and *Pecten*; and there is no *Conus* or *Limopsis*. On the other hand *Murex*, *Trophon*, *Pisania*, and *Cassis* appear for the first time. It is also remarkable that there should be three genera, *Oliva*, *Sigaretus*, and *Risella*, not now represented in our seas. From 70 to 90 per cent, of the Mollusca, and all the Brachiopoda are recent. Dr. von Haast has found Moa bones in morainic deposits


belonging to this system. A list of some of the Foraminifera from the Pétane Series by Mr. G. R. Vine, junior, will be found in the 'Transactions of the New Zealand Institute,' vol. xiii. p. 393. In addition to the large percentage of recent species, this system may be recognized by:—

- *Trophon expansus*, *Hutton*.
- *Pisania Drewii*, *Hutton*.
- *Pleurotoma wanganuiensis*, *Hutton*.
- *Galerus inflatus*, *Hutton*.
- *Trochus conicus*, *Hutton*.
- *Zizyphinus Hodgei*, *Hutton*.
- *Dentalium nanum*, *Hutton*.
- *Cytherea assimilis*, *Hutton*.
- *Ostrea corrugata*, *Hutton*.
- *Trochocyta thus quinarius*, *Ten.-Woods*.
- *Flabellum rugulosum*, *Ten.-Woods*.

There are also many others, the descriptions of which are not yet published.

**Pleistocene Period.**

*Raised Beaches.*—At the mouth of the River Thames, near Auckland, there is a raised beach some 10 or 12 feet in height containing marine shells

, and at the North Head of Mánukau Harbour a well-cut beach-terrace is seen at about the same altitude


Below the town of Tauranga there is a raised beach about 25 feet above the sea. Beach-terraces are plainly seen at Hick's Bay near the East Cape; but I have never landed to examine them. At Taranáki Dr. Hector has described Pleistocene deposits with recent marine shells at 150 feet above the sea


Beach-terraces occur also near Wellington; and Mr. McKay describes them as much more than 200 feet high near Capo Pelliser, in Cook's Straits

Rep. Geol. Surv. 1878-9, p. 84

On the west coast of the South Island Dr. Hector mentions comparatively recent beach-terraces extending to more than 220 feet above the sea


And Mr. Dobson has estimated these terraces at 400 feet
At Amuri Bluff there are three terraces, and Mr. McKay obtained recent marine shells from the highest, which, he says, is 500 feet above the sea.

These three terraces are also seen a little further south, at the mouth of the river Conway. At Motannau, in N. Canterbury, a raised beach with marine shells goes to a height of 150 feet above the sea. A deposit of fine silt occurs along the east coast of Canterbury and Otago from Banks’s Peninsula to Moeraki. At its base it is stratified, frequently with layers of gravel, but its upper portions are unstratified. At Timaru it contains a few marine shells.

At Oamaru the gravels at its base contain large numbers of recent marine shells.

These three terraces are also seen a little further south, at the mouth of the river Conway. At Motannau, in N. Canterbury, a raised beach with marine shells goes to a height of 150 feet above the sea. A deposit of fine silt occurs along the east coast of Canterbury and Otago from Banks’s Peninsula to Moeraki. At its base it is stratified, frequently with layers of gravel, but its upper portions are unstratified. At Timaru it contains a few marine shells.

This silt goes to a height of 800 feet in Banks’s Peninsula.

The marine origin of this deposit is, however, disputed. Dr. von Haast considers it to be land löss. See Geol. Canterbury, p. 367, and Trans. N. Z. Inst. xv. p. 411.

Also the entrance to the West-coast Sounds are terraced to an estimated height of 800 feet.

If we plot these heights and distances to scale it appears as if the rise were tolerably regular from Auckland to Banks’s Peninsula; but we must remember that the observations are still very imperfect; indeed I believe that the sea stood much higher than 800 feet in Canterbury. The remarkable river-terraces found throughout the South Island and the southern and central portions of the North Island furnish collateral proof of elevation. They do not occur in the north part of New Zealand, where also there are no raised beaches.

**Peat-mosses.**—Several ancient peatmosses have been examined in the South Island, such as those of Waikouaiti and Hamilton in Otago, and Glenmark in Canterbury. They appear to be very similar in character, and I take the one at Hamilton as an example, as I explored it myself.

This was a small dry basin, about 50 feet in diameter and from 5 to 6 feet deep in the deepest part, excavated out of a bed of clay. This small basin was filled with peat and bones inextricably mixed and forming a compact layer from two to four feet thick, and before being disturbed its surface was rather higher than the surrounding country, which was quite flat for a distance of 200 yards. Out of the small hole there were taken about 7 tons weight of Moa-bones, more than half of them quite rotten, the remains of at least 400 birds. Dr. von Haast thinks that at least 1000 birds were imbedded in the Glenmark bog.

A great quantity of quartz gravel occurred among the bones, some of the stones going up to one or two pounds, and one piece of rock weighed between 10 and 12 pounds. Probably this bog was but the remains of a much larger one. Besides Moa-bones there were found abundant remains of *Chemioornis*, and a few bones of *Harpagornis* and *Apteryx*, as well as a number of small birds not yet determined: also several bones of *Sphenodon punctatum*. The bones were not water worn, neither were they broken. I collected from the peat the following land-and fresh-water shells:—*Thalassia obnubila*, Reeve, and *Limnaea leptosoma*, Hutton. The former is now common near Dunedin, but requires damp bush to live in. The latter is not now known in the South Island, but is found near Wellington.

**Diluvial Epoch.**—The Mollusca of the north of New Zealand differ sufficiently from those of the south to make any migration which might take place in either direction easily distinguishable.

But neither in the Wanganui System nor in the raised beaches is there any trace of a northerly migration. Neither are there any signs of a Pleistocene glaciation of New Zealand greater than at present. Consequently there is no evidence to show that the high eccentricity of the earth's orbit that prevailed in Pleistocene times produced a Glacial epoch here. But there are several facts which appear to support the view that this high eccentricity produced a diluvial epoch by causing greater winter snowfall and greater summer floods.

In the first place the occurrence of the bones of *Apteryx*, as well as those of the water-loving *Sphenodon* and the land shell *Thalassia obnubila*, with bones of the Moa at Hamilton, prove that the dry, treeless, interior region of Otago was at that time covered with forest; and this is corroborated by some of the trunks of the trees themselves still lying on the sides of the mountains. Secondly the extraordinary agglomeration of Moa-bones in the peat-mosses at Glenmark, Hamilton, and other localities, where hardly even two toe-bones were found in their proper places, can only be accounted for by supposing that heavy floods swept these bones up and deposited them in the low ground. And thirdly, the silt of Northern Otago and Canterbury, usually unfossiliferous but sometimes containing Moa-bones and only stratified at its base, seems to imply heavy and
often recurring floods washing away the fine mud left by the retreat of the glaciers during subsidence and its rapid deposition in the sea.

**Recent Period.**

It is only in æolian or fluviatile deposits of this age that we find traces of man. Sand dunes are well developed in many places round the coasts of New Zealand. Between Mánukau Harbour and Port Waikato they form hills 500 or 600 feet in height, the sands being often cemented into hard rock by iron-oxide derived from the black iron-sand.

A very complete list of the localities where Moa-bones have been found, whether in peat-mosses, sand-dunes, or caves, has been given by Mr. C. Smith


, to which I can add nothing of importance. No less than eighteen species of *Dinornis* have been found, all of which have been described, more or less fully, by Sir R. Owen. Of these, five are recorded from the North Island only, and nine from the South Island only; while four are common to both islands. The following table shows their distribution. I have divided them into four subgenera.

**ERUPTIVE ROCKS.**

The oldest of our eruptive rocks are found in the *Manapoúri System* at the West-Coast Sounds, in the form of dykes of white granite, minette, eurite, &c. They do not penetrate any higher, and no eruptive rocks have yet been noticed belonging to the *Tákaka System.*

**Maítaí System.**—The pink granite found at Preservation Inlet, as well as the granites along the ge-anticlinal axis through Westland and Nelson, have penetrated some of the rocks of the Maítaí System, but are found as rolled fragments in the rocks of the Kaíhíku Series at the base of the Hokanúi System


Their eruption therefore must have taken place some time during the deposition of the Maítaí System, and they are probably contemporaneous with the dykes of syenite, diorite, olivine rocks, and serpentines as well as the greenstone ashes found in various localities in the Maítaí System.

**Hoikanúi System.**—There is evidence of eruptive rocks belonging to this date near the Hurinúi Plains, where the river Mandamus cuts through a volcanic region in which ash-beds and lava-streams are interbedded with slates containing remains of plants


**Waípara System.**—In the South Island extensive eruptions of white or light-coloured quartz-rhyolites and dolerites, the latter now often altered into melaphyres, took place along the western margin of the Canterbury plains at the Malvern Hills, Alford Forest, Mt. Somers, and Gawler Downs, during the deposition of the older rocks belonging to this system


Quartz-rhyolites of the same character form the base of the western portion of Banks's Peninsula, but the rest of this volcanic system is of later date. On the west coast of the South Island basic volcanic rocks occur at Paringa and other places south of Bruce Bay, which may belong to the Waípara System or to the next


In the North Island volcanic rocks, said to be of this age, occur on the east coast of Wellington, at Red Island, south of Cape Kidnappers


, and perhaps near Castle Point

M°Kay, l. c. 1874-76, p. 59.

**Oamarú System.**—In the South Island basaltic rocks are interbedded with sedimentary rocks of this system at Oamarú Capo

Geology of Otago, p. 55.

; at Culverden, and at Pahau


on the north side of the Hurinúi Plains. In the Trelissick basin on the Waimakariri, beds of volcanic tuff
overlie and underlie a limestone considered to be the equivalent of the Ototara stone

At Limestone Bluff and at the Two Brothers, on the south branch of the River Ashburton, a "Palagonite tuff"
Haast, Geology of Canterbury, p. 313.

occurs, which, while agreeing well in ultimate analysis with specimens obtained in other countries, does not
contain any palagonite visible to the naked eye.

The andesites and trachytes forming the centre of the Dunedin volcanic system are interbedded in the
peninsula with sedimentary rocks, probably of this age; but the later eruptions of basaltic rocks which surround
the andesites may belong to the Pareóra System
Geology of Otago, p. 55.

According to Dr. von Haast, the results of whose extensive researches on the structure of Banks's Peninsula

I can in great part confirm, there have been here, in addition to the quartz-rhyolites of the Waípara System
already mentioned, three periods of activity. To the first of these belong the caldera of Lyttelton, Little River, and
Akaróa, in which the lava-flows are chiefly augite-andesites

For the knowledge that these rocks are andesites I am indebted to Prof. G. H. F. Ulrich, who has examined
them microscopically.

and occasionally trachytes. The dykes are chiefly trachytes, but occasionally augite-andesites, and at least
one is rhyolite
Ulrich.

To the second period belong Mt. Herbert and Mt. Sinclair, which are formed of andesites, but without any
visible dykes. To the third period belongs only Quail Island in Lyttelton Harbour, also composed of andesites
with dykes of trachyte (?). The first and second of these periods of eruption are quite evident, and both appear
to have been entirely subaerial in character. There does not, however, seem to be any means of distinguishing
the third from the second period, and it is comparatively insignificant. The quartz-rhyolites had suffered
severely from denudation, and thick beds of sandstone had been formed by their disintegration, before the more
basic eruptions took place; consequently we may consider these latter as younger than the Waipara System.
On the other hand the whole have suffered too much from denudation to allow us to put any of them later than the
Pareóra System; and as both periods of eruption were subaerial, we have the interval between the Waipara and
Oamarú Systems or that between the Oamarú and Pareóra Systems to choose between. I think it probable that
the calderas of Lyttelton and Akaróa belong to the Oamarú System, but Mt. Herbert may belong to the Pareóra
System.

In the North Island the trachytes (?) of Hick's Bay, near the East Cape, are distinctly overlain by beds of the
Táwhiti Series

, and they may therefore belong to the Oamarú System.

Pareóra System.—In the South Island basalts and basaltic tuffs are interbedded with rocks of this system at
Mt. Cookson, north of the Hurinú plains. The basalts of Moéraki Peninsula are clearly seen to overlie a Pareóra
clay (the Onekakára clay of Mantell
Geology of Otago, p. 61.

), and as they have undergone great denudation, we cannot put them into the Wanganúi System. The
volcanic rocks of Timarú may also perhaps be placed here. No trace of a scoria-cone nor of a tuff-crater exists
anywhere in the South Island; all the volcanic rocks, even Banks's Peninsula, which is 3000 feet high, appear to
have suffered from marine denudation.

In the North Island volcanic ash beds and andesitic breccias are found associated with the Waiotapu Series
near Auckland; and the trachytes (?) of Whangarei, the Great Barrier Island, and Coromandel are no doubt of
the same age. Fossil wood of Podocarpium dacrydioides, Ung., was obtained by Dr. Hochstetter from the
trachyte tuffs of both the Great Barrier and Coromandel; and from the much decomposed basaltic rocks behind
Drury he obtained wood of Nicolia zelandica, Ung., which was also found in the Pareóra gravels of Moutere
Hills near Nelson. On the Great Barrier Island the trachytic cone of Ahumáta, 1500 feet high, still retains a
well-marked tuff crater

, as also does Arid Island

The andesites
I am indebted to Prof. Ulrich for the information that, the rocks called by me dolerites. in Rep. Geol. Surv.
1808-69, p. 20, are typical augite-andesites According to Dr. Hector they contain olivine (Geol. Rep. 1868-69, p. 42, no. ix.); I saw none myself.

and gold-bearing propylites (?) of the Thames may he of the same age, or they may possibly date back to the Oamarū System; but we have no evidence that any andesites in New Zealand are older than the Oamarū System


A piece of carbonized wood impregnated with iron pyrites, but showing plainly annual rings of growth, was obtained from the gold-bearing propylites in the "Maid of England" claim

Rep. Geol. Surv. 1868-69, p. 44.

Wanganūi System.—There is no trace of volcanic action having taken place in the South Island during this period or later; but in the North Island, on the western side of the main range, volcanic eruptions on a large scale occurred from the commencement of the Pareōra and are even new not quite over. At Mt. Egmont in Taranaki the first eruptions, perhaps of Pareōra date, were trachytes containing (according to Zirkel) both sanidine and oligoclase, and are much like some of the rocks of Banks's Peninsula. These were succeeded by dolerites and basalts. The bases of Ruapēhu and of Tongarīro also appear to consist of trachytes, but here the later eruptions have been dark-coloured rhyolites and pumice. These siliceous eruptions appear to have commenced during the formation of the upper part of the Wanganūi System (Kerēru Series), for no pumice occurs in the lower beds, Rhyolites are extensively developed round Lake Taupo, and in the Hot-spring district. In the valley of the Thames it appears that they are of later date than the dolerites (?) augite-andesites) of Cape Colville peninsula


Around Auckland and at the Bay of Islands basalts were the only lavas erupted.

In the neighbourhood of Auckland many scoria-cones with well- preserved craters occur at very slight elevations above the sea. These are younger than the clays belonging to the Wanganūi System round Mānukau Harbour, and have never undergone marine denudation; but some of the tuff-craters, such as Lake Pupuki on the north shore, are of submarine origin.

Obsidian occurs in many places and is particularly plentiful on Mayor Island in the Bay of Plenty. Perlite is found in the Hot-springs district; and a finely laminated rhyolite, called lithoidite by Richthofen, is found at Totara on the east shore of Lake Taupo

Hochstetter, 'Reise der Novara,' Geol. i. p. 113.

Tachylyte occurs but rarely. We have no glassy basaltic lava-streams, as in the Sandwich Islands and Friendly Islands. Leucite has been found in a basalt of uncertain age near Castle Point on the east coast of Wellington

Colonial-Museum Laboratory Reports, x. p. 48.

Anorthite occurs in the volcanic rocks of Campbell Island

Filhol, Comptes Rendus, Fe'b. 1882.

but the age of these also is unknown. The only active volcano in New Zealand is Tongarīro, and its eruptions are feeble. White Island, in the Bay of Plenty, appears to be in the solfatara stage. It has never been known in eruption, and there is no appearance of recent lava-streams


Two interesting sections of volcanoes occur in the sea-cliffs of the North Island. I described the one on the west coast, between Port Waikato and Raglan, some years ago


The other, which is situated at the west head of Tāmaki River, near Auckland, I have the late Mr. Heaphy's authority for saying is the same as the one figured by him


and copied into the works of Scrope and Judd

Volcanoes, p. 165, f. 66.

This is the only crater near Auckland that is cut completely through by a sea cliff; and I quite agree with Dr. Hochstetter that it is a tuff-crater only, without any lava-stream

'Reise der Novara,'Geology, i. p. 176, no. 28, and Map.
Island.

I have already pointed out that, judging from the relative position of the Maítai and Hokanúi Systems, it is probable that the ge-anti-clinal of New Zealand passes through the centre of the North Island from Wanganúi to the Bay of Plenty. If now we draw a line parallel to this axis from Mt. Egmont, through the Karioi at Raglan, and on to Mercury Bay in the Coromandel peninsula, we find that to the north-west of this line the intermediate rocks have been followed by basic rocks (none of which are known south-east of the line) without any acidic rocks. On the ge-anticlinal itself, from Ruapêhu to the Bay of Plenty, the intermediate rocks are followed by acidic rocks without any traces of basic rocks. To the east of the axis basic rocks occur again on the east coast of Wellington; but these are thought to be older. I have mentioned that a line of granite-exposures occurs along the ge-anticlinal axis in the South Island, from Paringa to Separation Point in Kelson; and the question naturally suggests itself, Are these rhyolites of the North Island derived from a northerly extension of the granite zone of the South Island? It seems possible that granitic rocks may be nearer the surface here than they are in the northern parts of the province of Auckland, and this may account for the eruption of rhyolites only in the centre of the North Island. They may be merely a réchauffée of Maítai granites of the northern part of the ge-anticlinal.

Hot Springs.

In the South Island hot springs are known only in two places, one in the Hanmer plains, Amúri county, and the other near Lake Sumner, about 40 miles S.W. of the first. In the North Island there is only one hot spring east of the main range; it is near Waiapu, in the East Cape district. But west of the main range they are very numerous; all the more important ones lie in a broad band along the axis of the ge-anticlinal, from the base of Tongaríro, through Lake Taupo and the upper Waikato, to Lake Rotomahána and Lake Rotorua, forming one of the most wonderful regions in the world. Dr. Hochstetter distinguishes three parallel lines of springs; but it requires some determination in the tracing of lines to make this out. North of this region the hot springs are isolated. They occur at Pupunúi on the Thames, near Lake Whangape in the Lower Waikato, at Waiwera near Auckland, at Mahurangi, also near the Bay of Islands, and on the Great Barrier Island. Geysers, solfataras, fumaroles, mud-volcanoes, and springs depositing siliceous sinter are confined to the central rhyolitic region of the North Island.

The best description of the hot-spring region will be found in Dr. Hochstetter's works. The Rev. R. Abbay has given a very clear explanation of the formation of our sinter terraces

Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc. xxxiv. p. 170. For an account of the shape of the basin and pipe of Te Tarata, see


Accounts of the mineral waters have been given by Mr. Skey


and by Dr. Hector

Handbook of New Zealand, 1883.

Minerals.

An exhaustive list of all the minerals hitherto found in New Zealand has been given by Mr. S. H. Cox


Among the more interesting are platiridium, osmium-iridium, hessite, sapphire, spinel ruby, emerald, tridymite, nephrite, and kyanite. No diamond has as yet been found. A curious jet-like mineral occurs in veins, or lining veins, in sandstones belonging to the Wanganúi System at One-tree Point, on the west side of Whangarei Harbour


Gold occurs in the Tákaka System and in the Maítai System, where penetrated by Plutonic rocks. It is also found, with several other metals, in the Tertiary andesites and propylites of the Thames, in the province of Auckland. Native mercury and cinnabar are being deposited at the present time by hot springs near the Bay of Islands

Trans. N. Z. Institute, iii. p. 252.
Silver, copper, antimony, lead, and zinc have been found in several places, and haematite occurs in abundance at Parapara, near Nelson, in rocks belonging to the Tākaka System, as well as in many other localities.

**DISCUSSION.**

Mr. Redman called attention to some beaches on the east coast of New Zealand, and discussed their mode of formation. One, the "Ninety-mile" Beach, is really 140 miles long. The southern leeward drift is resultant from north winds prevailing as two to one over south winds.

The present communication, which was virtually promised in my circular note of the 20th Nov. current, does not include any statements from Ministers of our Church who studied under me in Edinburgh. There are nine of them, and their personal experience of my touching capacity (or incapacity) extended over the whole period of my professorship in Edinburgh. I have not thought it necessary to wait for their testimony, which of course is, in its nature, most weighty. It can come in its own place and time. I now send only what happens to be at hand.

Yours truly,

James Macgregor, D.D.

Oamaru,

30th November, 1885.

I.

The following statements were made when Dr. MacGregor had been proposed for a Chair of Theology in the Free Church College of Edinburgh, to which, he was appointed, out of 17 named, by an overwhelming majority of Assembly:

I.—One of his Professors.

P. C. McDougall, Esq., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.

"I have known the Rev. James MacGregor for a good many years past—ever, indeed, I may say, since he first came to college in Edinburgh. Even so early my attention was strongly attracted by the promise of his mind and character; by the directness, force, and acuteness of his intellect; and by his remarkable independence, manliness, and sincerity. My eye followed him instinctively thereafter, and I had the gratification to find all my best hopes every year more and more fully realised by his promise and distinction. We were brought into closer contact by his becoming a student, in my own class. The result was a still higher opinion of his powers and esteem for his character. He carried off the highest honours of his year, and his essays were in a high degree remarkable for the originality, vigour, and acuteness displayed in them. There is in him, I am persuaded, a great fund of capability, of earnest, vivid, and varied exertion—and that exertion will not be spared."

2.—A. Contemporary Student.

John Veitch, Esq., Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in the University of Glasgow.

"I have known the Rev. James MacGregor, of Paisley, from the time that he and I were fellow students at Edinburgh. He stood out there as one of the men of highest intellectual mark at College. He was especially distinguished for logical powers, clearness, depth, consecutiveness, and subtlety. These qualities were displayed whatever might be the subject to which his mind was applied. His capacity for the abstract investigations of the metaphysical department of philosophy was hardly less remarkable than his logical power. The promise of his early years has been, so far as opportunity allowed, well fulfilled. The habits of keen thought and hard reading of College days have been cherished all through his ministerial life with a rare strength and tenacity of purpose, and trueness to his natural bent. The exact extent of his theological attainments I have not sufficient means of knowing. But this I know, that he possesses one marked and special qualification for the office of a Professor of
Theology in these days, especially Apologetics, and that is a thorough philosophical culture, and familiarity with recent forms of philosophical thought. It would give me great pleasure to see Mr. MacGregor in a position which might allow him to bring the influence of his great intellectual powers and acquisitions and his high personal character,—at once deeply earnest and elevated—to bear on the minds of candidates for the ministry."

3.—A Co-Prehyter.

REV. JOHN THOMSON, D.D., Free St. George's, Paisley.—In proposing the Presbytery's resolution, that Mr. MacGregor's name alone should be sent to the Assembly.

"He is a man of wideand catholic sympathies, and capable of distinguishing between mere points and essential principles. Then, too, he is possessed in no ordinary degree of that perfervidum ingenium, that fire and enthusiasm, which are so requisite for quickening young minds, and rousing them to activity and energy. I am sure that, while his high talents and varied learning will command the respect of the students, and while his kindly nature and fervent piety will attract their love and confidence, his impulsive energy will rouse them to intense mental activity, and his strong good sense will enable him to direct their studies into the right channel. Let me only add that I have reason to believe that it was chiefly in consequence of Mr. MacGregor's success-for career at college that the late Mr. Maclaren, of Callander, was led to found his munificent School and College bursaries; and further, that it was in conference with Mr. MacGregor, at Barry, that Mr. Webster arranged to institute the Cunningham Lectureships and Fellowships; and, at Mr. Webster's request, Mr. MacGregor drew out the plans for that noble institution."

4.—A Fellow Member of Synod.

REV. MR. FREER, Free St. George's, Glasgow (himself a first-prize man in Logic and Moral Philosophy), in proposing the resolution of Synod of Glasgow and Ayr, that, of a number of names submitted, Mr. MacGregor's alone should be recommended for the Professorship.

"I have known Mr. MacGregor from the time he attended the University of Edinburgh, and can speak as an eye-witness of his career, both at the University and the Divinity Hall. He was, throughout his entire academical course, a most diligent and successful student. While occupying a high position in all his classes, he took a foremost place in Logic and Moral Philosophy. In the debating society connected with the College he had no superior; and in every discussion in which he took part he displayed great vigour and acuteness of mind, as well as a wide range of information. The reputation which he earned at College was increased during his attendance at the Divinity Hall. The opinion of all the Professors regarding him was very decided. They spoke of him as a student of singular promise, of great acquirements, and of wonderful closeness and tenacity of thought. By his fellow students, as first among the foremost. He has carried with him his studious habits since entering upon the work of the ministry; for, while giving a foremost place to his pulpit preparations and pastoral work, he has continued to prosecute with the greatest zeal his studies in general literature, philosophy, and divinity. Nor is Mr MacGregor a mere helluo librorum. He exercises a vigorous and independent mind on every subject to which he turns his attention. Mr. MacGregor is as distinguished for vigour and originality of thought as he is distinguished for his extensive acquirements. In the articles on 'Hegel' and 'Jacobi' in the 'Encyclopaedia Britannica,' he has shown great capacity for dealing with the most abstract questions in philosophy. Referring to the special subjects of the Chair in question, and stating generally that in relation to them—e.g., the relation of Natural Ethics to Christian Ethics,'—'it is in the metaphysical nexus that the whole difficulty lies,' Mr. Kerr went on to say: 'For dealing, therefore, with this class of subjects, there is required a mind of a firm logical grasp, of keenness of edge, of depth of penetration. Moderator, it is because I find most of these qualities combined in a very high degree in Mr. MacGregor, that I now ask the Synod to recommend him for the Chair. He has a kindly, generous, and chivalrous spirit, and the more intimately he is known the more he will be esteemed and loved. Let him be surrounded by a group of earnest, intelligent students, and he would be found to exert a great influence on them not more by his intellectual powers than by the force of his character, the depth of his piety, the simplicity and purity of his whole life.'"

5.— An Elder of his Session.

"The first time I saw him and heard his voice was in the little church at Barry, with a brother elder. I had gone there for the purpose of hearing him. I soon felt deeply interested in the man, and in his thorough manner of handling the subjects of discourse. There was something so original, simple, and impressive in the whole service that I felt that this is the man whose ministrations I should like to attend. The Free High Church congregation was in a very unsettled state when he was called to it; indeed, it required very great courage in a minister to undertake the responsibility of soothing down party feelings, and of bringing the congregation into harmonious working. In a few months, by faithful preaching, conciliatory and faithful manners, and great wisdom in managing affairs, Mr. MacGregor was not only the means of putting all right again, but, with the cordial help of the office-bearers and others, new schemes of usefulness were undertaken, . . . An evening school for adults. . . . Much success has attended all these services. I have met with no man more scholarly than Mr. MacGregor, none who has read so much of ancient and modern literature, and who has such a command of ancient and modern tongues. He is perfectly familiar with Greek and Latin, and with the literature of both Greece and Rome."

6.—A Member of his Congregation.

GEORGE WILSON, ESQ. of Harlet, one of Sir William Hamilton's medalists, and, on account of an essay on the Philosophies of India, one of the few honorary M.A.'s of the Edinburgh. University.

"About seven years ago I became a member of his congregation in Paisley, not without strong prejudices against himself (foolishly received from hearsay), and with feelings indifferent when not hostile to his most characteristic opinions in theology and ecclesiasticism. The prejudices very soon vanished, and have been supplanted by a knowledge which is another name for love. Most men who know him at all, know that he is truthful, pure, and brave, and these are great qualities when real in the sense and degree in which they are real in him. Those who know him well, know also that he is charitable, generous, and courteous, if not always in the most approved conventional form, yet always so that no one with any true perception can mistake the reality. Differing so widely from him on matters that he regards of vital importance, and taking no pains to mitigate the expression of these differences, I can truly say that Mr. MacGregor has never, by word or manner, made me feel a moment's consciousness of alienation. I cannot say so much either for myself or for many others, who profess what are called (not always very discriminatingly) liberal opinions, which make the duty of toleration at once easier and more imperative. His books speak for themselves; they do not always speak truly for him. His weekly sermons, on the other hand, the utterance of his life under all the influences surrounding it, have been of a very high average, both intellectual and moral; an average that has grown steadily higher year by year. Always acute and vigorous, the thought with which they have been charged has increased greatly in massiveness and depth, and has become pervaded by a tenderness of feeling reserved in its expression, as the feeling of men of the heroic type always is, but the more impressive on that account to those whom it touches. Mr. MacGregor's personal influence on the young men whom he would have to teach were he called to the Chair, would, I believe, be singularly good, alike in relation to those (no doubt a large majority) who accepted his conclusions, and to those who did not."

7.—A fellow Townsman.

PROVOST MACFARLANE, Paisley (as chairman at a Valedictory Dinner in the town).

"We are met this evening not as persons connected with the congregation to which Mr. MacGregor lately ministered, but we are met in the character of townsmen (applause), belonging to all denominations in the town (applause), for, I think nearly every denomination in the town is represented on the present occasion. (Applause.) It is only seven years since Mr. MacGregor came among us in this community. He came to minister to a very large congregation, and the duties connected with that congregation necessarily occupied all his attention and all his time; and we outsiders who are not connected with the congregation were only beginning to get acquainted with Mr. MacGregor, to know his value, when he was called to another sphere of labour.—(Hear, hear.) I do not know- if we in this community had any power to enter any caveat on the subject; but we all would have been compelled to say that we grudge the loss of Mr. MacGregor.—(Applause.) It is only from the fact that he has been called to a sphere for which his abilities so eminently qualify him. It is only that he has been called to that position by the voice of the whole denomination to which he belongs, that we in this community bow to the necessity of parting from him this evening.—(Applause.) We shall follow him in his new position in life with our very best wishes. I believe that in regard to the congregation of the Free High Church, they have the utmost amount of appreciation of and satisfaction with his labours; and I know that he
will carry with him the best wishes of a large circle of friends in this community. He is a man of the finest feeling; he delights in intimate and close friendship; and he is a man whose intellect has the true ring of genius.—(Cheers.) I don't think there is any congregation in Paisley (and I know many gentlemen connected with each of the congregations in the town) where a minister has gathered so many men of learning and ability around him. I do not know another church where the young men have been animated with a more anxious desire to elevate themselves in knowledge of every kind than in the Free High congregation of Paisley."

The sentiment of "The Clergy" was responded to by Rev. Dr. Cameron Lees, now of St. Giles' Cathedral Church, Edinburgh, who said: "It is utterly impossible for a student to pass through the hands of a man of ability and energy without carrying away with him the mark of such a man. We are all sure that this appointment of our friend, Mr. MacGregor, is a most excellent one.—(Applause.) He is the right man in the right place, not a round man in a square hole nor a square man in a round hole."

II.

The following statements came in when Dr. MacGregor asked for and obtained leave to withdraw from his Edinburgh Chair, in order to go to New Zealand with his family:—

I.—Extract Minute

*Of the College Committee of the Free Church of Scotland, 6th April, 1881, and of Assembly Sederunt, 23rd May, 1881.*

"*Inter alia,*

"The following letter from Professor MacGregor was read:—"

"New College, 29th March, 1881.

"My Dear Sir,—My colleagues here know that I am writing to you about a business which falls to your Committee, in time to give you time before the Assembly. Domestic circumstances, especially those affecting the health of my family and myself, incline me to offer to resign my Chair, in order to seek work in a more genial climate. New Zealand is what is thought of.

"Yours truly,

"(Signed) JAMES MACGREGOR.

"Rev. Mr. Laughton, Convener College Committee of the Free Church."

"The following letter from Dr. MacGregor's medical adviser was submitted:—"

"14, Charlotte Square, Edinburgh, 12th April, 1881.

"Dear Dr. MacGregor,—You are aware it has for some time past been my opinion that, owing to your serious family and personal illness, you should seek a complete and permanent change of climate. The grave indisposition of your youngest son, on account of which I ordered him to Madeira, has deepened my conviction that no time should be lost in taking the step I have indicated, and I desire now to press this duty very earnestly, though painfully, upon you."
"I am most hopeful that, under God's blessing such a change would be the means of warding off the danger which in this country threatens your family; and it would also, I feel assured, restore your wonted vigour, which you have not altogether recovered since your last very severe illness. "I have already mentioned to you that there is no climate which more fully meets all the requirements of your case than New Zealand, and it is my most unhesitating conviction that that country should be your destination. "Believe me, yours very sincerely, "(Signed) ANDREW SMART.

"The Committee, after very full consideration, and hearing statements from members of the Senatus of the New College, unanimously resolved that the resignation tendered by Dr. MacGregor ought to be accepted. "The Committee further express their sympathy with Mr. MacGregor in reference to the personal and family circumstances described in his letter and that of his medical adviser, and their hope that the change of climate contemplated may be blest to the restoration of health. "Inter alia, "The Assembly called for report of the College Committee, which, being printed and in the hands of the members, was referred to by Principal Rainy, a member of committee, who addressed the Assembly' there-anent. "The Assembly approve of the report, and record their thanks to the Committee, and especially the Convener. "With reference to the resignation of Professor MacGregor, the Assembly resolve to accept it, expressing at the same time their sympathy with Professor MacGregor in reference to the family affliction to which he refers as the occasion of his resignation, and their earnest hope that the change of climate he contemplates, may have the desired effect, and that a way may be opened up for his rendering great and important service to the cause of the Lord. . . .

[Extracted from the Record of the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland, by (signed) WILLIAM WILSON, CI. Eccl. Scot. Lib.]

2.—Copy Letter of the Rev. Dr. Whyte,

Successor of Principal Candlish, in Free St. George's, Edinburgh, and member of College Committee, appointed with others to consider this matter on the Committee's behalf.

"52, Melville Street, Edinburgh, "June 6th, 1881.

"My Dear Dr. MacGregor,—Although I in common with all your friends must acquiesce in your decision to leave Edinburgh and take your family to a more genial climate, yet it is not without much pain that we consent to part with you. For myself your departure is the loss of a familiar friendship that has been from its beginning most pleasant and most valuable to me. Your wide reading, your philosophical habit of mind, your profound grasp of Scriptural truth, and your vivid, original, and entirely individual way of stating your views and beliefs,—all these things have often told with great effect on my mind. And the singular nobility, generosity, and chivalry of your character, has many a time rebuked the much lower temper of mind it found in me. Altogether, your friendship has been full of good fruits for myself. "As to your preaching, it is no exaggeration to say that it is quite unique in the display of those qualities which make your conversation and correspondence so valuable. The hold you have of the doctrines of grace, and the fresh, flashing, vividly experimental way you have of setting them forth in pulpit expositions,—these remarkable qualities have always made your preaching most interesting and most helpful to the best of my people. Altogether your removal from the Edinburgh pulpit, and from our social and religious circle, will be a deep and long-felt loss to many. You must pardon me for writing as I have done, but I could not let you leave us without some such expression of my gratitude and affection. "Believe me, always, dear Dr. MacGregor, "Most truly yours, "(Signed) Alexander Whyte."
3.—Copy Address from Students
at the end of their course.

"New College,

May 27th, 1885.

"Dear Dr. MacGregor,—We, the undersigned New College students, who completed the curriculum last winter, desire to express our regret at the severing of your professorial connection with our College, and our deep sympathy with you in your present position. We would assure you that our warmest affection and keenest interest will follow you to your new home, and that we earnestly desire this step will bring the hoped-for benefit to the health of yourself and your family. We would also desire formally to express the love and esteem with which, as of course you are aware, you have always, as our teacher, been regarded by us. We most gratefully call to mind the uniform kind-heartedness and forbearance by which you commended to us the character of a Christian scholar. And we desire to acknowledge the debt which we owe to the wide learning, the independent thought, the clear and trenchant style, and the quaint originality, with which you at once gave depth, clearness, and freshness of interest to your own presentation of the Calvinistic system, and incited us to reading and thinking for ourselves. No one could fail to admire the strong grasp of theology, as a whole, the union of liberality of spirit with confessional orthodoxy, and the thorough sympathy with the theological perplexities of students, which in no ordinary degree characterised your teaching.

"Our hope and trust is that the gifts which did so much for us here will find scope to do the same for those abroad who are now to receive you from us.

"In conclusion we have only to add, that all your old students in our class would undoubtedly have rejoiced to affix their signatures to this, had it not been that our neglect till now in thinking of making such a testimony prevents us from getting more than the names of the few attending the meetings of the Assembly.

"We remain, yours faithfully,

(Signed) W. McCulloch,
ALEXANDER P. DAVIDSON,
ALEXANDER CAMPBELL SMITH,
GEORGE C. MACKAY, DAVID ROSS,
ANDREW HUTTON GILRUTH, JAMES D. WILLIAMSON."

4—Copy Letter from a Colonial Student.

"24 Argyle Street, Rothesay,

19th May, 1881.

"My Dear Professor MacGregor,—You will pardon me for writing to you, but as I hear there is a possibility of your leaving this country soon, it may be some small satisfaction to you to get a few lines before you leave from one who was recently a student under you. I write, because I for one shall always carry with me a most pleasing remembrance of yourself and of the time spent in study under you in the New College; and because I think it right not to let you leave us without trying to express to you my sense of your kindness, and of the benefit received in your classes.

"Coming, as I did, almost a stranger to Scotland, I always greatly appreciated the personal kindness that you always showed to students. Harper, of Melbourne, who always need to speak of you in the warmest terms, told me before leaving Australia that I would find in you a kind friend; and that I always found you to be. I am sure, too, that in saying this I am expressing the feelings of many other students of my own standing. I may also be allowed to say that I always enjoyed your lectures, and found them in a high degree helpful and suggestive. You always impressed me as being one who not merely knew theology, but a theologian who had found truth for himself, and made theology part of himself, as had almost no one whom I had ever met or heard speak. You always seemed to have a very wide grasp of Christian doctrine as a whole, and to look at each part in the light
of the whole. I, for one, had long been troubled by difficulties and doubts, and had found many things in our Calvinistic system hard to reconcile with each other. I found you solving the difficulty in a single luminous sentence. I think I am now a pretty sincere Calvinist. I do not think I would have been such had I not heard your lectures; for these helped me greatly to reconcile the system with a belief in God's love. Another thing for which I feel greatly indebted to you is, that from you I learned the respective provinces of theology and criticism, and understood how a man can be an orthodox theologian and yet not a traditionalist in Biblical science.

"I hope you will pardon the liberty I have taken in writing to you, and allow me in closing to express my [thanks to you again for all your kindness, and my very 'warmest wishes for your future success.

"(Signed) ALEX. CAMPBELL SMITH."

5.—Copy Letter from Dr. Laidlaw,

Dr. MacGregor's successor.

"Aberdeen, 

17th June, 1881.

"My Dear Dr. MacGregor,—I should have replied sooner to your kind and generous words about the appointment to the Chair.

"In the knowledge that you are likely to leave us I soon, I want to say how much I have been helped, in all the theological studies carried on in the intervals of practical work, by words of yours spoken and printed. I have always found these to be specially fruitful and suggestive to my own mind in no common degree. I wish we could have more of them in the published form.

"Perhaps you may find opportunity in future years to let your pen instruct us. At all events many here 'will follow you with interest in the new sphere which we confidently hope will open to you. We know that wherever your lot may be cast, you will be ready to elevate to the exposition of the doctrine of God's grace and to the good of souls, the intellectual vigour and spiritual force with which you have been so gifted. And we shall ask for you and yours the Divine comfort [and blessing.

"Believe me, very truly yours,

"(Signed) JOHN LAIDLAW.

6—The Body of New College Professors.

"Senate Hall, New College, 

"June 1st, 1881.

"Inter alia,

"In parting with Dr. MacGregor, the Senatus record their testimony to Dr. MacGregor's great learning and theological attainments, and their high appreciation of the service he has rendered to the Church in the course of the thirteen years of his occupancy of the Chair of Systematic Theology in the New College. Moreover, the Senatus desire to convey to Dr. MacGregor the assurance of their warm personal friendship, and of their earnest desire for his usefulness and happiness."

[Extracted from the Records of the Senatus of the New College, by (signed) J. DUNS, D.D., Secretary.]  
MACKAY, RISK, AND MUNRO, PRINTERS, MORAY PLACE, DUNEDIN.

The statements now submitted were sent by the various writers every one for himself, without knowing what was being said by the others. Some of them go beyond the point to which their testimony was requested, viz.—of teaching qualification as known to them through personal experience; and have spoken of the distinct matter of the now vacant Chair. It is known to them and others that in relation to this matter I have sought no support nor countenance on account of personal friendship, or Church connexion. But their testimonies are very valuable to one in this country who is a comparative stranger, and may have become known to some only as seen of certain
angles from the outside.

I have come forward deliberately, on my own responsibility. Of this an intended effect is, to place the matter simply on the footing of qualification, as if I had not belonged to the Presbyterian Church here. The evidence now in hands of members of Synod may by them be regarded as preventing occasion for suspicion of section partidity in appointing to a national University office. The state of philosophical speculation, in Britain and elsewhere, does not arrant ministers and elders in abnegating their right of personally judging according to evidence, in a matter of which they constitutionally are judges in the providence of God by the law of the land.

The newspaper article appended to this note will show how, wart from the evidence in their hand, the matter can be regarded from the view-point of the general public.

The present Testimonies, under periods, extend with curious completeness over the whole extent of the career to which they refer.

Yours truly,

James Macgregor.

Oamaru,

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PROFESSOR DUNCAN MCGREGOR, as our readers are aware, is to succeed Dr. Grabham as Inspector of Lunatic Asylums in New Zealand, and the chair of Logic and Moral Philosophy in the University of Otago will in consequence become vacant. Already the question of a new Professor has become an exciting one, and is being discussed in several lights, and already the names of two candidates have been placed before the public. The importance of the appointment is manifest without any argument, too much care cannot be exercised by the body in whose hands it lies Of all the Arts classes in a University course there is no other in which the mind of the student receives so distinct and permanent a mould as it does in the class of Mental Science. The teacher in that class, if he be a man of any originality or force of character will have disciples as well as scholars, and will leave his mark perhaps on a generation of thinkers. Hence the imperative necessity of selecting a man not only of gifts and attainments but of sound and trustworthy opinions on philosophy and ethics. A dull exponent of the different schools and systems of metaphysical thought is not the person we I want; and neither is a brilliant theorist tainted with the materialism and steeped in the pseudo-philosophy of the time. There are circumstances in connection with the chair that ought to safeguard it from any us worth- intrusion in respect at least of pernicious opinion. From the funds of the Church of Otago and Southland comes the endowment of the chair, and with the Synod of that Church the appointment practically rests. As we understand the matter, the Synod nominates or recommends to the University, and it is usual for the Council to accept the Synod's nomination. At any rate the appointment cannot be made without the consent of the Synod. Not misled by any bigoted restrictiveness, but true to its own broad views of philosophical soundness, it may be expected that such a body will provide at all times a safe teacher for the chair of Logic and Moral Philosophy. That it will also provide an able and accomplished one may, we think, be as confidently assumed. Of course, on one hand, there should be no limitation of the area of choice; but on the other, it is time that we in New Zealand were freeing ourselves from the imagination that in order to get efficient teachers we must go beyond the limits of the colony. We publish elsewhere in this issue a letter bearing on this branch of the question, and we are much in accord with the views of the writer. We believe it is unnecessary to go out of the colony —we believe it is unnecessary to go out of Otago—to find a fitting occupant for the vacant chair. We understand two candidates have announced themselves—Dr James Macgregor of Oamaru, and Dr James Copland of Dunedin. Both are well known the general community, having long occupied and continuing to occupy, prominent public positions. Dr Copland has given proof of his ethical and dialectic skill in a small volume published some years ago, and re-stating the Christian Evidences and generally stands well as a thinker and debater. Dr. James Macgregor is a man of 'high intellectual mark—it might be more just to say, of striking and singular genius. It is well-known that he held in Scotland a high academic position, having been Professor of Systematic Theology in the New College, Edinburgh. His learning is vast and varied and no one knows better how no make use of it for illustration and argument. Besides the keenest logical faculty he has a wealth of imagination eminently fitted to make metaphysics fascinating to the student mind. In short, it would be difficult to find even beyond the colony any one more richly furnished for the chair in question Dr. Macgregor delivered not long ago in Dunedin a lecture "Regarding Evolutional, which has been published and is an excellent reflex of his mind and example of his method of reasoning. It is certainly an admirable production, and in its scornful strength and eloquence is
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Statements by Former Pupils Now Ministers in This Country.

I.—Referring to the First Period.

1. REV. ROBERT EWAN, Limestone Plains, Southland.
   
   I have received your note asking testimony of my personal experience of your qualification for teaching.
   
   I was a member of the first class taught by you after your appointment to the Chair of Systematic Theology in the New College, and can testify that the students of that year were Enthusiastic in their appreciation of your lectures, and that the interest in the work of the class was sustained throughout.

2. REV. JOHN M'ARA, sometime of Balclutha, now of Gisborne.
   
   I am pleased to know that you are a candidate for the Chair of Mental and Moral Philosophy in the Otago University, and I most gladly bear testimony to your ability as a teacher. It was my privilege to be a student of yours for two sessions in the New College, Edinburgh. I was a member of your Systematic Theology class during the first two years of your occupancy of that Chair, and can well remember the delight with which we listened to the three lectures you gave every week—so fresh and unique in style and so earnestly delivered.

   Your anxiety to enable your students, as far as possible, to master the subjects brought under their notice was very marked. Your intercourse with the students was of the most cordial description, and we still remember with gratitude the kindly interest you always took in us individually, both as a teacher and our friend.

   
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   As a Professor, Dr. Macgregor's talent and scholarship were universally acknowledged. He had a thorough grip of his subject, and his power of imparting knowledge was marked from the very first. In his lectures he was clear systematic and vigorous, while his written examinations showed that he fully understood the difficulties of the subject and could test the knowledge of his students.

   In his class there was always an enthusiasm which, only a powerful thinker and earnest teacher could inspire, and I can testify with the utmost confidence to the benefit which I myself received as a student.

II.—Middle Period.

1. REV. JOHN M. SUTHERLAND, North Taieri.
   
   In reply to your note saying that you purposed being a candidate for the vacant Chair of Mental and Moral Philosophy—Otago University, I know that I render myself liable to the charge of presumption when I speak of your eminent fitness for the position. I first made acquaintance with your remarkable teaching gifts when I joined the New College, Edinburgh, shortly after your appointment to the Professorship by the General Assembly. Reviewing generally one's old impressions of the character of your work, and looking at it in the light of an extensive experience in teaching, I cannot but see on every hand your distinguished ability in organising, in managing, in teaching, and in exciting interest and enthusiasm among the students in their work
Your manner and bearing were such as secured the esteem and affection of your students. You were ever courteous and easy of access, and your deep and kindly sympathy with the feelings and aspirations of the students awakened in them a thrill of filial regard. Your elegant scholarship and varied erudition lent a charm to the high themes which wore the subjects of your prelections, while your examinations, oral and written, both on the lectures and text-books, testified to the thorough character of the work done in the class of Systematic Theology.

There are many who like myself are under special obligations for the warm encouragement and judicious advice given by you during our student career. While at Home lately I met not a few who notably came under your influence and were imbued by your spirit and are continuing the high tradition of the lofty teaching of their Master in Theology. I bear thus very imperfectly the tribute of a friend and pupil to your keen interest in and devotion to education both on its practical and professional side.


Understanding that the Rev. Dr. Macgregor, of Oamaru, is a candidate for the Professorship of Mental and Moral Science in the University of Otago, I take the liberty of expressing my utmost confidence that Dr. Macgregor is eminently well qualified to occupy that important position, and that his appointment would prove a great advantage to the cause of higher education in the colony. Dr. Macgregor possesses most extensive information, of which his published writings on various subjects afford ample evidence. He is also a man of wide and varied experience which could be turned to good account in a University Chair. A characteristic excellence of Dr. Macgregor's mind is that of dear and sharp discrimination, with corresponding accuracy of expression, a quality which is of the highest value in the discussion of those psychological and metaphysical questions which lie at the basis of Mental and Moral Science. Having been a student of Theology under Dr. Macgregor, I can testify to the great benefit I derived from his instructions, particularly in respect to the habit of discrimination, and the stimulus to accurate thought and study, which his method of teaching were fitted to create and foster.

I trust the Board of Property, with whom the appointment rests, will take the high qualifications of Dr. Macgregor into their most favourable consideration, together with the circumstance that there is one among us, and known to us, who is at least as well qualified to occupy this Chair as any one likely to be obtained by a Commission in Great Britain.


As one who sat at your feet during two sessions in the Free Church College, Edinburgh, I have great pleasure in bearing testimony to the very remarkable power you exercise over the minds of your students, leading them up to the high things, down to the deep things, and far afield among the great things of Theological truth and speculation. I have no hesitation in saying that none of my teachers either in the University or in the New College showed your power for making crooked things straight, difficult things easy, and dark things luminous. This I know was also the opinion of many of my fellow students.

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1. Rev. John Ferguson, First Church, Invercargill.

I am very glad to know that you intend to offer yourself for the Chair of Mental Science in the Otago University. When I heard that the vacancy was probable, I at once thought of you as the man most likely and most fit. All your students within reach will be ready enough to testify to your qualifications as a teacher. I was in both your classes, and during my entire course in Edinburgh you took a very kindly interest in me. I am able to say that you are an effective teacher. You could invest the driest subject with interest; your statements on matters speculative, historical, or dogmatical, were as a rule, clear, comprehensive and weighty—well worth remembering, and from the way they were put likely to be remembered. It was, I think, the general opinion of your students that you excelled in speculative discussion. You always tried to make them see into things, and if you did not always succeed the fault was not yours.

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Dr. Macgregor's distinguished career in Mental Philosophy is well known.

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During the four years of my Theological studies you were Professor of Divinity in the Edinburgh College, and in due time I came into your classes. As you are aware, in one year we had men from Ireland, Scotland, America, New Zealand, and the Continent of Europe. With a great number of these I become personally acquainted Naturally, amongst other things discussed, we talked of our Professors, and not a man to whom I spoke of the effects of teaching to which they were subjected, but acknowledged the strong obligations under which you had placed them by the instruction you imparted.

For myself, I have only to add that by your kindness to me when—as a student—I lay at the point of death at Leith, and the lectures I had the pleasure of listening to from you, together with your uniform kindness since then, you have laid me under a debt of gratitude which I am unable to pay.

Since I left College, and during my ministry in Scotland many opportunities have been taken by me of talking over College days with many of my old fellow students, as well as with others who sat at your feet before me, and every one of them expressed themselves strongly on what was then deemed "The loss of Professor Macgregor"; but what was the Free Church students' loss has been New Zealand's gain. And my earnest hope is that whatever good you may have done as a minister the Synod will put it in your power to do a greater by placing you where you ought to be, in the Chair of Mental Science in the University of Dunedin.

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decorative feature

Printed at the "North Otago Times" Office, Thames Street, Oamaru.

Front Cover

ALPHA HOUSE. T. BUSH, DRAPER, RIDGWAY STREET, WANGANUI, OPPOSITE PRINCESS THEATRE. Manufacturer, of Football Fersy Suits, Ladies' Wool Underclothing, Gents' Drawers, Shirts, Socks and Stockings, Ladies' and Girls' Hose, Gaiters, Hats, Caps, Gloves, Mitts, Cardigan Jackets, Rowing Costumes, &c. Agent for Charles Hill's Hats. Millinery and Ladies' and Babies' Underclothing—second to none in the colony. ALPHA HOUSE.

E. ELLERY GILBERT, Pianoforte Tuner and Repairer, ST. HILL STREET, WANGANUI. PIANOS, HARMONIUMS. AND AMERICAN ORGANS TUNED AND REPAIRED, AT THE SHORTEST NOTICE. Country Districts Visited Quarterly. TUNING UNDERTAKEN BY THE YEAR. Orders left with Mr. H. I. JONES, Stationer, or at my residence,

MELBOUTNE HOUSE, VICTORIA AVENUE, GEORGE FLYGER, TAILOR, CLOTHIER AND OUTFITTER ALL MATERIAL THOROUGHLY SHRUNK. PERFECT FIT GUARANTEED.

GEORGE CALMAN, Victoria Avenue, Wanganui, HAS ALWAYS ON HAND A LARGE AND VARIED STOCK OF ENGLISH AND COLONIAL BOOTS AND *SHOES. Also keeps a good staff of Bootmakers on the premises, and can make up or repair boots on very short notice. Work Guaranteed. Prices Low. ALSO ON HAND— Groceries and Oilmen's Stores, at Moderate Prices, Country orders specially treated. Goods delivered free of charge at any railway station between Marion and Waitotara.

WANGANUI NEW PLYMOUTH FOXTON LINE. Week Days. North, Week Days a.m. p.m. 11 0 0 40 5 20 arr New Plymouth dep 7 25 4 0 10 40 0 20 5 0 Waitara 7 35 4 15 10 25 6 4 45 dep Sentry Hill 8 5 4 42 9 41 5 22 4 0 Inglewood 8 48 5 22 8 50 4 27 3 5 Stratford 9 52 6 20 7 50 3 22 2 0

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COBB AND CO. HAWERA TO NEW PLYMOUTH VIA OPUNAKE, Leave Hawera, 2.15 p.m. Arrive Opunake. 6.45 p.m. Daily. Fare. 10s. RETURN. Leave Opunake, 6.30 a.m. Arrive Hawera, 10.50 a.m., Leave Opunake, 9 a.m. Tuesdays Arrive New Plymouth, Thursdays 3.45 p.m. .... Sat. Saturdays Leave New Plymouth, 9 Mondays a.m. .... Wednesdays Arrive Opunake, 4 p.m ... Fridays FARES : Hawera to Opunake .... 10s. Opunake to New Plymouth (single) 13s. Opunake to New Plymouth (return) 20s.

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Contents.

Introductory.

If a party wishes thoroughly to enjoy a trip along the West Coast of this Island, by far the better plan is to hire a conveyance, or, better still, buy horses at any of the sale yards on the coast, where they will get hacks quite good enough for from £12 to £20, and perhaps obtain nearly as much for them when no longer required. By this means they will enjoy the scenery along the roads, can strike into bye-paths and visit nooks and corners a vehicle cannot get to; and, moreover, the feeling of absolute independence and liberty is worth something; besides, good hotels are always within reach, and if ladies form part of the expedition they can rely on politeness and civility all over the coast. Even the natives now will often do most obliging things for a lady. As to luggage, that can easily be sent by rail to a central spot, but very little impedimenta is really required. Everything can be purchased nearly as cheap on the coast as it can in England, and it is astonishing how little one can manage with.

A few introductions are very useful things, and to tourists, the colonists are hospitable to a degree—in fact, to anyone; the trouble often taken by complete strangers is very remarkable, and the writer has, when out on a sketching expedition, frequently been the recipient of favours, so generously bestowed, that to return them has been impossible, and all done with such good nature, and such an utter absence of anything like a consciousness that they were doing anything out of the common, that this acknowledgment for the services rendered is the only one he has been able to make.

It is to be hoped that pedestrian tours will come more into vogue; there is nothing to prevent them becoming popular. The roads are good, and, as I remarked before, the inns are good and frequent, and the advantages for viewing places and getting about are undoubted. Care should be taken in fording the streams and rivers; they are not to be entered rashly, as the current is always strong. One good piece of advice to all strangers is: "Keep just above the ripple" on a fall, and have a good pole to sound with, but, better still, cross by a bridge whenever you can.

If you have to camp out most part of the year you will find it no hardship you can always get a fire and build yourself a break-wind, and so keep sheltered and rest well. Should you lose yourself, follow the first stream you come to (downwards) and you will come on a farm or settlement, or some traces of habitation; even at a Maori path you will get put right, as most of the natives speak some English. But there is very little chance of getting lost on the coast line. It is only on striking into the bush it is likely to occur, and to entire strangers it is better to obtain a guide.

There is a rich field all along the coast, and inland, for the geologist; the upheavals that are constantly taking place—old lava fields, Maori middens, the Waitotara caves, marl drifts, to say nothing of the ordinary strata around Egmont. Among the basalt can be found minerals of so varied a character that one is really afraid to enumerate them for fear of being accused of romancing. The whole of New Zealand is rich in minerals, and this portion of it, when prospected, will no doubt be, at some future time, the home of thousands, who will reap the riches that are so little known at present.

And now we will just glance at the map of the North Island of New Zealand, at least that portion of it for which this guide is intended. It consists of a portion of the South Taranaki Bight, commencing where the Manawatu River falls into the Pacific, and continues round the coast until the town of New Plymouth is reached. The shores of the bight are, for a greater portion of this distance, surrounded by sand-hills, in most cases covered by native grasses, in others by sterile tracts of sand hillocks, intersected by several fine rivers and numberless small streams.

The principal rivers are the Wanganui, Manawatu, and Patea, and have a more or less extensive shipping trade, according to their position and population. The other rivers are: the Rangitikei, Turakina, Wangaehu, Kai Iwi, Okehu, Waitotara, and Whenuakura, all lying between the Patea and Manawatu Rivers and all capable of admitting small craft at certain times. From Patea the number of streams which take their rise in Mount Egmont and its ranges are so numerous that even to enumerate them would serve no object, except to confuse the
stranger with a lot of Maori names bearing a perplexing affinity to one another in sound, often only differing in their affixes.

This long line of coast is settled by Europeans to a depth of twenty or thirty miles, and is everywhere bounded on the land side by the native lands, held and cultivated by their native owners, who are divided into tribes or hapus, and whose chiefs enjoy moral or less authority, according to the amount of land owned by them, or the influence acquired in late wars, or in the Runanga Senate Houses, of which every tribe has at least one. And it is among these native lands that the future settlers of this island will find their homes. It is through the interior of this island, intersecting and cutting through many very valuable blocks, that the North Island Trunk Railway is being formed, and which, when completed, will open up to the traveller scenes that at present he can only visit with some little hardship and trouble.

The hardship and trouble to which a traveller is subjected by a trip through the river system and king country is very slight now-a-days, so slight, indeed, that one of the Collegiate School boys, whose trip I have given an account of in these pages, rode from Wanganui to Mount Ruapehu, ascended the mountain, and returned to Wanganui without seeming at all conscious that he had accomplished anything nearly so adventurous as Mr. Kerry Nicholls did; but perhaps the natural tenor of a colonial school boys’ life is of such a nature that to camp out in his holidays, fish, shoot, ascend mountains, and to be on terms of intimacy with the noble savage, is only his normal condition. That the trip through the King Country presents no difficulties, no dangers, and only very few and trifling discomforts, is proved by the fact that the Rev. T. Grace made it periodically for years, and on his last trip a Bishopdale student accompanied him, to whose pen I am largely indebted for much information. Nothing is wanted in any excursion in this island but guides and sufficient money for expenses; the danger exists only in the pages of travellers who, perhaps, dreamt of it. There are certain places where no roads exist, and where trespassers are warned not to encroach; and I believe I have seen the same thing in England—" Trespassers will be prosecuted." There are missionaries—both Presbyterian and Roman Catholic—Sisters of Mercy, resident a long way up the Wanganui River; and only in May last, Mr. John Rochfort took one of Burton Bros.’ firm, of Dunedin, with him, camera and all. Such are the dangers of the King Country!

The line of railway extends from Foxton to New Plymouth, and the distance may, if necessary, be accomplished in one day, leaving Foxton at half-past seven in the morning, and reaching New Plymouth about the same time in the evening. Of course, the traveller who adopts this by no means speedy mode of travelling will be disappointed at the rate of progression; if he is in a hurry it will irritate him almost as much as the numerous stoppages—the trains here being mixed trains, and combine passenger and goods traffic. He will do well to make his headquarters at either Palmerston North, Wanganui, or New Plymouth, and from these centres make excursions to those places of interest worthy of visiting.

Travellers can obtain every necessary and requisite in the shape of clothing, provisions of all descriptions, from the most common- place fare to the potted meats of Crosse and Blackwell, and the condiments of India. The artist can obtain all he requires; and tents, &c., are much better obtained at one of the above towns, and quite as cheap as the imported article. Ammunition, unless of a very outside make, is also readily obtained at almost any store.

The sportsman will find plenty of native game to reward him in the season, and the necessary license to shoot game can be obtained from any of the secretaries of Acclimatization Societies, I cannot do better than refer the sportsman to Mr. S. H. Drew, Avenue, Wanganui, who knows the habitat of all the native game, and perhaps has a more extensive knowledge of the fauna of the district than anyone I know. Wild duck, pigeon, teal, are among the numerous native game; pheasants, rabbits, and hares are plentiful, and the fishing, in certain localities, is unrivalled for quality and quantity.

Pig-sticking may be indulged in to an unlimited extent, but is not pursued in the same manner as in India. The plan here is to hunt the pigs with dogs, and, when run down, stick them with the knife, the bush preventing, in most cases, much riding. I have seen many very handsome trophies the results of the chase.

The artist will find good sketching everywhere, from the foot of the Tararua Ranges, which he can reach from Foxton, or up any of the rivers. The shores of the coast are not suitable for pictures, except where a view of Mount Egmont and Ruapehu can he obtained, the gullies, ravines, and water courses are endless fields for the pencil while Ruapehu, and Mount Egmont, both snowcapped all the year round, and covered from summit to base in the winter, are in themselves never-ending subjects. One thing the artist has to beware of—the general tendency to take him to the highest hill in the neighbourhood, his reward being an extensive view, in every case sublime, but containing enough material to make a dozen pictures, and work enough, could he manage it, for a week’s sitting; nor need the burden himself with more than his usual sketching umbrella and seat, beyond his tools. His heavier luggage will be much better left at some centre, afterwards to be picked up or forwarded.

The Manawatu, Rangitikei, Turakina, Wangaeu, Wanganui, and Patea Rivers are all worthy of visits,
particularly the Wanganui. The Waimate Plains, and the road all the way from Wanganui to New Plymouth, both by the mountain and coast roads, furnish months of sketching, and are interesting from the numerous native pahs and settlements that abound. The streams all around Mount Egmont are different to any other on the coast—basalt rocks, gorges, cascades, falls, all with a profusion that, bewilders and yet delights,

A small tent is most useful, and guides are plentiful—not the Professional guide; he, as yet, is unknown, but a handy bushman, who will pack your tent and provisions, cook for you, and take you to places you would never find your way to alone, or, if you did, most likely not get back again; one who will tell you the most of the marvels of the old days when the coast was the scene of war; who knows the traditions of the natives, and can speak Maori; and will prove an interesting companion, and be of immense assistance, at a slight cost.

To the intending settler, this portion of New Zealand offers many advantages, especially to men of small capital. The present Native Minister, the Hon. John Ballance, has set apart a quantity of land for special settlement, in one hundred acres farm, to be paid for by instalments. I give the following report, by Mr. Jno. Rochfort, of the land that will be opened up in this district by the North Island Trunk Railway:—Grand Total of Lands, commencing at ten miles from Marton, that will give traffic to the railway within ten miles of the proposed line:

Of this quantity, a million and a half is estimated as good land fit for settlement; the balance will be fair pastoral land.

**Land along the Central Route Railway, commencing at the south-west boundary of the Parikarito Block, nine miles north-west of Marton.**

The Rangatira Block lies on the east side of the line, and in the Porewa contains about twenty-two thousand acres of bush country, with good marketable timber; about two thirds are good agricultural, and the rest good pastoral land.

On the west of the line is the Parikarito Block, extending to about twenty-two miles, or three miles beyond the township of Hunteville. About half this block, to about four miles from the line, would feed into the railway. It contains 23,000 acres. This block is all sold, and occupied in many places, and roaded throughout, practicable for horses. On the flats of the Porewa and valleys the timber is heavy and the land good, the low hills are more lightly timbered; about one-third is arable, and the rest good pastoral land.

North of the Parikarito lies the middle Turakina Valley. It contains about fifty thousand acres, and would feed into the railway. The nearest point is seven miles from the 20-mile peg. A fairly good road is in progress. There are good flats along the Turakina and Mangapapa Valleys, the bulk being hilly bush and scrub lands, all well adapted for pastoral purposes.

From 22 miles to the north-east boundary of the Otairi Block, at 33½ miles, there are 35,000 acres which would be served by the line. A horse-road, well graded, runs through half of the block and falls into the railway line. At 33½ miles the Crown Lands end. The land is mostly covered with heavy bush, of marketable quality; about one-fourth is arable, and the rest good pastoral land. The Crown holds about three thousand acres. Along the river, from 26 miles to 30 miles, there are two considerable open flats covered with fern and flax; the largest is called Ohingaiti; it is about a mile and a half long. This is on the high terrace where the line is surveyed. Below it, towards the River Rangitikei, there is another extensive open flat, much longer, on which there are several native kaingas and cultivations. One at 29 miles is called Otara. Opposite there, is a favourable place for crossing the Rangitikei, with a road-bridge to connect the country on the east-side, known as the Otamakapua Block. It is the best place for connecting the north end of this block with the railway line.

From 33½ to 45 miles, at an average width of four miles, there would be 13,000 acres on the west side of the line. Along this portion of the Otara Range approaches the Rangitikei River, and there are several long spurs ending in high bluffs on the river. Some of these spurs unite and form high table-land, along which the line would run, and greatly reduce the work of formation. The slopes are generally gentle, and the land of good quality and well suited for pastoral purposes. It might be settled in 300-acre or 400-acre blocks, and each block would have flats in it. The timber is tawa, matai, rimu, and some totara, of good marketable quality; In some of the creeks there is gravel, but the main rock throughout is marl, in places hard, and containing shells.

The Otamakapua Block, on the east side of the Rangitikei, contains 140,000 acres, one third of which, at the north end, would probably be served by the line. The character of the country generally flats, near the Rangitikei, on high table-land, through which the side streams run with deep banks; at the back the country is rough and much broken by low hills, well suitable for pastoral purposes; the timber is smaller than that across the river. Many of the hills are covered with scrub and koromiko, &c. There are three blocks of land within the block which are still native, but under lease to Europeans; the three together contain 9,000 acres they are used for cattle runs. The Kawatau River is the boundary of the Otamakapua Block as well as of the Crown lands. Beyond this boundary I have not been more than two or three miles. A large area will be surveyed by the railway.

From 45 miles to the first open country, 58 miles, the Hautapu has high marl banks within five miles of the
end, where they decrease quickly until the banks are low. Extensive flats run along the river, but there are three spurs, which run out and form high cliffs. One of these can be got round by cutting, but the other two must be graded over. I estimate that, taking both sides of the river at nine miles back, there are sixty thousand acres of land of excellent quality, which would be served by the railway; one fourth would be arable, and the rest good pastoral land. The timber matai, kahikatea, maire, &c., of marketable quality; some of the totara are of great size; the undergrowth is rangiora scrub.

From 55 to 72 miles on the west side of the line to 72 miles (south boundary of Murimotu Block) the country is part bush and open; there is a good deal of totara on both sides of the river. On the west side of the line there are 75,000 acres within ten miles of the line, one-third would be arable and the remainder very good pastoral land. On the east side there would be 54,000 acres within the same radius, and to which the same description would apply; both are in limestone country; the open land is fern, koromiko, and grass, &c. This is called the Inner Patea country, and adjoining the last described land there is a still larger area of good open limestone country that would make use of the railway. Messrs Birch, Moorhouse and Co. hold 164,000 acres under native lease. This land consists of long valleys and low downs generally covered with grass; one third would be arable and the remainder good pastoral land.

From 86½ to 98 miles the land is mostly flat bush; the two nearest miles to Murimotu have a large admixture of birch, but the land is good. Beyond, the bush is kahikatea, matai, tawa, maire, and totara; there are several small clearings, grass and fern, and the land is generally of good quality. On the west side, within ten miles of the line, there is an area of 107,000 acres, of which about one hundred thousand acres are flat. Between this and the Wanganui River there is a belt of low broken country, papa and limestone rock, with tawa bush, and in places heavier timber; the land is generally good. Half of this area would be served by the railway and half by the Wanganui River. On the east of the line, within five miles, there are 16,000 acres, of which one-fourth would be fair arable land and the rest good pastoral; a part of this (the Rangitaua Block) is Crown land.

From 98 to 107 miles the line runs on a higher table-land, through which the rivers run with high banks, necessitating the viaducts shown in the diagram. This land is not of such good quality as the lower flat; the timber is rimu, hinau, maire, matai, and birch, largely mixed with kaikowhaka. There are about twelve thousand acres of table-land to the east of the line, one-fourth of which would be fair arable land, and sixty-seven thousand acres on the west, one fourth of which would likewise be good arable land. Still further west, towards the Wanganui River, about thirty-five thousand acres land of arable would make use of the railway. Down the Manganui-a-te-ao river there are many small native settlements and cultivations, where kumeras, taro, and wheat are grown. On the river sides there are generally fern flats, through which the river runs, with very high banks; the principal rock is shell limestone; some of the land is very good. The bush generally is light tawa. The Manganui-a-te-ao offers a good means for road communication with the Wanganui River.

From 107 to 113 miles (Waimarino) the country is open tussock grass and poor land; to the north-east there is a run of open and nearly flat country, past Lake Roto Aira to Taupo: this is very poor country, held under native lease as a sheep-run. There are some few patches of moderately good country, where kumeras, taro, and wheat are generally located and have cultivations, but, if this railway should be made, Waimarino will be an important junction. On the east of the line there are about thirty-two thousand acres fit for pastoral purposes.

From 113 to 120 miles the line runs near the Piopiotua. Several miles are along high terrace bush land of good quality; the timber for the first two or three miles is light, but after that it is marketable, consisting of matai, kahikatea, rimu, tawa, maire, and some totara. There would be 38,000 acres available on the west, and 18,000 acres on the east, of which a third would be good arable, and remainder good pastoral land.

From 120 to 131 miles it is bush land, of good quality; timber similar to last, except that the last three or four miles are chiefly large totara trees of great length without branching. In this length of line there would be on the west 42,000 acres, of which one-third would be arable, and 63,000 to the east, of similar character, one third would be good arable and remainder good pastoral land.

From near 131 miles a native horse-track goes by Ruamata to Taupo; the track is bad, but the land along it is very good soil. A better road can be got up the Wanganui River. From a little lower down another track goes to Taupo by way of the Puketapu and Pungapunga River. The country along this line shows pumice in places, and is not so good for land as the Ruamata track, but there are some good patches of totara in some of the valleys. Up the Pungapunga is where the natives believe gold to exist. I saw some quartz and slate, but the indications are not good. There are two settlements and cultivations up the river.

From 131 to 137½ miles (Taumarunui) to the south of the line, 48,000 acres of land would be available; it is chiefly open, what bush there is is totara. The soil is fairly good, one-half would be arable and the remainder good pastoral land. There is some drift pumice in the soil, but I do not consider it injured by it. To the north of the line there are 28,000 acres of patchy land, one-third of which would be arable; part is very good and part pumice.
From 137½ to 160 miles (Waimiha) the country is generally open, with considerable fern flats all along the Ongarue River, with a good many native villages and cultivations. The land is generally covered with heavy fern, but it is patchy, part being very good, and part largely mixed with pumice-sand; the hills are often bush on top, and generally good soil. On the west and south of the line there are two blocks of 109,000 and 61,000 acres accessible to the railway, one-third would be arable and remainder good pastoral land. On the east there would be 75,000 acres, which include the low-wooded country at the back called Tuhua, said by the natives to be good country. I have not been on much of it, but have looked over it from several points; I should estimate one-third of it as arable. There is some good land and native settlements up the Taringamutu, and a large amount of totara.

All the country down the Wanganui, at least as far as Maraekowai, or the confluence of the Ohura and Wanganui, would be served by the central route line. The Ohura offers a road communication though the centre, connecting with the line at 154 miles, where the native track is from Mokau. All upper good land of the Mokau is also accessible. I consider the central route would embrace all the country along the western route to within sixty-two miles of Stratford.

From 160 to 166 miles on the west there are 16,000 acres of low bush hill country, with strong fern in the valleys. Most of the bush land is very good, and the timber marketable; about one-fourth would be arable. On the east there are 43,000 acres of land, a third of which up the Waimiha and Ongarue is open flat country and very poor; the remainder is fair pastoral land, with one-fourth table.

From 166 to 175 miles the country consists of long flat valleys, with low hills between them, with bush clumps; the open land is grass or fern, of moderately-good quality. There are 5,000 acres on the west and 5,000 acres on the east of the line, a third would be [unclear: arable]. I should class this as land which should be held in blocks of four or five hundred acres.

From 175 to 154 miles (Mangapu) on the West there are 92,000 acres within ten miles of the line. I estimate two-thirds open and one-third arable. It is mostly limestone country, of very good quality; dotted over it are many native villages and cultivations; wheat and oats are grown, and also maize and hops. The river, which has little fall, is the high road of traffic with the towns outside. On the east of the line there are 84,000 acres of land, of which four-fifths are open and one-fifth arable. This block is mostly good, and what little forest land there is is generally kahikatea and pukatea.

From 194 to 212 miles on the west, within ten miles, there would be 96,000 acres; beyond this the traffic would work to Kawhia Harbour. The land is chiefly open and good soil, with some considerable swamps. About half would be arable, the rest good pastoral country. Fern is the general growth. There are many native settlements and cultivations; wheat and all kinds of crops are grown. On the cast, within ten miles, there are 74,000 acres, mostly open fern land, of good quality. One-half of this would be arable, and the rest good pastoral land. There are also several native villages and cultivations on the block.

—I have, &c.,

JOHN ROCHFORT.

The Chairman, Main Trunk Line Committee, North Island.

List of Properties for Sale

By the New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency Company, Limited.

WANGANUI, 1ST MARCH, 1885.

230 acres freehold farm, improved, fenced and sub-divided; No. 1 Line. Four miles from town of Wanganui.

612 acres freehold farm, all fenced and sub-divided, improved and in good grass. Within five miles of the town of Wanganui. Known as Holly Lodge.

9,000 acres freehold unimproved land, bush and fern; would make a fine farm or run with small expenditure. Twenty miles from Wanganui.

540 acres freehold, highly improved farm, a fine residential estate; wood and water, and every convenience. Within a few miles of town of Wanganui.

200 acres improved freehold farm at Waitotara.

180 acres freehold farm, all in grass and highly improved. Near Greatford.

270 acres freehold, light bush. Okotuku district.
90 acres freehold, light bush. Eleven miles from Marton.
730 acres freehold, rural land, light bush. Twelve miles from Wanganui.
2,000 acres freehold farm, nearly all cleared and down in grass, fenced and divided into paddocks. Large
dwelling-house and other outbuildings. Fifteen miles from Wanganui.
16,000 acres freehold unimproved land, light bush and fern, would make splendid run with small
expenditure. Twenty-two miles from Wanganui. Known as Mangaporu.
21,000 acres unimproved land. Province of Taranaki.
¼ acre freehold, section No. 175, town of Sanson, with dwelling-house.
¼ acre freehold, section No. 163, town of Sanson, with dwelling-house.
3/8 acre freehold, sections Nos. 79 and 80, town of Marton, with dwelling-house.
3½ acres freehold, town of Halcombe, being sections No. 427 703, 704, and 705.
2¾ acres freehold, sections 659 and 661, Halcombe, with dwelling-house.
700 acres freehold, 4½ miles from Wanganui, fenced and divided into paddocks. Large 12-roomed house
and other, outbuildings on the property.
164 acres freehold, light bush land. Rangitikei district.
500 acres freehold, light bush, No. 61, Manchester Block, near Feilding.
9,100 acres freehold, light bush land, Rangitikei district.
519 acres' freehold, sections 49, 64, 64A, sub-division E, Manchester Block.
1,300 acres freehold farm, 300 acres of which is level, the remainder grazing land. 1,100 acres down in
grass. All fenced. Eleven-roomed house and other out-buildings. Fifteen miles from Wanganui.

He to New Zealand!

A word or two to people of limited incomes—I refer to those who are driven, for the sake of economy, to
continental cities, where they can make both ends meet. I believe they can enjoy a more healthy state of
existence, and do better for their sons and daughters in New Zealand on £300 or £400 a year than they can in
Europe. Here, the elementary schools are free, and the secondary schools only charge a tithe of what is paid to
similar establishments in England. Children of both sexes can be fitted for any profession, can pass the Civil
Service examinations, and wait their turn for vacancies that are constantly occurring; or pass on to the study of
the law, or some other of the professions. Residence is not insisted on by the New Zealand University, and the
educated father of a family can find plenty to do by serving on School Boards, Road Boards, or Harbour
Boards, for he will find local-government pervading all departments. The society in the coast towns is not
nearly so dull as it used to be in a country town in England thirty years ago. At any rate, his young people will
have plenty of picnics, balls, tennis, rowing, riding, and the thousand and one things young people find to
amuse themselves with, and their chances of obtaining partners for life are as good as elsewhere. There is, of
course, less stiffness in the intercourse of people in the colonies, arising mainly from the fact of there being so
few idle people, everyone having something to do, and doing it without being ashamed of it; but it is a mistake
to suppose that society, in its main points, is any different to its counterpart at home.

Principal Places on the West Coast.

North Island.

ARAMOHO (suburb of Wanganui).—Railway Station, Government workshops; junction of Northern and
Southern lines of railroad; Churton's College for education of Maori children.
ASHURST.—Village near Palmerston.
BELLS FALLS.—Waterfalls on Mount Egmont. Road from New Plymouth or Stratford.
BRUNSWICK LINE (name of road).—Farming settlement nine miles north of Wanganui. Railway Station.
BULLS (township of Rangitikei district).—Forty-two miles south of Wanganui; four miles from Greatford
railway station, on the southern line. Centre of farming district.
BUNNYTHORPE (Manawatu district).—Railway Station; farming and timber industry. Six miles from
Palmerston.
CAMPBELLTOWN, OR TAYLORVILLE.—Suburb of Wanganui, on opposite side of river. Barns and Higge's
sale yards. Flagstaff station.
CARNARVON.—Railway Station; township; six miles from Foxton.
CROFTON.—Township founded by Sir W. Fox on teetotal system. Three miles from Marton.
CORINTH, OR KORONITI.—Forty miles up Wanganui River, Maori Path.
CASTLE CLIFF.—Township now being formed at mouth of Wanganui River, and connected with Wanganui by rail.
FEILDING.—Chief township on Manchester Block, Manawatu district. Thirteen miles from Palmerston.
FOXTON.—Port of the Manawatu district, on Manawatu River, Four miles from mouth; eighty-seven miles from Wanganui. Communication with Wellington by coach and steamboat.
FORDELL.—Railway Station; farming district. Fourteen miles south of Wanganui.
GREATFORD.—Railway Station; thirty-eight miles from Wanganui; Rangitikei district; change here for Bulls.
HALCOMBE.—Township on Manchester Block. Forty-four miles from Wanganui.
HAWERA (Taranaki).—Sixty-two miles north of Wanganui, forty-eight from New Plymouth; next to New Plymouth most important town in the province of Taranaki. Mayor and Corporation, Government Offices, &c. Branch road from here to Manaia, Opunake, and New Plymouth.
JERUSALEM.—Sixty miles up Wanganui River; Roman Catholic Mission Station, Church and Convent.
KENNEDY’S, OR UPOKONGARO (township seven miles up Wanganui River).—Favorite place for excursions; Kennedy's Hotel, stores, &c., Maori pah; accessible by road each side of river, and by boat.
KAIWHAIKI.—Stone quarries. Fourteen miles up Wanganui River.
KAI IWI.—Railway Station; township; river, twelve miles north of Wanganui.
KAITOKE LAKE, AND SETTLEMENT.—Four miles from Wanganui, No. 1 Line.
KAKARAMEA (Taranaki).—Railway Station; farming settlement: sixty-two miles from New Plymouth, six from Patea.
MANAWATU COUNTY, RIVER, GORGE.—Manawatu County comprises the towns of Foxton, Palmerston, Feilding, and Halcombe, and numerous townships; produces timber, grain, &c., &c., &c. Manawatu River rises in the Ruahine Ranges, and is composed of a number of streams, which unite before entering the Gorge, which is a scence of surpassing grandeur.
MARTON.—Chief town of Rangitikei County Named after birth-place of Captain Cook; centre of considerable grazing and farming district; Mayor and Corporation.
MANUTAHI (Taranaki).—Railway Station, hotels, &c; centre of I grazing and farming district.
MAXWELLTOWN.—Township, about four miles wide of Railway Station; thirteen miles north of Wanganui.
MATARAWA.—Railway Station; farming settlement; ten miles south of Wanganui.
MANAIA.—Fifteen miles from Hawera, large township; near Titokawaru's pah, on Waimate Plains.
MANCHESTER BLOCK.—Extensive special settlement in Manawatu district, on which are the towns of Feilding and Halcombe.
MIDHURST (Taranaki).—Twenty-seven miles from New Plymouth. Railway Station.
MOUNT EGMONT (Taranaki district).—Height 8,500 feet; snowcapped.
MOMAHAKI.—Thirty miles north of Wanganui; nearest station to the Hummocks, a singular range of hills.
NEW PLYMOUTH.—Chief town of the Province of Taranaki, and late seat of Provincial Government; at foot of Mount Egmont. Port of the province. Breakwater, enabling steamboats of the largest size to come alongside, is nearly completed. Numerous communication with Auckland and Wellington by U.C. steamboats, and by rail with Waitara, Wanganui, and Foxton.
NORMANBY.—Railway Station; three miles from Hawera; extensive farming district.
NUKUMARU.—Railway Station; twenty-one miles from Wanganui; fine grazing and agricultural district.
OTAKEO.—Small settlement between Hawera and Opunake.
OTAMARI.—Native pah, thirty-eight miles up Wanganui River.
OEO.—Site for township; fifteen miles from Opunake; hotel.
OPUNAKE (township).—About forty miles from New Plymouth, and thirty-five from Hawera; only place on coast where vessels can shelter; bay very picturesque; A.C. station; head quarters Armed Constabulary; centre of farming district.
PATEA.—Town in Taranaki province, formerly known as Carlyle; river navigable for small steamers and coasting craft; governed by Mayor and Corporation; Resident Magistrate; Government Offices.
PALMERSTON NORTH.—The chief town of Manawatu county, and the best laid out town on the coast; contains good hotels and stores; centre of a large timber trade, grain, and cereals; sixty-three miles from Wanganui; twenty-four from Foxton.
PUNGAREHU.—Eleven miles from Opunake on New Plymouth Road; A.C. redoubt; branch to Parihaka.
PARIHAKA.—One and three-quarter miles from Pungarehu; Te Whiti's pah.
PIPIRIKI.—Native pah and settlement, fifty miles up Wanganui River.
Paketapu.—Native settlement, seventy miles up Wanganui River.
Rangitikei District and County.—A wealthy county and district, containing the towns of Marton and Bulls, numerous Stealthy sheep and cattle stations, the townships of Croflon, Greatford, Sanson, and others, intersected by good, well-kept roads; a road from here to Taupo.
Ruapehu Mountain.—About seventy miles' from Wanganui (north east), thirty-five from Taupo Lake, and twelve from Tongariro. Ruapehu is 9,000 feet high, snow-capped, and easy of ascent.
Ranana.—Native pah, forty-five miles up Wanganui River; Major Kemp's residence.
Rhakora.—Native pah, 110 miles up Wanganui River.
Rahotu.—Hotel, house, and abandoned redoubt; most picturesquely situated, six miles from Opunake.
Stratford.—Railway Station, and township; thirty miles from New Plymouth.
St. John's Hill.—Suburb of Wanganui.
Tongariro (Mountain).—Volcano; twelve miles north of Ruapehu; only slightly active at long intervals; accounted sacred by natives.
Turakina.—Railway Station, and township of picturesque appearance; twenty-four miles south of Wanganui by rail.
Tawhitinui.—Native pah; forty-eight miles up Wanganui River.
Taumarunui.—139 miles up Wanganui River; will be of great importance as the terminus of navigation, and commencement of main road to central railway.
Upokongaro.—(See Kennedy's).
Utopu.—Native pah; sixty miles up Wanganui River.
Virginia Lake (St. John's Hill).—Nearest source from which the Town of Wanganui is supplied with water.
Wanganui (county, river, and town).—Chief town on the West Coast, North Island, and centre of shipping trade for the Wanganui and Rangitikei counties; the river is the most important on the Island, and will soon be navigable for 130 miles by steamboat; governed by Mayor and Corporation, Harbour Board; sittings of Supreme Court and District Court are held here; numerous good hotels, stores, shops, &c.
Wangahui.—River, and Railway Station; native pah and settlement; nineteen miles south of Wanganui.
Waverley.—Railway Station; township; hotels, stores, &c.; thirty-two miles north of Wanganui; centre of extensive grazing and farming district.
Waitotara.—Railway Station; river; hotels; there are caves with human remains, well worthy of a visit, in the locality.
Whakora.—Native pah; ninety-one miles up Wanganui River.
Whenuakura.—Railway Station; farming district; five and a half miles from Patea.
Westmere Lake.—Four miles from Virginia Lake; a fine sheet of water, presented to the town by Mr. W. H. Watt for the water supply.

Wanganui.

Wanganui.

Places of Amusement.

Princess Theatre, Fire Brigade Hall, Academy of Music.

Hotels.

Chavanne's Victoria Hotel, Victoria Avenue.
Foster's Steam Packet Hotel, Taupo Quay. Tariff, 6s 6d per day.
Watkins' Newmarket Hotel, Victoria Avenue.
Rapley's Prince of Wales Hotel, Taupo Quay. Tariff, 4s per day.
MLaren's Anchor Hotel, Bell-street, opposite Court-house.
LIVERY STABLE KEEPERS.

Robt. Ross, Victoria Avenue. Hacks, 10s per day; carriages, per agreement.
Smiley's Livery Stables, Victoria Avenue.

HACKNEY CABS, CARRIAGES, &C., BOROUGH OF WANGANUI.

Schedule of Rates or Fares for Single Passenger:

FARES BY TIME.

FARES BY DISTANCE.

NIGHT WORK.

Double the above fares (by time or by distance) may be charged; before 8 a.m. and after 7 p.m.
These fares apply to days other than Sundays only.
The hirer or passenger shall have the option of paying either by distance or time.
The town of Wanganui is situated on the river of the same name, about four miles from the entrance, where it falls into the sea. A short line of railroad connects the town with the Heads, and here, in the future, a great deal of the work of the port will be done. At present steamers have four miles of river to ascend to the town wharves, which are of a substantial character, and contain goods sheds, bonded stores, &c., belonging to the Government; and the Foxton and Taranaki Railway has sidings on the wharf by which goods are speedily transferred from the vessels to the trucks, and vice versa. The New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency Co. have an imposing warehouse and stores; Hogan Bros., and the Railway Station are all on Taupo Quay. A splendid bridge of iron spans the river, 600 feet in length, which was erected at a cost of £40,000. Above the bridge, which has a centre span, and which swings to admit of vessels passing through, is a scene of more than ordinary beauty. The river is of a great width, and the mountain range, of which the crowning point is Mount Ruapehu, is not to be excelled. The cliffs on the right bank of the river are named after Shakespeare. The town is built on the north bank of the river, the chief street, Victoria Avenue, containing the best portion of the shops and offices. The cross streets, Taupo Quay and Ridgway Street, are, however, pretty well crowded with shops and offices. Victoria Avenue is almost a portion of the Great North Road. Three lines or roads lead out to the opal country and to the various centres of population lying around Wanganui, and are known as No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3 Lines, respectively, being so named when constructed by the troops during the late Maori war, and have been known as such ever since, Very confusing this nomenclature is to the newcomer, who is some time before he can distinguish between 1, 2, and 3 Lines, to say nothing of another road called the Brunswick Line.

At Aramoho, the river is crossed by a substantial railway bridge; and at Aramoho, the junction of the northern and southern portions of the line take place; the southern crossing the bridge, and the northern ascending the hill by a long incline.
The suburbs of Wanganui are Taylorville, on the southern side of the river, and the hills on the No. 2 Line, on which is built the suburbs of Durietown; and Eastown, where the Government Workshops are situated.
On the northern side, in addition to Aramoho, St. John's Hill, where a splendid view of the valley and river are obtained, as well as the view seaward; Mosstown, on the flat between the sea and St. John's Hill. The suburbs contain many well-built houses, with gardens.

Recreation Reserves.

The town is well off for breathing places. The chief is the Recreation Reserve on the Town Belt, which is partly laid out as a racecourse, and is acknowledged to be about the best in New Zealand. The Caledonian Society have also a space railed off, where their athletic sports take place annually on St. Andrew's Day.
The Rifle Range, containing three targets, is immediately beyond the racecourse, where more than one champion shot of the felony has trained.
Cook's Gardens is an open place, entrance to which is obtained from four points, viz., St. Hill-street, Guyton-street, Wilson-street. It is a great playground, and, being situated in the centre of the town, is much used by the children. It is well planted with trees round the outside.
Queen's Gardens is a similar space, but more hilly, and only recently reclaimed, enclosed in which now
stands the remains of the old Rutland Stockade, now used as a gaol, and looks like some rid fort of the middle ages frowning over the Courthouse, which is at the foot of the hill.

There is also another space at St. John's Hill, which is known is Victoria Park, and is in great request for cricket, picnics, &c.

The Public Buildings

Are the Council Chambers and Fire Brigade Hall, in St. Hill-steet; Public Library, in Ridgway-street; Courthouse, in Market Square; and a fine Masonic Hall, in Bell-street.

Murray's Foundry.

The Wanganui Iron and Brass Foundry and Engineering Works were established by the present proprietor in the year 1868, at which time it employed some 6 or 8 men; since then it has slowly but steadily grown to its present size, and employs, in busy times, upwards of 150 men. It now covers upwards of half an acre, and the buildings are well arranged, and contain many modern tools and appliances. On the whole it is one of the most important industries on the West Coast, being capable of turning out all kinds of machinery, including saw mill, corn mill, and flax machinery, cheese, butter, and meat preserving plants, steam engines and boilers, from 2 to 50-horse power, and many other pieces of machinery too numerous to mention. The works have a frontage to the river, and small steamers, yachts, and launches are successfully dealt with. The firm has also successfully contracted for, and erected, many of the Government works throughout the colony. A large river steamer for the W.R.S.N. Co. is now on the stocks at the works. She is being built with 19 water-tight compartments; draught, 18 inches; working up to 90 horse power, and capable of steaming twelve miles an hour.

The Sash and Door Factory

Is on Taupo Quay, and when in full working order gives employment, directly and indirectly, to about 200 people. Here everything in the shape of joinery and turnery is turned out in a style equal to anywhere in the colony. Doors, sashes, mouldings, casks, buckets, fretwork brackets, tracery work, naves, spokes, wheelwright's work, in fact specimens of wood-work in every branch are on hand in large quantities. The immense piles of building material and of rare woods show that the local demand does not absorb the resources of the establishment.

Flour Mills.

The Wanganui Flour Mills are situated in Nixon-street. Proprietor, Mr. J. Duigan. There are also flour mills at Warrengate belonging to Mr. James Baker.

Bone Mills.

Mr. E. Wright's bone mills are also situated in Nixon-street.

Cheese Factory, Oikoia.

Seven miles from Wanganui, on the line of rail to Foxton, and has been in working order about two years. At present the shareholders place about 40 tons of cheese during the season on the market. The cheese is of a very good quality, and the price hitherto obtained has been satisfactory to the shareholders. Another source of profit are the piggeries, in which are fattened! stock for the bacon factory. The Oikoia cheese has been found to stand a very trying voyage, is exported to Australia, and is almost solely used in the local market. In taste it is very like a Cheshire, and is a cheese that keeps well.

Cummins and Richards's Bacon Factory.

This is an industry of which very few people—even in Wanganui—know the extent, and is carried on in two establishments on Taupo Quay; and at the time the writer visited the establishments there were about 1500 pigs in process of being converted into ham and bacon. The largest building is known as Beaven's store, and the whole of the ground floor was occupied by the cutting up and salting processes. Tables lengthways, cross-ways, and every way they could be put, with piggy in every stage of dismemberment; go which way you would, men were met with bearing either sides, or hams, or rolls upon their shoulders; some mounting to the upper story, where the array of hams and sides were most attractive, most of them being nearly cured and ready for
smoking. Nothing was more striking than the external cleanliness of all the appliances employed, the utter absence of all offensive odour, which is evidently owing to the slaughtering of the animals being done at the abattoirs some miles away. The accounts of Chicago's chief industry which one has perused, could not help coming into one's mind, and though this industry, as far as Wanganui is concerned, is in its infancy, yet it cannot help but grow, and the time may come when this establishment may rival some of the American ones.

**Laird's Nursery Gardens, St. John's.**

These tastefully laid out grounds will repay a visit; especially if the visitor happens to visit them when the flowers are in blossom, the extent of this branch of a most important industry is realized. Almost every kind of flowering and forest shrubs are in stock, the number of native and imported acclimatised plants are legion, while added to these gardens Mr. Laird carries on an extensive business as a seed merchant. Mr. Laird recently paid a visit to Great Britain in order to extend this branch of his business. Any attempt to describe either gardens or stock is out of the question here, but catalogues can always be obtained at the store, Taupo Quay.

The other seed establishment is that of Mr. Hastings Moore, situated in Victoria Avenue, where everything in the shape of seeds for the farm, the plantation, or the flower garden are to be obtained.

**John Bennie.**

Five acres of hops under cultivation. Malt house in St. Hill -street. He makes a speciality of packet hops, and keeps all brewers requisites in stock. See Advt.

**Caxton Lithographic and Printing Works.**

Mr. A. D. Willis has, for some years, paid great attention to the lithographic portion of this business, and his enterprise and perseverance have at length succeeded in placing him at the top of the trade—no other house in New Zealand being able to produce the same class of work. The Christmas cards of New Zealand fauna and scenery are really works of art, and the preparation alone of them has been a source of profit to a number of people. Quite recently he has published two very ambitious views, both of which are perfect marvels of drawing on stone, and quite equal to anything done in England, the one of Wellington being printed in fourteen colours, the artist being Mr. W. Potts, the chief of Mr. Willis's lithographic staff. Playing cards, printers' ornamental cards, ball programmes, one series of which are gems, being entirely composed of New Zealand scenes, and all executed in a style that would be thought good in London. A first prize was awarded to Mr. Willis for this work at the Colonial Exhibition held in Wellington lately. The machinery is of the newest description, and is constantly being added to. The letter-press printing portion of the establishment is also equal to any strain likely to be made upon it. At present the number of hands employed are upwards of fifteen. The book store and stationery establishment is very complete. Artists' materials, cricketing, and football requisites, periodicals, &c., &c.

Mr. H. I. Jones has also an extensive printing establishment in the Avenue. At his establishment artists can be fitted with every requisite for oil or water colour drawing. Canvas, easels, mahls, brushes, sable, hog hair, cricketing, football, and lawn tennis materials. His stock of hand-painted cards for Christmas and Easter are quite a local industry, and the variety he imports is perhaps the most extensive in the district.

No artist need bother himself with impedimenta, he can obtain all requisites in Wanganui, and can be supplied by train or post at a few hours notice.

**The Collegiate School.**

The school, which ranks with the chief secondary schools in the colony, has close upon 80 boarders, and fifty day scholars.

The school buildings stand in the reserve fronting the Avenue, are large and well built, and contain, besides the big school and school rooms, the head-master's house and private dwelling houses. The whole of the interior arrangements for the pupils are of the best, and the high stand the school has taken since its reorganization render it an institution of which any community might be proud.

The gymnasium (very complete) is a large, separate building, fitted with trapezium, ladders, rings, swings, &c., &c., and is lighted with gas, the floor being covered with tan. A carpenters' shop adjoins the building, and other workshops are contemplated.

The tennis court is surrounded by a close fence, and is a great source of amusement to a section of the boys, but it is in cricket the school has the best record. In the first term of the present year, the first eleven of the school did not sustain a single defeat; in football they have not such a good record.
During the winter season the indoor amusements are:—Parliamentary Union; Debating Club; Glee Party, who give periodical entertainments to their schoolfellows, and occasionally an invite to their friends outside; Gymnastic Club, and a Naturalist's Club. There is also a Cadet Corps in connection with the school.

Divine Service is held in the big school every Sunday evening, during term time, but arrangements are now being made for the [unclear: perfection] of a school chapel.

The following is a list of the masters:—Head master, Rev. B.W Harvey, M.A., school St. John's, Cam.; second master, Walter Empson, B.A., Oxen; assistants, C. Wilson, C. Rees-Mogg, St. Albans Hall, Oxen; Bowden Smith, F. Field. Drawing, R. Pownall.

M. R. Jackson's Saleyards, Victoria Avenue, and St. Hill Street.

These sale yards have been established for a number of years, and occupy a very central position in the Avenue. They are entered by an archway; the offices are on the right as you enter, and the eye is immediately struck by the size and completeness of the arrangements. The cattle yards and enclosures are numerous, and sufficiently strong to stand any amount of rough usage, and are surrounded by platforms, which enable the spectators to see everything and be out of danger. The sheep yards are flagged, and when not in use are kept beautifully clean. There is also a large sheep dip, and every facility for buyers to examine stock. The sheep and cattle sales are held every alternate Wednesday, special sales for horses, carriages, buggies, harness, &c., being held every Saturday. The agency for the steamboat Huia, is also held by Mr. Jackson.

Barns and Higgie's Sale Yards, Campbelltown.

Sales are held every alternate Wednesday with F. R. Jackson's, so that Wanganui has a weekly cattle sale. Barns and Higgie have large enclosures for every description of stock, which are situated about 200 yards from the Bridge, on the River Bank. Cattle, sheep, horses, traps, carriages, and farm produce are sold every sale day, at the yards. The yards are capable of holding 400 head of cattle, and 3000 sheep, and are frequently full. The offices and auction rooms are on Taupo Quay, where sales of furniture, general merchandise, and farm produce, are periodically held.

The Wanganui Newspapers

Are the morning paper "Wanganui Chronicle," and the evening paper, "The Wanganui Herald," the latter is owned by a joint stock company. The papers are opposed in politics, but on questions affecting the good of the district, they are generally on the same side. They have each an extensive circulation, and are equally well patronised, both in town and country.

Soler's Vineyard,

Situated in Bell Street, covers about three acres of ground, and is well worth a visit. The proprietor is by birth a Spaniard, and is a practical winemaker; the vines are trained on trellis work, and when in leaf the aspect of the long vistas, especially' when the clusters of grapes are pendant overhead, is very beautiful. This industry is languishing, consequent on the duties on spirits not enabling the proprietor to ship his produce, and so compete with Australia. Should the Government remove the duties, he is prepared to go into vine growing on a large scale up the river, but not otherwise. He obtains forty tons of grapes on the average, from the three acres, and makes sixteen different kinds of wine. He has wine up to sixteen years old.

Hogg's Steam Confectionery, Biscuit Manufactory, and Bakery

Are in the Avenue, and consist of engine and boiler house, fitted with one of Murray's horizontal engine and 10-h.p. boiler. The stoic room is capacious, and contains on the average, twenty tons of flour, and is iron lined. The next room contains the biscuit machines, driven by steam power. There are four of these machines—the mixer, from which the dough passes to the next machine, called a break roller, and from thence to the cutting machine, which delivers the biscuit ready for the oven. The break roller has three deliveries; near these are twenty-four different kinds of dies, or moulds for biscuits. The corner opposite the oven contains a copper boiler, and a long stone table divided by stiff iron ribs, is covered by hot sugar being passed from table to table, and finally, after passing through a machine, coming out in the various kinds of lollies so dear to the colonial child; nothing can be cleaner than everything about the place. In another part of the room are buns emerging from the oven, and tins of various shapes, contain tarts and pies, and even a wedding cake ready for its coat of icing. All round the shelves are ranged a goodly stock of lollies in tins, and biscuits of all
descriptions, shewing that Mr. Hogg’s business has a wider range than the town of Wanganui.

**Staffan’s Rope Works**

Are in St. Hill Street, and many excellent kinds of twine and rope are turned out.

**Mitchell and Richards’ Meat Preserving Works.**

Few of our readers, perhaps, have any idea of the importance of the industry springing up here in this line. Those who see the large quantities of meat which come down from the slaughter yards in the waggons may be able to imagine what is being done, but neither this, nor seeing the number of cases and casks shipped to Wellington, would enable them to form a correct idea of the work being done. To get at this it is necessary almost to go through the works, but as this is not possible for all, perhaps a few figures may enable them to form some idea. In the first place, 150 head of cattle are put through in a week, and if this rate is kept up long, graziers need have no fear of a market for their stock. The number could easily be increased to 300 head if the firm were pushed with orders which required immediate execution. The firm do very little in the way of preserving mutton, beef being the article for which they have most demand. Of course, to put through the number of cattle named, a large staff of hands are required, and at present the firm have over sixty hands in employment—that is, counting case-makers, cooperers, and others, who, though kept employed by the industry, do not work on the premises. The scene at the Guyton Street works is a busy one. The meat is received there in boxes (having been boned at the slaughter-house), and from these it is emptied on to tables, and thence conveyed to the boilers as required. After being boiled for a time it is taken out of the pan, cut up, and tinned. A number of men and boys are employed doing nothing else but filling tins and compressing the meat by means of screws. The tins having been filled, they are sent to the upper floor by means of an hydraulic lift; here the tins are topped, and then placed in pans to boil for a certain length of time. A hole is left in the top of each tin, which allows the steam to escape; after standing for a time the holes are soldered up, and then the tins are lifted out by a block and chain and conveyed to a cold water bath, in which they remain until cold enough to handle. When the time comes they are painted, labelled, and cased, and then are ready for export. That a large space is required for storage goes almost without saying, and seeing that during last week there were over one hundred tons of tinned meat on the premises, our readers can easily imagine that already the firm find themselves cramped for want of room. To resume our description of the ground-floor, we may state that tinned beef is not by any means the only branch of the business, for stacked along the walls we noticed large quantities of salted beef stacked in tiers, and for which we believe there is a very large demand. Large tierces of boiled beef were also to be noticed stacked up. Next we noticed a plentiful supply of ox tails, ox tongues, kidneys, &c., all of which are preserved by the firm, and for which they find a ready sale. These delicacies, together with soups, sheep's tongues, and other small lines, are popular, and the firm have resolved to go in for another line, viz., roast beef. To supply this, they are having a 400-gallon tank fixed up as a gas stove, and in this the roasting will be done. It would not do to pass over the tin-making in such an establishment, for this is one of the most important branches of the industry. On the day we visited the works it was estimated 1650 tins would be turned out, and it goes without saying that, to achieve that result, a large number of hands have to be kept on. The majority of those employed are boys, and the dexterity with which they put together the tins is remarkable. The whole of the cooking, is done by steam, for which purpose a boiler, manufactured by Mr. D. Murray, has been erected. In this manner it may be seen that one local industry helps another, and we are glad to be able to record the fact that our local foundry can in such lines compete successfully with those of other places.

**Walter Armstrong’s Engineering Works,**

Ridgway Street, are another example of the resources of the town; here are tools, and labour saving machines, suitable for making or repairing any article, from the small spring of a sewing machine, to the largest piece of machinery. At the period of a visit paid quite recently, there were quite a number of men and boys employed at the various benches, and in another department, gun repairing was being carried on, to say nothing of the shoeing forge in full swing.

**Wanganui Parcels Receiving and Forwarding Agency.**

We have to direct our readers' attention to Messrs. Pollard and Simes' advertisement, and to impress upon the mind of the public in the British Isles that those who have friends in New Zealand, and are desirous of sending small parcels as presents, not to forget to send them through Messrs Sutton, of London, addressed to Messrs. Pollard & Simes, of Wanganui. We also notice that the same firm have large blocks of land for sale,
and persons with limited income desirous of obtaining small farms, at low rates, should place themselves in
direct communication with Messrs. Pollard & Simes, who will favour them promptly with full particulars.

**Churches.**

Christ Church: Rev. T. L. Tudor, Church of England.
St. Mary's: Father Kirk, Roman Catholic.
Baptist Church: Rev. Lewis Shackleford, Fire Brigade building.
Plymouth Brethren: Bell Street.
decorative feature

**The Wanganui River.**

If the visitor wants to have a comprehensive view of the town, let him do as we did, and mount the steep
flagstaff hill, which looks down upon the river, spanned by its noble bridge on iron piers; and there, while his
sense of smell is regaled with the sweet scent of the blossoming within, his ears ravished with the dulcet
chorus of the warbling larks and linnets, let him feast his eyes on the magnificent panorama which unfolds itself
before his gaze.

Away from the symmetrical town, nestling round its two sandy moles, and skirted by the silvery river at
your feet, your eyes are drawn as by some irresistible fascination to yonder mighty altar, uprearing its spotless
architecture right away up from the [unclear: pony] brethren around it till it stands out clear, distinct, sharp cut,
in virgin purity, looking like 'a great white throne' let down from Heaven.

It is Mount Ruapehu, crowned with eternal snows, draped with samite, and glistening in the sun; and yet so
calm, peaceful, pure, that as you gaze the spell works, and you stand hushed, subdued, and yet with the sense of
a great peace within you, as you think of the pure majesty of the Creator of that wondrous pinnacle of light and
Glory, and can feel that even the tiny lark poised above your head, throbbing with song, has its every feather
noted by His all-seeing eye, and that in the boundless infinitude of His love, you too, have the portion of a
child."

That is what the correspondent of the "Sydney Town and Country Journal" wrote about the view from the
flagstaff, but had he seen the same at sunset, when the glittering white changed to the faintest pink and
deproved to a rosy red, while the sky blazed with ultramarine, vermillion, and gold, and after a while he would
have seen the whole slowly grow grey, fade like a dream into the shadows of night, but leaving a tawny glory in
the west like a pillar of fire.

The river is, perhaps, the most important in New Zealand. When the present snagging operations are
completed, steamboats of a light draught, will be able to proceed up about 140 miles, and though there are no
very extensive plains between Wanganui and Taumarunui, there are numerous valleys running into the
Wanganui, capable of supporting large populations. A main road is to be constructed from Taumarunui to tap
the Central Railroad, which runs through very good land, and, moreover, will be the direct road to the Tuhua or
King Country, where authorized prospectors have quite lately discovered gold, (it has yet to be proved whether
in payable quantities or not). But at any rate, the new country will support a large proportion, and the time is at
hand when it will be opened up.

Between the town of Wanganui and Aramoho, is a fine reach of water, of great depth, used as the course at
the Wanganui Regatta, said to be one of the finest, if not the very best, bit of water for acquatics in the Colony.
And very gay the river looks, when the banks are lined with the well-dressed crowds, and the Garrison Band
enliven the gay scene. But the Wanganui Clubs were no match in 1885 for the Canterbury boys, who went
away from here the champions of the meeting.

From the town to Kennedy's, or Upokongaro, is seven miles, a good road on both sides of the river, or a
fine row in a boat, not sufficient current to make it too great an exertion, and just sufficient to paddle lazily
back with. Kennedy's consists of an hotel, kept by John Kennedy, stores, also belonging to him, school house,
Church of England, and the Court Theatre, a large room, in which is a pretty stage and a beautiful act drop,
painted by Charles D. Barraud (subject, Rio Janeiro). On this little stage have been mounted some of the most
successful pieces produced in this district by amateurs.

There are a good number of families about Upokongaro, and no place in New Zealand enjoys a greater
reputation for hospitality.

From Kennedy's, the river winds a great deal through wooded banks to Kaiwaiki, fourteen miles. At
Parikino and Atene (Athens), are native settlements, but at Ranana, Major Kemp's settlement, about 2000 acres are under cultivation. The cottages, or native whares, are all comfortable. There is also a fine runanga, or meeting house, while a European baker supplies bread to the settlement.

The scenery between Ranana and Jerusalem is splendid, weeping willows overhang both banks of the river, the quince trees are in groves, the peach equally plentiful, and innumerable sheep and cattle dot the hill sides, all the property of the natives.

At Jerusalem, there are about 3000 acres of fine grazing land. There is a Roman Catholic Mission Station, in charge of the Marist Fathers, the Rev. Fathers Soulas and Lepreke, being at present stationed there. A community of Nuns, under Sister Mary Joseph, late of Napier, is also located there. Considerable improvements are being made by the missionaries, a convent and church having just been built. The sisters are chiefly engaged in educating the Maori children.

### Paparoa Wanganui River.

The Island of Moutoa, on which a battle was fought between the friendly and hostile natives, and which saved the town of Wanganui from invasion, is the next point of interest, and the scenery grows wilder and grander every mile. The numerous streams that contribute to the main river have each some special beauty of their own; falls, rapids, gorges, and every now and then splendid passed valleys until Taumarunui is reached. The river upwards from Taumarunui is not so accessible, but it increases in grandeur, and we are told on the authority of Mr. Knorpp, C.E., the scenery is equal to the Rhine and Danube Rivers.

Those who think of forming a party to ascend the river, should first obtain Major Kemp's permission. Probably the best plan would be to consult Mr. R. W. Woon, Native Resident Magistrate, and as a steamboat will be ready for traffic in January next, probably facilities will then be offered that are not now available.

Mr. S. H. Manson, in view of the increasing up-river trade, has, in addition to the stores already established on Taupo Quay, Upokongaro, and Murumotu, opened an additional one at Taumarunui, at the place where the junction of the river and road traffic will join to connect with the Central Railway. This will be a great boon to travellers, who will be able to obtain stores. The building is a weather-board one, and no doubt as the traffic increases Mr. Manson will provide further accommodation for travellers.

### Table of Distances, Wanganui River.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Mileage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wanganui to Kennedy's</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kennedy's to Kaiwaiki</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaiwaiki to Otamari</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otamari to Korinite</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korinite to Ranana</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranana to Tawhitanui</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tawhitanui to Pipiriki</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pipiriki to Utopie</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utopie to Paketapu</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paketapu to Whakahora</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whakahora to Rhakora</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhakora to Taumarunui</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These distances exceed those given by survey, but are the native distances by canoe; the survey makes the distance 14 miles less.

### The Premier's Trip.

The following cutting is from the "Wanganni Herald"—It was generally expected that the Premier would have reached Wanganui on Saturday afternoon, but those who expected him were doomed to disappointment, as he did not reach town until last evening. The party, consisting of the Hon. the Premier, Mr. Blair (Assistant Engineer-in-Chief), Mr. Mills (Managing Director of the Union Steam Shipping Company), and Mr. Rochfort (Surveyor of the Central Line of Railway), left Punit after the sod-turning and visited Orakau, accompanied by the famous old warrior, Rewi. That night they went on to Kihikihi, next day through Cambridge and to Oxford, then on to Wairoa, through Ohinemutu, reaching Rotomahana. Here they stayed, and visited the Pink and White Terraces. Next day they made Taupo, where they put up for a night. The following morning (Monday) they rode to Tokano and rested for the night. Early next morning a start was made for the Wanganui River, and the edge of the bush, Moerangi, was reached by night. Bush travelling was the order of the day on Wednesday, the Paketapu track being used. That evening they slept at Ngapuki, a native village about six miles from Taumarunui. The country had been rather rough; the altitude of the land between Tokano and Taumarunui is some 2,500 feet above sea level. The land has some excellent totara bush on it, and the bush land there is of better quality than the open. At Taumarunui the country lies much lower; there is some good land. On arriving at Taumarunui, at 10 o'clock on Thursday morning, they found a large gathering of natives, who had met there to welcome the Premier. After speeches of a congratulatory character on both sides, the party remained for a few hours getting their traps ready for transhipment, &c. At 3.30 they started by canoe for Wanganui, Mr. Rochefort having made all the necessary arrangements. That night they camped out about a dozen miles below Taumarunui; on Friday, they got within eight miles of Utapu, and camped out. Next morning they stopped at Utapu, where a great tangi was going on. The chiefs there addressed the Minister, thanking him for coming
amongst them, and Mr. Stout replied in suitable terms. Proceeding on their journey, they arrived at Ranana on Saturday night, and finding it impossible to make Wanganui they stayed there, having the use of the fine whare runanga there. Yesterday morning they started on the last section of their river journey, and just below Koriniti they met a canoe sent up by Kemp to meet the Premier. Here they changed canoes, and taking their own men on arrived at Kennedy's about 5.30. Host Kennedy served up a substantial supper for the travellers, who then came on to Wanganui by coach, reaching town at ten minutes to 8. At 12 o'clock a special train left with the party for Foxton, where they were to catch the morning coach. Mr. Rochfort remains in town for a few days, and then returns to Ranana, whence he will travel through to a section of the Central Line on which a party of his men are engaged. The whole of the Ministerial party expressed themselves as highly pleased with their trip, The Premier thinks the river a grand one, and in his opinion it is Wanganui's first duty to have it opened up and made use of. The land which the railroad will tap close to the river is, he says, excellent, and he believes, without expressing a professional opinion, that the river could easily be improved. The river, it may be said, was seen at its worst, inasmuch as it is now very low, but even at this disadvantage it was considered a noble river; Mr. Blair and Mr. Mills both expressed themselves as much pleased with the river, the scenery, and the general appearance of the country. Mr. Rochfort's opinion as to the ease with which the river could be improved is not altered in the least, and he has now seen the river a number of times. Mr. Rochfort informs us that the central line is being "located" now in various places by himself, that when this is done the surveys will be gone on with at once. The tunnel section near the other end has been surveyed, and the plans are now in Wellington. While on the railway business, it may not be out of place to state that the Premier was not able to say whether or not any demonstration could be arranged at Marton, not having been in communication with Wellington for some days he did not know what had been done. With the party there also came to town Te Ngatae te Manuka, the chief of the Taumararunui tribe, and one possessing great influence. This noted chief has not been down to Wanganui for many years, having lived an isolated life at his own settlement.

Wanganui to Ruapehu, Tongariro, Taupo Lakes, and Hot Springs.

The road through the Murimotu branches off at Upokongaro, and I am indebted to Messrs. F. Field and H. M. 13. Marshall, for the following accounts of the journey:—

MR. F. FIELD'S TRIP.

The party to which I belonged consisted of three, all riding, and having an extra horse to carry the swags and tucker. We started on the 16th of January, leaving Upokongaro late in the morning, and in the midst of a shower of rain. Towards afternoon, however, the weather cleared, and we could then travel faster. The flood in the Mangawhero river having fortunately just gone down, we crossed it with tolerable ease, and by sunset had reached a road-party's camp ten miles further on at a place called Te Whaka. Here we spent the night in a spare tent belonging to the men. Our route next day lay chiefly up the Mangawhero valley; where the road sometimes passes along the faces of cliffs at "a considerable height above the river. Here the scenery in winter time is rendered more beautiful still by the numerous waterfalls.; One of these, situated about a quarter of a mile from the track, formed by a large stream that comes from the tableland above, falls from such a height that the water drops on to the rock below in the form of spray, making no noise. The prettiest spot on this part of the line is one where the road comes suddenly out of bush on to one of these cliffs, from which a very fine view of the valley on ahead is obtained; and just below, embosomed in dense bush, are three pretty lakes, skirted with raupo. The largest of these, which the Maories say is inhabited by a Taniwha, looked quite crimson owing to its being completely covered with duckweed; but our appreciation of these beauties of nature was somewhat impaired by the loss of our pack horse, which put an end to its troubles by walking into a chasm close by the track. The poor brute tried to get a footing on the side as he was falling, but this only threw him over so as to land on his back, and he soon died. Of course our things were much damaged by the fall, and to make matters worse, one of my companions sprained his ankle in climbing down the bank. After this accident it was necessary for one of us to give up his horse to the packing and divide the walking with the other two. The track leaves the river at Te Parapara, a comparatively open tract of some thousands of acres in extent. About
four miles beyond this point are situated the great Mangawhero falls. Though their roar can be heard from the road, the country is so rough to travel over that no white man has yet seen them. That night we stopped at Te Kow, another clearing somewhat smaller than the last. Starting early next morning, we crossed the dividing range into the valley of the Wangaehu. The road runs along the top of the range for seven miles, and affords an extensive view on either side. Long before the river itself comes into sight its roar can be heard. It runs very fast over a boulder bed, in a deep chasm, presenting a very wild scene. After descending the range, the ground becomes gradually more level, and is everywhere covered with birch bush till the edge of the plain is reached. Perhaps the most striking sight to be seen in the whole of this trip is that which is afforded upon emerging suddenly from the bush, with part of the plain extending in front and the mountain rising beyond, its slopes clothed almost up to the snowline with forest, which in the gullies appears of a rich purple tinge, and with its snowy peaks towering above. Five miles more took us to Kaioi station, on the Tokiahuru river, where the Murimotu races are annually held on New Year's Day. The rain now began to fall so heavily that we put up here for the night. Next morning brought even worse weather, but we managed to reach a surveyor's camp at the foot of the mountain, a few miles to the eastward. The remainder of that day and the whole of the next we were weather-bound in camp. On the third day, however, the sun shone forth again, and we rode round the base of the mountain to the Rangipo desert. On our way we passed two huge springs, formed no doubt by snow-water soaking through from above. They gush out from the mountain-side in such volumes as to form small rivers at once. Tethering the horses at the edge of the desert, we proceeded across it on foot. This barren waste, stretching away from the mountain to the eastward, is formed of rocks and gravel, in some places mixed with burnt clay, and in others melted into a solid mass by the streams of lava that have run down from the crater. Yet, even though this, deep chasms have been worn by the water that rushes down the mountain's side in wet weather. After a tiresome walk of some miles we arrived at the source of the Wangaehu—a large spring of cream-coloured water, flowing from an immense black rock. Such a quantity of sulphur is there in the water when it issues from the ground as to impregnate the stones along the first few miles of its course, and to discolour the river right down to the sea. On the banks of this stream, at an elevation of 5,000 feet, sea birds build their nests. From this same rock the Waikato is said to take its source, and we found dry water-courses beyond the Wangaehu which in wet weather probably do carry water to the northward. Of our climb up the mountain next day there is not much to be said. For the first two miles or so the ground rises gradually in terraces, which used to be covered with bush, but this has been burnt off in places, having been set on fire (the Maoris say) by lightning; and the clearings thus formed are now covered with native grasses. The commonest of these is the tussock grass, growing, as its name implies, in large tussocks three or four feet high. It is not eaten by the animals except in winter time, when all the smaller stuff is hidden under the snow, and then, too, it gives good shelter to the sheep. As we climbed higher the ascent became steeper, and the vegetation more stunted and harsh, till it disappeared altogether, and the mountain seemed like one vast heap of scoria rocks. Where the vegetation was scanty we noticed many lizards amongst the moss and stones, but all of the same variety. The climb is nowhere very steep, and if there was no large tracts of snow to be crossed, there would be little difficulty in getting to the top. After reaching the snowline we experienced the curious sensation of walking at one minute on the cold snow and the next on the scorching rocks. Another curious thing we noticed was the deceptiveness of the snow. Places that looked almost within a stone's throw took a quarter of an hour to reach. I was surprised too at the quantity of blow-flies and other inserts that live in this strange place. Owing to the quantity of snow on the mountain we were obliged to content ourselves with reaching a shoulder some hundreds of feet below the summit, and here we sat down to enjoy our lunch, and more still, the grand view. Tongariro was smoking at the time, and we could see the vapour rising from the springs, about Taupo. The sea on the West coast was visible, and so would have been that on the East but for the haze, for we could see well over the Kaimanawha range, and as far South as the Rihumutaka. The descent was more awkward than the ascent, but did not take so long. In going up we were very careful to take notice of any prominent feature by the way which might help us to find the same way down, and now we found the advantage of this plan. At one place there were the skeletons of two of the wild horses that used to be so plentiful about the foot of the mountain on this side. From the position they were in, we came to the conclusion that they had been caught in a snow-storm up the mountain side, and, in making their way down a narrow defile, had found their escape stopped by a wall of rock, and died there in the snow, for both had died in a standing position by the side of this wall. It was late in the afternoon when we returned to camp, feeling rather tired, but amply repaid for our trouble.

**MR. MARSHALL'S TRIP.**

**FEBRUARY, 1885.**—Although the Hot Lake District of the North Island is getting better and better known, both from actual experience as well as through the medium of books and papers, yet the country to the south of it, comprising Lake Taupo and the Tongariro group of mountains, is to very many a closed book. This is the
natural result of the hot lakes being such near neighbours, for attention has been bestowed on Rotomahana and other such wonderful resorts, to the neglect of a district much less accessible, viz., Taupo and Tongariro. Hence the traveller through this region has to make shift with very primitive roads, while accommodation has to be sought at the shepherd's hut or Maori kainga, although the beauties and wonders of the country amply repay his discomfort. It was the writer's good fortune to have the opportunity of visiting this part of New Zealand, and to have the companionship of the Rev. T. S. Grace, who was going on his farewell missionary round among the Maoris inhabiting it. We started about the middle of February, spending the first night under the fly of a tent, about 35 miles from Wanganui, and struck camp early the following morning, entering the bush proper at about 8 a.m. The New Zealand forest is full of beauty and interest, teeming with bird life, and thick with vegetable growth of the most startling and impressive kind, from the thin climbing Supplejack, to the monster rata or rimu; but it is very hard to admire it when one's horse is struggling through mud up to the girths, or sliding down a half precipice only to scramble up the text slippery hill. These evils a bush track is full of; scarcely has one difficulty been negotiated than another appears in front. Nor is it without an element of danger, for often a false step would precipitate the rider down a very ugly looking slip, far too steep to be pleasant. It was while toiling along in this manner, about 7 a.m. on the following day, before the sun had dispelled the cold mists, or dried up the drenching dew with which every overhanging bough was charged, that the track crossed over to the sunny side of a sharp spur, and all at once a glimpse as of fairy land burst upon our view. There, in the distance, stood a giant snow-clad mountain dazzling white in the morning sun, rising like a thing of air out of a wide open plain, and though broken and worn by the fires it used to belch forth, yet looking quiet, serene, and peaceful, seen from the darksomeness of that damp, dark bush. This was our first view of Ruapehu, the chief mountain of the Tongariro group, about 9000 feet high. Another five or six hours, and we had emerged from the bush, and, with a sense of freedom like that of escaped prisoners, were cantering over the open plains of Murumotu towards the Maori kainga of Karioi. Here a halt was made, and the next day being Sunday Mr. Grace held two services among the Maoris, baptizing one of their children in the afternoon. There is something very impressive in being present at a service held in a strange tongue. The late Dr. Guthrie explained this when he wrote thus: "I am always glad of an opportunity of being present where God is worshipped in, to me, an unknown tongue; it is to my mind the most impressive of all sermons on His omniscience, and that He is the common Father of us all."

But, to return to the journey. After leaving Karioi the track leads right round the eastern base of Ruapehu. The land has never been cultivated or sown with English grasses, and consequently has a very desert look, which is enhanced by the likeness of the low round hills to the waves of the sea when a big swell is running. Though so wild and waste, this region is very rich in flowers, which are nearly all different from those met with on the coast, for we are now 3000 feet above the sea level; among the most striking of these is the copper-leaved gentian, which grows on the bare sand where nothing else does, and has a brilliant bunch of pure white flowers. There is a great black rock visible near the bottom of Ruapehu, and out of this flow two rivers—the Waikato, which flows through Lake Taupo and thence into the sea on the west coast of the island, nearly as far north as Auckland; and the Wangaehu, which flows out near Wanganui.

As we go on we discover that Ruapehu is not alone in his glory. Behind him appears another giant, smaller, it is true, and dwarfed by his enormous neighbour, but even more interesting, for it is an active volcano. It is commonly known as Tongariro, though the real name is Ngauruhoe, Tongariro proper being a large flat-topped mountain further still to the north. The Maoris have a legend that Taranaki or Mount Egmont was at one time situated here, on a sight now occupied by a small lake. As time went on, however, Tongariro and Taranaki fell out, both being rivals for the hand of Pihanga, which is a smaller mountain near. From words they came to blows, and in the fight which took place the volcano had the best of it; Taranaki was obliged to fly, and made for the sea coast as quickly as possible. On his way to where he now stands he ploughed out the course of the Wanganui river, and the Maoris still show a large rock which he lost in transit, and which now stands in the bed of the river. Perhaps this relic is as genuine as many such are. Most of the land here is used for running sheep, and is held on lease from the Maoris, who are not always easy landlords to deal with. In the first place the lease has to be

Lake Taupo.

signed by from sixty to two hundred Maoris, and until this has been accomplished the runholder can make no improvements, for the moment he does so the price of the lease goes up accordingly. Until all signatures are made the lease is not legal, and the natives are never in any hurry to have the matter settled. If any one dies before the signatures are all affixed, his heirs, male and female, have to be found and their signatures obtained, which often delays the whole affair for a year, during which period someone else is pretty sure to die, and his heirs have to be found. The following is one of the difficulties experienced in dealing with the Maoris in money
matters. A manager of a run in Murumotu began to build a house in place of the whare in which he had been hitherto living. There was however no clay handy with which to make bricks for the chimneys, so he had to get leave from a tribe of Maoris living near to make them on their land, for a consideration. All went well till the bricks were made and burnt, but just when they were to be carted away another tribe stepped in, saying the land belonged to them, and they would not allow the bricks to be taken away before they were paid for them. The first tribe were in the trick, they had got their money, and now lent a helping hand to their needy brethren. There was no help for it; the manager could not take the bricks by force, and would not pay double the very high price originally asked, so there the bricks remain to this day.

While abreast of Tongariro we get the first view of Lake Taupo, down the valley of the Southern Waikato. The meaning of Taupo is "settling at night," the idea being that a shag starting from the sea would have to fly all day and only alight on the lake at night. Before coming to Taupo itself there is a smaller lake to the south-west which merits attention. It is called Roto Aira, or "little lake," and is that on whose site the Maoris say Mount Egmont originally stood. Set in the midst of bush-clad mountains of great height, it is a veritable gem of scenery, and so not lone and wild as is generally the case, for in the foreground is a flourishing Maori kianga called Poutu, in which live an abundant population of men, women, children and dogs. At the western end of this lake is a large cavern, out of which an immense spring of water flows, gushing out from the bowels of the earth, and at a certain season of the year this stream is thick with fish, which the Maories catch by spreading nets across the mouth of the cave. Where this body of water springs from is totally unknown, but for the fish to breed and be reared in such numbers every year there must be ample accommodation for the finny tribe within.

Poutu is the home of Topia, one of the chiefs who lately went with Tawhiao to England, to whom we paid a visit. He was very dignified, made us sit down and gave us dry bread and tea, which was very acceptable. On the road hence we met another rangatira Maori, by name Te Heu Heu, the greatest chief of the district, and indeed by descent higher in rank than Tawhiao himself. His power or "mana" is, however, fast on the decline, all through his love of drink. He is never without it, except when he can't get it, and this once noble specimen of the aboriginal is fast degrading into a type of a class far too numerous among ourselves.

From Poutu a short ride brings us to Taupo itself. Tokanu, at the southern extremity of the lake, is becoming quite an important place, and the Maoris have been having animated discussions as to whether they will allow of a township being formed there. Close by Tokanu is a natural plateau, about a square mile in extent, which is literally full of boiling springs; it is unsafe to venture across it without a guide, and in many places the crust of solid earth bends with one's weight like thin ice. On one side is a boiling mud hole, bubbling with a hollow ghastly sound; on the other, a petrifying spring as clear as crystal, while all round are wreaths and jets of steam, denoting the position of various springs. Sometimes the water flows from one of these boiling springs into a large basin near by where it partially cools and becomes a perfect hot water bath; one of them in particular is about thirty feet in diameter and 15 feet deep, perfectly clear and just the right heat to be pleasant. The country all round is studded with steam jets, and above the lake several are seen on the face of a hill where once an enormous landslip came down and buried old Te Heu Heu, the uncle of the present man of that name, and one of the greatest Maoris that ever lived.

From Tokanu the road leads right round the eastern side of the Lake to Tapuaeharuru, "the thundering footstep," so called from the noise a footstep makes, and the distance at which it can he heard, which is due to the ground being formed wholly of pumice. The Lake is 25 miles long and 15 miles in extreme breadth. In many places it is extremely deep, and in one place no bottom has yet been found. We have now come into the region of Tourists who pass through this place on their way from Auckland and the North to Napier, and vice versa, for a good coach runs right through, Tapuaeharuru is quite a township, and is the head quarters of the Armed Constabulary. There are two hotels, reading-room, post and telegraph office, and various stores, many of which are new. But there is one great drawback to the place, viz., that it is nearly impossible to keep a horse there, there being nothing for it to feed on. Grass grows at any rate in the gullies, pretty well, but it seems to all through his love of drink. He is never without it, except when he can't get it, and this once noble specimen of the aboriginal is fast degrading into a type of a class far too numerous among ourselves.

Tapuaeharuru has many lions. Notably "the witches' cauldron," a huge bubbling boiling spring rising out of the earth in a small cave; the "crow's nest," a veritable geyser, which sends intermittent jets of boiling water 40 feet into the air; each jet is prefaced by a rumbling noise like that preceding an earthquake, rushing out of a small hole, all round which is a curious structure about 7 feet high, something like a gigantic bird's nest, hence the [unclear: name]. The river Waikato, too, which flows out of the lake near the township, is one of the wonders of the place. It is very deep, dark, and swirling, running between high cliffs, which here and there close together, leaving a deep narrow chasm in which there is room for the river alone. About five miles from the lake the river narrows and rushes down a steep natural race, 150 or 200 yards in length, and then falls over a ledge about 30 feet high. From the previous rushing and tumbling the water is turned into [unclear: foam], and
when it falls into the basin below, it is one mass of dazzling white, with a glittering tint of green, so bright that it is impossible to gaze upon it with unshaded eyes. Hence the Maori name Huka, or "white" waterfall, the same word that is used by them for ice or snow.

There are also several hot baths here, several of which have been [unclear: roofed] over, and thus made private. They are situated in a deep [unclear: gully], and belong to a Mr. Loffley, who has a boarding establishment on the spot, where visitors may make sure of being made comfortable. In this little gully all sorts of trees have been planted and seem to thrive wonderfully, being sheltered from all winds, and altogether the place is quite an oasis in the midst of a [unclear: pumice] desert.

Visitors to the Hot Springs in the Taupo country, on their return [unclear: invariably] speak in the highest terms of the urbanity and kindness of Loffley, the landlord, guide, counsellor, and friend of all tourists or invalids who seek his abode in pursuit of pleasure or of health. Mr. Loffley is the "life and soul" of the visitors, his wit and fund of stories, of fun, amusement, and adventure in all parts of the world, keeping up the spirits of many, who from the weakness [unclear: consequent] upon failing health, would otherwise be apt to give way [unclear: to] feelings of despondency. In the last disturbance with the Maoris, Loffley served as guide, and did good service in whatever engagement he took part. His eagerness to attack and get hand-to-hand with the enemy, gained him from our native allies the title of Kokiri-Charge. He was equally respected by friend and foe. We learn that he has now settled down into more peaceful pursuits. The only drawback he suffers is having to wear trousers in place of the more comfortable and elegant shawl, then worn as a kilt. But Kokiri, like the rest of us, must bow to the commands of stern civilization.

Two days is not enough to see all that is to be seen in Tapuaeharuru, and therefore much must be left unnoticed. With regard to the climate of the lake, it seems to be very healthily situated, the atmosphere is clear and bright, and as a rule, fine. The weather here is quite different from that in the mountain region to the south, where rain in summer and snow in winter are constant; the evilly disposed elements do not seem able to storm the land of the lake, but spend their force on its confines.

In these days of progress it will not be long before this region it traversed by the iron horse, when it will be opened of course to many who are not now able to take advantage of the scenery and health giving resorts. Though this is a subject for congratulation, at the same time that weird solitude must be taken from it, which seldom reigns where man is at all a frequent visitor, and never where he has brought the works of his hands, making noise, bustle, and confusion in place of quiet, solitude, and peace.

decorative feature

Rangitikei River.

Wahganui to Foxton.

CROSSING the river by the bridge, and proceeding by No. I Line past the Putiki Mission Station, Kaitoke Lake, and by this prettily diversified road, we come to the Wangaehu Valley. The descent is not very steep, and winds considerably before the bottom is reached. There is an hotel close to the bridge. The population of the valley is not large; there is a native settlement and several stations, of which Owen and Lethbridge's is the chief one.

Turakina.

A very pretty drive of 14 miles, over an undulating road, well kept, brings one to the Turakina Valley, in which the township lies scattered all about. The population numbers about 400, and the Highland names of many of the settlers show the origin of the greater portion of the population. The road and also the railway descend from the table land on each side of the valley, the railway circling round it, and crossing the bridge close to the one by which the road does. Turakina owes its existence to its fine situation as a resting place for travellers when the traffic was by the high road, and the place enjoyed additional prosperity during the late Maori war, as it was the headquarters of Mr G. Y. Lethbridge, who had extensive contracts for the supply of the troops, who numbered at one time about 6000. It contains stores, an Anglican and Presbyterian Churches, and in addition to the usual Government schools, the private scholastic establishment of the Rev. J. Ross. The scenery of the Turakina River is exceedingly pretty, and will be a likely trout stream in the future. The estate of the late Hon. W. B. Rhodes stretches the greater part of the way between Bulls and Turakina, and contains about 30,000 acres of magnificent land. Hotels—Gwynne's and Hawkins'. The chief trade of the township is in
the hands of Mr. G. Franklin, Post Office Store, whose wagons tap the up-country trade as far as Marton, which
is distant 9 miles.

Marton.

This town is named after the birthplace of Captain Cook. It is the capital of the Rangitikei district, and is
the most populous and well-built town, next to Palmerston, of the inland towns on the coast, and being at the
junction of the northern line of railway now in course of construction, is rapidly rising. Nearly the whole, of the
country surrounding Marton is laid off in square mile blocks, sub-divided into farms of 80 acres. There are
good roads running all round the district. The visitor will be astonished at the number of good residences in
every direction. In the matter of roads Marton is well off, a main road goes through Turakina to Wanganui;
another to the upper portion of the Manawatu district; another extends northwards and taps the best of the
farming country; another road, the Pukepapa, runs north and south.

Marton dates from about 1864, and originally consisted of the usual hotel and store, but now is a
municipality, and has an extensive system of water supply, lately constructed. The ‘Rangitikei Advocate’ is a
daily newspaper of considerable circulation, and enjoys, under the editorship of Mr. Claude Hearn, considerable
influence in the neighborhood, as is usually the case with the local press in New Zealand, more especially this
part of the North Island. And it must be confessed the press, as a rule, does everything it can to keep the best
interests of the districts before the public.

The town is decidedly pretty and worth a visit. Some of the buildings are handsome—the Anglican Church,
St. Stephen’s, being the most conspicuous in the town. There is a Drill Hall, Masonic Hall, Friendly Society’s
Hall, four churches, several excellent hotels, and the streets are well laid out, and contain numerous shops of a
very attractive character.

There is plenty of good land for sale near Marton. Messrs. Beckett, Hammond, and Smith, in one block,
6000 acres, and Mr. D. C. Tennent has about 10,000 acres for sale. All this land is near the town. Both firms are
well established and known for probity.

Local Industries.

Pedro Gomez, lemonade and soda-water manufacturer, at Bulls and Marton. Both these factories contain
every requirement in the shape of machinery. Mr. Gomez has, however, one speciality, namely, "Booth’s
Celebrated Non-intoxicating [unclear: Horehound] Tonic Champagne," which he has recently introduced. Both
of his establishments are worth a visit.

Bulls (or Clifton)

Is a very pleasantly situated place on the Rangitikei River, about four miles from the railway line, with
which communication is kept up twice daily by coach. The road is always in splendid order, and the drive,
although short, is one of the most enjoyable in the neighborhood. The land around is flat, intersected with
ridges, and the view, eastwards, of the Tararua and Ruahine Ranges is grand in the extreme; while in the north
the giant Ruapehu looms up grand, solitary, and alternately glistening and gloomy. Numerous streams, as is the
case all over New Zealand, fringed by the native flax and grass trees, make up constantly changing vistas, made
still more charming by the many well-built and opulent dwellings in and around this district. There are many
petty drives: to the beach, about 10 miles; Parawanui, about 7; Marton, 6. Westoe, Sir Wm. Fox’s property, is
also about 6 miles and looks up the Rangitikei River, the scenery of which gets very grand the higher up one
ascends. The river is very broad opposite Westoe, and broken into numerous streams. In 1881 a flood carried
away the railway bridge, and the district at once went back ten years in its mode of locomotion. Passengers had
to be ferried across the river; the trains, North and South, running to their respective banks and then back again.
Bulls has a number of hotels, the usual branch banks, a Masonic Hall, several large stores, and is named after
the founder, Mr. James Bull, who settled here in 1859, and started the town by building an hotel and store. The
Anglican Church is a pretentious looking edifice (at a distance), the Rev. J. Dodwell, M.A., being curate in
charge; Presbyterian Church, Rev. Dowell; and a Wesleyan Church. From Bulls (or Clifton) to Marton is 6
miles, and to Turakina, 16 miles; there being a direct road to Turakina. To the mouth of the Rangitikei River, at
which small vessels call during the summer, 17 miles.

There is also a racecourse and Jockey Club, with grand stand and every accommodation for carrying on
race meetings. The Rangitikei settlers carry out coursing during the season, and have a grand meeting once a year, hares being very plentiful all through the district.

**Greatford**

Owes its existence to the railway, and a cluster of houses, with a store, make up a small village.

**Halcombe**

Is the first township on the Manchester Block, and the land round about is chiefly devoted to farming, like all the rest of this block. At present, it has little claim to beauty; the recent settlement of it has not allowed time for the ground to be thoroughly cleared. Probably in a few years time it will be full of beauties. There is a good hotel, the offices of the Town Board, State School, Banks, and the Emigrant and Colonial Aid Corporation are the principal buildings. There is a Rood refreshment room at the railway station, where a comfortable meal may be procured.

**Feilding.**

Roe’s Denbigh Hotel.

This town has been settled about 10 years, and owes its name to Colonel Feilding, who formed, with a number of English capitalists, a special settlement. It has made rapid progress; is now a municipality, has about 1,500 inhabitants, a newspaper (the 'Feilding Star;') has Anglican, Presbyterian, and Wesleyal Churches, three handsome hotels, and many good shops and stores. The name of the block on which the township is built is the Manchester, and is now pretty well settled. Good roads run through it in all directions, and the saw-mill industry is also in full swing, but farming is the chief pursuit. Many of the settlers came out specially to settle on this block, and traces of their industry can be seen on every side. No doubt they have had their share of hard times, but a rich reward awaits the settlers of the whole of these settlements in the future. The population of Feilding contains more than the usual proportion of the English middle class; indeed this part of the district and the Rangitikei may be said to be in the hands of people of more than usual education and ability. It remains to be seen whether this class can successfully lay aside their former habits and Old Country ideas, and develop into colonial farmers. So far as outside appearances go, the experiment has succeeded, and Anglo-Saxon energy has, as usual, triumphed over the difficulties of nature.

**Manawatu Gorge.**

**Palmerston North.**

Hotels: Club; Walkley's; Fenton's; Clifford's Princess Hotel, Terrace End.
Newspapers: 'Manawatu Times' and 'Standard' every evening.
Places of interest: Ashurst (village); Awapuni Lake and Park; Manawatu Gorge.

From the commencement of the Manchester Block to Palmerston there is little beauty on the line of rail, but there is evidence of the indomitable industry of the settlers; mile after mile of bush felled, and here and there clearings, and fencings; saw-mills, some in operation, some deserted, but all clearly indicating an outlay of capital. The blackened stumps and dense bush impart a monotony to this part of the journey, that is intensified by the stoppage every few minutes to shunt, and when at length the train emerges into the open at Terrace End, a feeling of relief is experienced. Palmerston North is laid out in square blocks, the streets running at right angles. The principal business portion of the town is a large square with the railroad and station running through the centre, the sides being occupied with stores, shops, banks, and hotels of unusual size for an inland town. The hotels are very large, and fitted up with accommodation for travellers, with many conveniences not always to be found elsewhere. There must be an immense floating population to keep these houses going, and all seemingly doing a large trade. The population of Palmerston North is about 2000, governed by a Municipal Council, and, from the position the town occupies and the resources of the country surrounding it, must long enjoy a condition of prosperity, subject of course to brief periods of depression common to all centres. A glance
at the map will at once show that Palmerston is the centre where the principal roads meet, and the traveller can
go to Wellington either by the Masterton route or Foxton, to Napier and the Hawke's Bay district; while to the
north the railroad is available to New Plymouth, and thence from Waitara by steamboat to Auckland.

In the matter of amusements the Palmerstonians are not behind the rest of the coast. They have a good

The chief industries in and about Palmerston are timber, immense quantities of which find its way all over

A trip to Ashurst will repay the tourist, as by climbing some of the hills around a splendid view of Ruapehu

Considerable excitement is, while this work is in the Press, being manifested about the alleged discovery of

Manawatu River and Gorge.

The Manawatu River rises in the Tararua and Ruahine Ranges, and, before entering the Gorge, consists of a

Foxton.

Excursions to Tararua Ranges. Sea Beach, three miles.

Manawatu River.

Foxton is the port for the Manawatu district, on the river of that name, and is a well-built township,
containing upwards of [unclear: 800] inhabitants. The public offices are—Post, Telegraph, Public Works, Harbour Board, County Council, Public Library, and Town Board. There are three hotels, four churches, and the Government schools; all the Banks are represented, and a large public hall, in Main Street, is available for concerts, theatrical representations, &c.

The Manawatu is a bar river, and falls into the sea about three miles below the township. There is a good Government wharf, and the steamers Tui and Jane Douglas ply regularly between Foxton and Wellington, carrying passengers and cargo, the chief exports being timber, wool, butter, cheese, potatoes, &c. Although the soil is sandy about the town, on the outskirts it is of a very different character, and very fertile, enabling the occupiers to grow almost anything. The climate is mild, and, the district being very considerably sheltered by the Tararua Ranges, is of an unusually healthy nature. A coach runs daily between Foxton and Wellington, and, after passing the long beach drive, the road runs through some of the most magnificent scenery in this part of the Island.

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Opunake Harbour (From the A.C. Redoubt.)

Wanganui to New Plymouth.

The traveller leaves Wanganui by the northern road and ascends the long hill bordered by the loveliest fern gullies, every now and then catching glimpses of the blue Pacific—down the hill again to the hamlet of Kai Iwi, with its pah, one hotel, station, and sprinkling of houses; up again on to the table land, past Maxwelltown, Nukumaru, Waitotara, to Waverley, where now all is a smiling country, prosperous, with well built houses, rich corn and pastures. A few years ago war was destroying all hope and ruining the settlers; all that is past, but the graves of the soldiers and settlers are dotted wherever the fighting took place, on the sandhills at Nukumaru, and at numerous places right on to Patea, or Carlyle, as it was once known as.

Patea.

Hotels.—Albion. Central.

The terminus of the Railway for a considerable time, and the depot and emporium of trade; this state of things passed away as the line advanced, and the town suffered in consequence. The resources of the country round about Patea are too great to allow the town to languish long. A meat preserving and canning industry was established: this was burnt down in the early portion of 1885, and has not yet been rebuilt. However, endeavours are being made to get the concern into working order, and the importance of it to the district is too great for it to remain long in abeyance. Another unfortunate speculation that ought to have been of the utmost
benefit died in its infancy—the manufacture of tiles and pottery; there are large deposits of clay of the right
description, and some day no doubt it will be again taken up with profit and advantage. The Patea river is
navigable for small craft, and the Patea Steam Shipping Company's boat runs regularly between Patea, Nelson,
and Wellington.

The town is on the northern bank of the river, and contains many good houses, stores, and hotels. All the
principal banks are represented. The Churches are handsome, and the "Patea Mail" newspaper has an extensive
circulation. The population is about 1,100, and the town is governed by Mayor and Corporation.

Leaving Patea, Kakaramea, a flourishing township, is next passed, then Manutahi, another township with a
large population surrounding it—and thence by a most beautiful drive to Hawera, from which locality the first
glimpse of Mount Egmont is obtained in its full grandeur, from peak to base.

Hawera.

Hotels.—Empire. Gallagher's.
Places of interest.—Sea Beach.—Normanby.

Hawera is a town of considerable importance, and supplies the large population of the plains, is governed
by a Mayor and Corporation, has comfortable, large hotels, and from Hawera coaches leave for Opunake and
New Plymouth via the coast. The township of Normanby is only a few miles distant, nearer the base of the
mountain. Here the tourist for the first time is able to grasp the extent of plain country he is about to enter on.
The town of Hawera is built upon the flat, and from it he can make excursions up the line towards New
Plymouth by either rail or the mountain, or to the sea coast, or to the plains, and by making Hawera his head
quarters for a few days, he will be able to see much of Maori life and manners.

The streets of Hawera are well laid out, the Government Offices, Post, Telegraph, Court House are well
built, and, though of wood, are pretentious structures. The Drill Hall, Masonic Hall, and Oddfellows’ Hall fit
well for entertainments. Hawera is considered a very gay inland town, and possesses a great name on the coast
for hospitality and amusement.

From Hawera to Opunake.

You leave Hawera by the well-kept high road that follows the coast line, having the mountains in sight the
whole way, and a very pleasant drive it is through the Waimate plains, dotted with innumerable native pahs and
with the thriving homesteads of European settlers. Every now and then, when the Clematis is in flower, and the
rest of the bush bright with the wealth of native flowers, you get a constant succession of picturesque bits, it is
rather aggravating, as the coach rolls remorselessly on without regard to the landscape.

There are several hamlets on the road, but Manaia is the only place approaching a township, and the streets
seemed thronged, [unclear: chiefly] with Maoris. Otakeo and Oeo are merely hotels and stores, the latter not
even having a Post Office, but the wealth of the plains is in the rich land that abounds, affording, as it will do in
the future, work to thousands.

There are few places of interest on the route to Opunake, except Maori Pahs, a few deserted redoubts, and
the homesteads of the Europeans. The rivers are all beautiful and would probably make good trout streams.
There is Egmont always grand on your right, and very considerably changed in shape he is by the time you
arrive at Opunake.

Opunake

Consists at present of two hotels, Prosser's and Middleton's, several stores, Court House, Post and
Telegraph Office, and Government Schools.

There is a large farming community round, and the settlement of most of it is so recent, that one cannot say
much of its capabilities as an agricultural district. There is a flax mill, a [unclear: cordial] manufactory, and
brewery.

But the chief beauty of the place consists in its harbour, a bay of no very great size, but capable of being
made with a small outlay the emporium for the whole district. There appears to be a reef running across the
entrance, leaving only a narrow opening for steamers to pass into the harbour. This could be easily blasted at
low water, and with the erection of a jetty or wharf, would obviate the present unwieldy and troublesome
method of transhipping by surf boats. The southern side of the harbour is crowned by the Armed Constabulary
redoubt. It is worth a visit; the men's quarters are clean, the clematis has been trained over the walls, and has a cheerful appearance; the men have a reading room and library, and own a boat in which they indulge in excursions. The [unclear: cemetery] is about a mile to the southward of the town, the principal subject of interest there being Miss Dobie's monument, who was murdered by a native a few years ago.

The drive from Opunake to New Plymouth passes through slightly more diversified country, and Mount Egmont has company in the shape of ranges that come into view after passing Rahotu. The Rahotu redoubt is a still formidable stockade on a hill, and is very strong. There is an hotel and one house a mile nearer Parihaka.

At Pungarahu there is a Police Station and redoubt, but under the present ministry the men have been removed, and a Sergeant of Police and one or two men now keep order. You can go by a somewhat winding pathway to Parihaka, but there is nothing very picturesque about it, and now the excitement of Te Whiti's teaching has died away, very little to repay one for the divergency from the main road. The scenery gets more diversified now up and down hill, the Sugar Loaves come into sight, and New Plymouth is reached.

New Plymouth.

Hotels.—White Hart Hotel. Imperial. Coombes's.
Place of Amusement.—Alexandra Hall.

The town of New Plymouth contains much that is of interest to the traveller. Here is a church built by the troops, and numerous monuments and graves, which speak of those who fell fighting the Maori and are now almost forgotten. The Gardens and Lake are still in their infancy, but will repay a visit, and some day will form the show place of the province. The hotels and shops differ in no way from those of Wanganui, Palmerston, or Wellington, and visitors intending to ascend the mountain must, at any rate, make New Plymouth their headquarters. The Public Hall is a very large building, with stage and every convenience for entertainments. A splendid view is obtained from Marsland Hill of the country round about.

The Sugar Loaves are remarkable conical hills,—one of them being on the main land which the coach passes on the road from Opunake, called Paritutu,—and are volcanic in their origin. The others in the Bay are called Ngamohu by the Maoris, and are being utilised for the formation of the fine breakwater, which is already far enough advanced to allow vessels to come alongside and to discharge and take in cargo. The plans for the breakwater were prepared by Sir John Coode, C.E. When completed, it will be 2,330 feet in length; there will be jetties or wharves capable of allowing vessels of the largest size to load and discharge in the heaviest gales. The benefit of this work to the district will be of the utmost importance. Formerly the Union Company's vessels passed New Plymouth, when the weather was too rough to allow the surf boats to work, and passengers had to be carried on.

The Province of Taranaki was settled in 1841. Mr. Carrington, the New Plymouth Company's surveyor, fixed the present site, and

New Plymouth Breakwater.

the barque William Byron, was the first vessel to arrive with emigrants.

At present, New Plymouth has over three thousand inhabitants. The soil is exceedingly fertile, and there is a great deal of land yet open for settlement. All round the slopes of Mount Egmont the rich volcanic soils will amply repay whoever settles on them, and if at present the district is languid, it is because the population is so sparse.

Vine-growing will no doubt be a flourishing industry at some future date; at present there is very little carried on. Tobacco of a very superior quality can also be grown with considerable profit. The timber will prove of great value in the future, as the farther back the settler goes into the ranges the more superior is the quality of the timber.

Local Industries.

The New Plymouth Sash and Door Factory, Limited,

Have their extensive premises in Gill street, New Plymouth. Here every possible want can be supplied to the builder. Doors, sashes of all descriptions, architrave mouldings, turnery and cooery, from hogsheads and
casks of the largest size to the handy little American bucket. This Company have their own sawmills at Ngaire, and are able to choose the very best timber for their purpose. They also keep all kinds of ironmongery for the building trade. Mr. E. H. Tribe is the Secretary for the Company.

**Avery’s Printing Establishment,**

Brougham Street, is a very complete establishment. Every kind of work is undertaken, from posters to visiting cards, while in the shop attached, is a choice assortment of stationery, books, &c., &c.

Ascent of Mount Egmont.

By Messrs. E. and C. W. Jennings.

Mount Egmont, or Taranaki, is 8,270 feet above the level of the sea, and the distance from New Plymouth to the foot, over the Pouakai Range, is 18 or 20 miles. It has been ascended by many, and by some ladies of Taranaki, and even of Nelson, but generally in the month of March, and with guides. This ascent was made in the month of December, snow climbing being a new thing to two of us. We could not wait any later, so determined to try it as it was, as old hands told us it could be done, though it was at an unusual time for such an expedition. We found a Mr. T., (a native schoolmaster) who wished to go, so we travelled together. My brother and I started into town (from Omata, 7½ miles) where we found Mr. T. ready; then we astonished a few "natives" who were about by trying the shop doors till ten minutes past 8 o’clock armed to the teeth, of course, with moleskins, panikin, billy, sheath-knife, &c. We thought of "Sleepy Hollow" with something like satisfaction, and having procured some necessary biscuits, we gave up the less necessary articles we had intended to get and travelled at a good round pace in order to reach Code's, at the foot of the Ponaki Range, as early in the day as possible. The country was a pleasing one to Nelsonian eyes. A good road, good land, and rich bush with gigantic rata trees here and there, groves of pongas and fern trees; passed through suburbs, farms, patches of bush, then cockatoo farms, and finally reached Code's about 10.30 a.m., eleven miles from town. The cart road ends just here. The sons of Mr. Code, who generally act: as guides, were away cutting grass seed. Mr. Code, however, told us to turn our horses loose, and wished us success, but evidently didn't think we would have it.

The Pouakai Range is about 3,000 feet high, and if I remember rightly does not join the mountain unless it be by a very low saddle. A comparatively good track led over the middle of the range and down the other side about 2500 feet to the swamp, where it ended. It was cut, I believe, by volunteers, assisted by the Government. We made up our swags and started, boiling the billy when about half way up, and having some dinner. When near the top we got our best view. Inglewood and Stratford, like little bush clearings in the waste of bush that stretches with uninterrupted undulations to Taupo; Tongariro was clear to the top, without snow, and smoking; Ruapehu had far more snow on it than Egmont, and its head lost in the clouds; the White Cliffs showed out very perceptibly, and the Mounts in the direction of Mokau; then New Plymouth, with its bush roads and clearings. We descended and crossed some necessary undulations to Taupo; Tongariro was clear to the top, without snow, and smoking; Ruapehu had far more snow on it than Egmont, and its head lost in the clouds; the White Cliffs showed out very perceptibly, and the Mounts in the direction of Mokau; then New Plymouth, with its bush roads and clearings. We descended and crossed the swamp, which was about half a mile wide, satisfactorily, the only fear being that one should sink to their knees in the wet moss and toi. We wished to get round to the foot of the Mounts on the Parihaka side, over some deep gullies leading out of the Mount. We looked for a track to lead down and across the first deep one, but the one we found, in the edge of the dense scrub, led us down it instead of across, so, thinking it led to Bell's Falls—that we had heard was one of the "lions"—we followed it out, and after about three miles clown hill (with our swags) reached it. The river that intersects the swamp comes out through a gorge and takes a clear drop of about 70 feet into a troubled sea below. The size of the gorge and the fall together make up about 200 feet of perpendicular rock. The spray was very damping when the wind blew it our way. We now made the best of our way back up hill to the open again, and though somewhat fatigued did not regret having gone five rough miles out of our road. Boiled the billy and had tea, and after skirting the edge of the scrub found the rather indefinite, but very necessary, track. It led down into the deep gully (Stony River,) and down it a little way to the forks, and then, losing all trace of track, started up the right fork to get on to the Parihaka slope of the Mount. The clear bed of the creek was not bad walking, but on rising out of it we got into a tangled mass of short stiff scrub, which was difficult to get through. Overcoming this as best we could, we emerged on to the western slope, and crossing a little blind mossy creek, as night was coming on, we cut a little broom, made ourselves comfortable, camping together, all standing. Mr. T., I believe, had no sleep. Having a waterproof he did not take any trouble about cutting any special bedding, and, omitting to remove his boots, his feet had no rest, and were so sore that he was at first doubtful about attempting the Mount. We had left water
behind before we were aware of it, but finding half a billy full in the hollow of a rock, which we baled out with
jealous care, and though we were very thirsty, kept it for the morning. We rolled out before daylight. It was
bleak and chill and gray, and we hastily partook of our frugal meal (the cold water, taken neat, and some bread
and ham), not that we enjoyed it, but knew it was necessary. Mr. T. found his wounds improve so started
before, and we, as soon as we had rolled up the blankets, armed with a short sharp stick each and the
tomahawk. It was five o'clock. A good hour's hard climb from rock to rock, i.e., the loose rocks scattered down
one of the ravines, brought us to the snow and the lower end of the Turtleback (a large mass of rock that looks
from New Plymouth like a barnacle sticking on to the steep side of the Mount.) From our camp it looked quite
close above us. We climbed partly on the snow and partly on the rocks in the groove of the valley, avoiding the
ridges, as the scoria or cinders were loose and gave a foot for every three, making it very tiring. We kept to
the side of the scoria as long as we could, and then started cutting footsteps in the snow. We took a ridge close to
the right of the Turtleback. My brother thought it too steep, so we crossed the hollow on to the next ridge, when
there was a more continuous chain of rock. I cut the foot holds, taking care to have secure hand hold with the
sharp stick in case my feet should slip. T. followed. Sometimes we could get pretty certain foot hold, and then I
only cut steps for the right foot, but we often came across ice with a small covering of snow, which needed very
decided footsteps cut out. The overhanging rocks near the top that we were making for seemed quite close, yet
it took a full hour of hard and quick cutting to reach them. Every bit of ice cut out took a headlong descent on to
the rocks. The distance by the ridge must have been 1,500 ft., but if we had slipped we would have immediately
glided into the valley, and thence down about 3000 ft. on to the scoria below. The rocks were at last gained, and
we clambered over an overhanging ledge and found ourselves on the very top. The clouds were far down below
us, covering New Plymouth, but we had peeps of the White Cliffs, Mokau, Tongariro, and Ruapehu, (its several
peaked top visible this time), the Whanganui River, with patches of open up it. The rest that the clouds allowed
us to see was a wilderness of bush. To the south and west, Hawera, Opunake, the wheat field at Parihaka, and
Stony River winding out to the coast. The look down on the Parihaka side was a clean sweep into the bush at
the back of Parihaka. There were several other jagged points near us of much the same height, but as the mist
was coming up we did not go over to them. If there was any level place or crater it was well rounded with
snow. My brother called out from a little distance down to the right that it was impossible for us to get down his
way, as he could not scale the last clump of rocks. We had never for a moment reckoned that we should have to
return by the same way, but this now appeared the only way back. It was eight o'clock and the mist coming up,
so taking a hurried view of about five minutes and seizing a piece or two of "the top" (which seems to be the
correct thing to do.) Old hands tell me that the top has altered very much since they first remember it. We don't
wonder. We beat a hasty but comparatively dignified retreat, scrambled back over the overhanging rock and
reached the snow.

Mount Ecmount.

or rather ice. The look down was not pleasant; everything that got loose travelled down with a hearty and
ever-increasing interest [unclear: fill] it brought up on the scoria. Mr. T., who had travelled on snow before,
started first, using his stick and kicking foothold. I tried sitting and letting first one heel in and then the other,
but after experiencing the uncertainty of this (my feet slipping so that I hung by one hand,) I took my brother's
advice, turned my face to the wall, and lowered backwards, getting first right hand hold with tomahawk and
then a lower left hand hold, as I could not always depend on my toes. Mr. T. reached the loose scoria some time
before I did. Part of the distance, about two chains, he had travelled unpleasantly quickly, but by calm and
zealous use of his stick and a passing rock he luckily managed to recover himself and stick. You might fancy
getting adrift on the face of the steep roof a house. I asked T. how he liked it. He said that he had just vowed
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zealous use of his stick and a passing rock he luckily managed to recover himself and stick. You might fancy
getting adrift on the face of the steep roof a house. I asked T. how he liked it. He said that he had just vowed
that he would never do such a thing again. The travelling after that was pretty easy. At every stride a moving
mass of loose scoria accompanied you and helped you on, only we had to keep together for fear of little
avalanches. The mist enveloped us, but we found our camp, and, hungry and thirsty, we started back into the
ravine to get water. We had a few nasty drops to scramble down, but managed them successfully, then leaving
T., who found travelling rather painful, we went on and boiled the billy at the bottom of the ravine, and had a
refreshing bathe. The water felt like ice itself. When we had finished, and the tea was made, he came up,
looking somewhat "used up." He suggested that we should leave him on the further side of the swamp to camp,
which we agreed to. The tea was very cheering. After this we climbed out of the ravine, took away his swag
from him by force, and crossed the swamp. He then thought he could climb the Ponakai range if we would
leave his swag and some food at a little clearing on the New Plymouth side. It began to pour with rain, so we
went on, and it cleared when we were wet through and had preached the top. When a little way down this side
we looked back and saw Mr. T. not far behind, so we concluded that he was able to reach Code's and took his
swag on. Reached Code's about 4 o'clock without a spell. Miss Code was the only one of the family at home.

With wonderful alacrity she got us a most sumptuous [unclear: real] of tea, with plenty of cream, delicious new home-baked bread just out of the camp oven, home-made jam, butter and cake. What could be more acceptable than the "fat of the land" seasoned with a cordial welcome and eaten with spartan sauce? Mr. T. came in before we sat down—not to be beaten. After tea, we found Mr. Code, who was working at his field, and who refused out and out all overtures for anything in the way of remuneration for trouble, horse keep, &c. Helped us catch our horses, and taking leave of them, we reached town about dusk, and Omata about 9 o'clock p.m.


H. HAMMOND'S WHITE HART FAMILY HOTEL. Comer of Devon and Queen Streets, new plymouth: Importer of the Best Wines, Ales, Spirits, Cigars EVERY ACCOMMODATION FOR TRAVELLERS. BILLIARDS. HOT & COLD BATHS. GOOD STABLING. Ordinary every day at 1 o'clock. H. HAMMOND - - PROPRIETOR.

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The Last War with the Natives.

The West Coast of the North Island has a history of a very stirring kind—such as sometimes happens to a new country. The early settlers had to contend with a native element of a very superior order, not wanting either in intelligence or ability, and the ingenuity of his fortifications led to many serious losses on the part of the Queen's troops and colonial forces in days gone by.

The coast was desolated by war with the natives in 1845, and settlement retarded in every way, indeed, at one time it seemed as if the settlers would be driven out of New Zealand altogether. But time has a good deal altered the Maori, it has given him a taste for the good things of civilized life; he has blankets in place of the picturesque flax mat he once wore, and lie clothes himself in European garments. His hospitality is unbounded, it is nothing out of the way for a tribe to impoverish themselves for a lengthened period in order to entertain their friends, and when a visit is paid by one tribe to another the amount of good things: (according to Maori ideas) provided is out of all proportion to the resources of the entertainers. Recently, at the sitting of the Land Court, Wanganui, one tribe, or portion of a tribe, entertained another one, and the gifts were laid outside the Court-house railings, and consisted of bags of flour, potatoes, dried fish (chiefly shark), kits of pigeons, blankets, quilts, rugs, and tobacco, all heaped up to the height of about three feet, the whole could not have been less than thirty feet in length and probably three feet deep; and to crown the whole, here and there in places were cleft sticks with bunches of bank notes placed in the clefts fluttering about; in front was a Maori, dressed in a new rug, reciting something in Maori in a monotone, which, I was told, was a speech in praise of the good tilings provided.

The close of the year 1864 witnessed the failure of Major-General Cameron's campaign on the West Coast of this island. That 6000 British soldiers should have been employed in constructing redoubts to shelter in, and which they did, and little else, because their hands were so tied down by orders that they were not allowed to go
the pah. of the 14th Regiment. Captains Johnstone and Pilmer and Major Von Tempsky were amongst the first to enter and they dashed at the pah without sound of bugle, and the Hau-hau flag was hauled down by Michael Coffey, it against all comers. But the English forces were now commanded by a man who knew how to handle them, Such was the strength and inaccessible nature of the position that a few hundred resolute men might have held Putahi, a fortified position, from which the rebel flag had floated ever since the first arrival of the troops, fell. The capture of this stronghold was of immense gain to the force as it broke up a band of murderers who had quite lately murdered several Europeans.

Amongst the loot in the pah was discovered a book, written in Maori, which recorded the proceedings of a
recent meeting, with a resolution to the effect that the town and settlement of Wanganui should be attacked on the 6th January. Hidden in the stream running along the base of the hill was a whaleboat, lost some months previously from the steamer Gundagai.

On the 15th January Ketemarae was taken. This was one of the oldest and most venerated Maori settlements in New Zealand, and one for which the natives had a great reverence, it being situated at a converging point for several roads, and also being a central point for the dissemination of news throughout the island. This pah was rifle-pitted, palisaded, and deeply entrenched, and had to be advanced upon through a dense bush. The stockade was ornamented by high posts, carved in true Maori style. A few shells, however, soon made an opening, and our troops rushed in with a cheer, and the place was won. In a few minutes it was a scene of blazing ruins.

On the 18th January Otapawa, hitherto considered impregnable by the natives, was stormed, captured, and burnt. This pah consisted of a strong palisade between two ditches, with underground communication between them; on either flank, ditches and [unclear: earthworks], with traverses and rifle pits.

And now commenced the most extraordinary undertaking of the whole war—the march of General Chute from Ketemarae to New Plymouth, round the eastward of Mount Egmont. The little [unclear: army] consisted of 424 men of all ranks, of whom 54 were Forest Rangers, and 68 Native Contingent. The transport consisted of 67 pack and 24 riding horses. General Chute led in front, accompanied by the following staff:—Colonel Carey, Lieutenant-Colonel Gamble, Major Pitt, Captain Leach, D. C. G. Strickland, H. Gibbs (head of the medical department), and Dr. Featherston, Superintendent of the Province of Wellington. Each man carried his swag, consisting of great coat, water-proof sheet and blanket, and the head of the Commissariat Department managed to carry with him about five days provisions for all but the Native Contingent, who insisted upon having the whole of theirs issued to them before starting. The entrance to the forest was a broad [unclear: try] track, which led through a succession of plantations, with several whares in them. Fences, whares, and everything [unclear: combustible] were burnt as the force moved from one place to another. The order of march was generally as follows:—Native Contingent and Forest Rangers in front with the guides, who cut down the underwood on each side of the road as they marched along, and the advanced guard followed, well supplied with tomahawks, bill-hooks, axes and spades. The first day the force marched 9½ miles, and encountered a few Hau-haus, three of whom were shot by the Native Contingent. A girl was taken prisoner, who informed the party they had been three days in the bush, and were coming to ask for arms and ammunition. On approaching the head of the Patea River the undergrowth became dense and difficult of passage; the supplejack, which formed a network, thickly interlaced, had to be cleared away. The river was crossed between 12 and 1 p.m., and the force halted to allow the baggage to come up, which arrived about 3 p.m.; they then marched about three miles further, cutting their way through no less than thirteen gullies. The next day the force started at 7.30 a.m., after a good breakfast, the Forest Rangers forming the advance guard and leading the column. They cut a passable road with great difficulty, bridging swamps and gullies, and often having to go round some immense fallen tree, and making use of the gigantic tree fern to secure a foothold for the horses, the huge leaves of which being the most easily secured. At 3.30 p.m. they halted on the banks of the Makatawa River, which is clear, shallow, and about seventy feet wide. The third day Mr. Strickland issued, in addition to the rations for the Europeans, 68 rations for the Native Contingent, who, with their usual improvidence, had only brought with them a portion of that issued to them before starting. The soldiers had taken kindly to this existence in the forest; their General had discarded pipeclay and red tape and they entered with zest into the free and easy life of the bushman. The absence of the sun did not affect their spirits, although the sky was leaden overhead, and rain threatened; the men rose to the occasion, and while everything around was depressing and gloomy, songs were sung, merry tales related, and many a joke cracked. On the 20th of January, Ensign Churchward, of the 14th Regiment, and a number of other natives, also volunteered, and with little or no provision for the journey, and with no track through the forest, save what they could cut or fell, through the darkness, over gullies, in the drenching rain, they steadily pushed until Mr. Price was so thoroughly exhausted that he had to be laid down under a tree with the last wet half biscuit, while they pushed forward; and when daylight broke only five miles had been accomplished, but by ten o'clock in the morning they reached their destination, after accomplishing one of the most heroic tasks of the war, and the provisions, so badly
wanted, were promptly sent into the bush by Colonel Ware, C.B., and reached the force, who had camped that night without food—wet, cold, but with undiminished spirits.

The morning of the 22nd broke gloomy. Underfoot was a quagmire above, the constant rain. The Native Contingent had dispersed. The horses were so fatigued, having had no feed in the shape of oats for two days, and during that time had crossed more than forty gullies and rivers. It was necessary they should have rest, and so a halt was ordered. Some of the horses were killed, and soup, steaks, and roasts revived the spirits of the force so much that merriment resounded round every fire. In the meantime, Major Von Tempsky had followed on the tracks of the volunteer party, and met Ensign McDonnell returning, who [unclear: reported] that relief parties, laden with supplies, were advancing; [unclear: and] a few hours later Captain Leach arrived leading parties of the [unclear: grd] and 68th, under Lieutenant Palmer, laden with biscuits and [unclear: groceries].

On the 23rd a fresh start was made, and two fat bullocks, rum, and groceries were encountered after a few miles had been traversed. Henceforth provisions were plentiful, but it was not until 10.30 a.m. on the 25th that the force reached Mataitawa, and [unclear: halted] for a few hours in the sunshine to refresh themselves after their wet march through the bush. The same night the column marched to within three miles of the town of New Plymouth.

On the 26th January General Chute's successes were known in New Plymouth, and when he entered the town on the 27th, under a triumphal arch, and amidst great rejoicings, he was met by the Superintendent of Taranaki, the Hon. H. Richmond, and an address presented to him. The soldiers were not forgotten, and were feasted by the grateful colonists, who were ever ready to help, with purse or hand, the Imperial forces, and who, now this little force had accomplished so much, seemed as if they could not do half enough in acknowledgment of the conspicuous bravery and perseverance of this march. General Chute did not delay, but rapidly moved on, reaching, by 3 p.m., Oakura, and camped for the night. Oakura was then a strong redoubt overhanging the sea, and at one time was in the hands of the Maoris—a truly formidable position.

On the 29th, the column reached Warea, a redoubt built upon the site of an old native fishing village, and occupied by 170 men of the 43rd Light Infantry.

On the morning of the 1st February, the General moved out of camp with a force of 450 men of all ranks to attack Waikoko, a strongly fortified position about six miles inland. So early had General Chute moved out of camp, that by daybreak he was close on the enemy's position; and so rapidly were the force thrown into skirmishing order and advanced, that the Hau-haus were driven into the bush, their pah and whares in flames, one half their number killed, and the rest in flight. The whole action did not occupy long, and after destroying the cultivations of the natives, the force returned to camp. The next day the result of the action became apparent, the natives coming in in droves and taking the oath of allegiance—even the Hau-hau prophet giving himself up. He would have been sacrificed had it not been for the firmness of General Chute and Dr. Featherston, who were determined that his life should not be sacrificed.

On the 6th, Meri Meri was attacked and destroyed by Colonel Butler. The main body, under General Chute, reached Patea on that date. General Chute, in his despatch to Sir George Grey, the Governor of the colony, mentioned especially Major McDonnell and his brother, Ensign McDonnell, also the chiefs Hori Kingi, Kemp, and Haimona, and also the gallant Von Tempsky. Thus General Chute accomplished, with a force of 500 men, a march round Mount Egmont, which General Cameron had declined to face with 6,882 men.

In 1866 the Hau-haus again became troublesome, and Lieutenant-Colonel McDonnell, who was in command at Patea, had some brisk fighting up and down the coast, the principal actions being: August 1st, capture of Pokaikai, a number of bush fights until September, when Pungarehu was attacked and taken. Twenty-three of the Hau-haus were killed, nine taken prisoners, and a quantity of guns and ammunition taken; then followed the capture of Te Umu.

In 1868 the natives again resumed hostilities, this time Tito-kowaru and other chiefs began to harrass the settlers, and on the 1st August, 300 men, under Lieutenant-Colonel McDonnell and Major Von Tempsky, second in command, attacked Te Ngutu-o-te-manu pah, which was captured, and the enemy driven out. Unfortunately, this stronghold was abandoned and immediately re-occupied by Titokowaru, and afterwards made so strong that when it became necessary to again attack it, our troops were repelled and the gallant Von Tempsky killed.

Post after post was abandoned by order of the Defence Office; farms were burned, and settlers murdered. Colonel Whitmore came into the district, and Colonel McDonnell, from various reasons, resigned his command, after placing 400 Wanganui natives in a strong redoubt on the site of the old Wereroa Pah, taken by Sir George Grey and the colonial forces in 1865. When Colonel Whitmore took over the command, this redoubt was abandoned, and an attack was made on Titokowaru's position at Moturoa, at the edge of the bush. This resulted in the defeat and [unclear: cut] of the attacking party, who were pursued nearly to the Wairoa township. Titokowaru was left master of the situation, [unclear: and], reinforced by the Ngarauru tribe, crossed Waitotara, and [unclear: entrenched] themselves at Taurangaika, where they made a strong pah. Colonel
Whitmore then went to Poverty Bay, after the [unclear: massacre] at that place by Te Kooti. Titokowaru burnt and [unclear: ravaged] up to the Kai Iwi stream, and declared his intention of attacking Wanganui, which was unprotected, the garrison at [unclear: Wereroa] having been withdrawn, after a gallant defence under Captain W. Powell. On hearing of this, Colonel McDonnell collected 160 natives to protect the town, and marched to Kai Iwi. They kept the enemy in check, and Titokowaru's scouting parties [unclear: retreated] to Taurangaika. On Colonel Whitmore's return from Poverty Bay, he attacked this position and shelled it, but the [unclear: enemy] decamped during the night. They were followed up to [unclear: Waitotara], when a skirmish ensued. The enemy now retreated to [unclear: the] Ngatimaru country, near the White Cliffs. During this retreat [unclear: to] or three small skirmishes took place, and at Te Ngaire, [unclear: through] a blunder for which Colonel Whitmore was not responsible, [unclear: the] enemy made good their retreat to the Ngatimaru. Small parties of the enemy left in the Patea District surrendered to Major Noake, and were sent to Otago. This ended the disturbances [unclear: in] this coast. The Ngarauru tribe gave in, and went to dwell with the friendly natives at Hiruharama, on the Wanganui River, who became responsible for their good behaviour.

The friendly natives who volunteered to protect the town of Wanganui afterwards received from the Government a sum of money, as a reward for their services so rendered.

**Defence of Wereroa.**

On the 1st November, 1868, a detachment consisting of Captain Wilmott Powell (in command), Lieut. Broughton, Ensign Witchell, 4 [unclear: seants] and 54 rank and file of the Wanganui Militia, marched [unclear: out] to reinforce thirty of the Armed Constabulary stationed at the Wereroa redoubt. After a few days, the Armed Constabulary, under Sub-Inspector McDonald, were ordered to Waverley, to take part in the operations against Titokowaru, leaving the Militia only to garrison the redoubt. After the disastrous fight at Moturoa, Colonel Whitmore, with the whole of the constabulary and friendly natives, fell back upon Nukumaru. Wereroa then became an advanced post, six miles in front, with the enemy quite close in the flanking bush. At this time the redoubt was almost defenceless, having only a shallow ditch and low parapet about waist high. The block house, which was being built on the edge of the gully, was about 15 yards from the redoubt, the framework only being up. Seeing that the enemy might attack at any moment, Captain Powell and the officers and men under him set to work, and for 18 hours laboured at strengthening the defences. Empty flour bags were filled with earth out of the ditches, and placed on the top of the parapet, leaving loop-holes to fire through. Fascines made of manuka scrub were also utilized, and fixed with stakes in the same position. The whole of the loose timbers for the block-house were brought into the redoubt, and flour and other necessaries were carried in from the store-house outside. At 4.30 p.m. on the day on which the preparations were completed, the Maoris, numbering about 150, fired a volley from a hill overlooking Perekama, and shortly afterwards crossed the valley and got close under the hill below the block-house. From here they kept up a heavy fire, which passed close over, or lodged in the bags at the top of the parapet. The acute angle at which the Maoris were firing was the principal reason that the Militia had no casualties. The flag-stall was struck repeatedly, and the men and officers had several narrow escapes. At dusk the enemy set fire to the blockhouse, the upright frame of which, it being a still night, burnt for hours, and lit up the ground surrounding the redoubt, rendering it impossible for the Maoris, except at a heavy loss to themselves, to attempt a rush. The defenders inside behaved with considerable coolness and courage, returning the fire with interest, several of the enemy being dragged down the hill by their comrades, leaving ramrods, cartridges, &c., behind them. About 10 p.m., finding that they could not effect a lodgment, or successfully carry the redoubt, the Maoris fired a last heavy volley, and, yelling like demons, retired across the valley to Perekama. Colonel Whitmore, the following day, sent orders for the evacuation of the redoubt, and covered the retreat with 200 men of the Armed Constabulary. The Militia, before leaving the redoubt, destroyed the tents and stores to prevent them falling into the hands of the enemy, and bringing away the kegs of ammunition on the troopers' horses.

**Kafiti.**

I cannot close the account of the West Coast without a reference to the beautiful Island of Kapiti, that lies midway between Wellington and Wanganui, and is as still worthy a visit as any spot in New Zealand. In the old whaling days, the Island was the rendezvous of numerous crews, and their doings, together with the relics left behind them, still form the topic of the camp fire of the visitors to this interesting spot. There is any quantity of fishing and shooting, game being plentiful; the scenery is unrivalled—rocks, cliffs, indentations of the coast
unfolding marine [unclear: news] of surpassing loveliness. The size of the trees on the Island is a surprise to the visitors. As the island is in the occupation of Mr. Field, intending visitors would have to make application for permission to visit it. This has at all times, so far, been freely granted. Information as to the fauna, &c., &c., can be obtained from Mr. S. H. Drew, jeweller, Wanganui, who, it may be said, knows the island thoroughly, and no one is more competent to speak with authority than he, on not only the native birds and fishes of the coast, but of their habits and location, and no one is more ready to impart that information to others. Messrs. Pollard and Simes, of Wanganui, will make arrangements for parties wishing to visit the island, and will provide tents, boats, and provisions if necessary.

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Front Cover

Notes.

Page 41—Add to paragraph 5:
"Where a people refuse to pay for railway carriage the necessary rate—that is, the rate which it really costs to carry the same—but are compelled to do so by taxation, the taxation of the rich, a wrong is manifestly committed. The morality of the deed is glaringly at fault, and its economical absurdity is as glaringly evident."

Page 177.—Add the following to the article:—
"Sixty per cent, of the people might be engaged in agriculture, twenty per cent, in manufactures, twenty per cent, in commerce. In case of a bad harvest other wealth might thus be found to exchange for corn purchased from countries more fortunate."

Page 205.—"7. The size of a farm," &c.

"This is perhaps the most powerful motor of any. The land was made for man, not man for the land."

Stray Thoughts: Political and Other.
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Preface.

These short notes and essays, I have written at various times during the last twenty-five years. They occupied some of the leisure hours of a somewhat active country life in Otago, New Zealand. A few of them were published as letters in the local newspaper. Lately I have been compelled to remain a good deal within the house, and have endeavoured to pass the time in revising and correcting them. It may seem to some that they are scarcely worth the trouble of revision and publication. They are certainly rather fragmentary and incomplete, and can only at best, perhaps, excite the reader to think; yet if they do this, their mission will not have been in vain. They are, however, original; the aid of many books, when and where they were written, was not sought for.

I have endeavoured, as will be seen, to talk politics chiefly. To talk politics truly is not so easily done. A nation is an entity through whose system many nerve chords are drawn. Fingers innumerable are touching these chords, and to say what finger or chord produced this or that result is difficult. It might be well, were the subject of metapolitics, of the philosophical groundwork of politics, more considered. If I make a mistake, now and then, they who have studied the subject will not wonder at it.

I might have added considerably to the size of the volume, as my note-books are not quite exhausted. But probably it is as well to begin in a small way. In case of failure, the matter will not be so serious.

I hope, however, that my example may be followed by others abler and better. There seems no reason why a man of prolific mind, should not give to the world annually, an account of his opinions, instead of only once or twice in his life.

I hope, too, that some of the younger men in this Colony, may peruse these papers. They may be told that both people and land were once freer than now, and that debt did it all. They may also find sundry subjects shortly commented on, which engage the attention of men in what are called "free countries," and should they find them helpful in leading to correct conclusions, the writer will be very pleased indeed.

Lakeside,

December, 1885.

Contents.

Separation:

A Letter.

[New Zealand consists mainly of two islands, and for many years there was a party there who greatly desired that they should be separated, and become two distinct Colonies; or that they should be financially separated, and the revenues of each spent within its own bounds. Among these last I was one.]

These are a few thoughts on some of the causes which, as it appears to me, have produced divisions in States and Nations. They are far from being either accomplished or extensive, but the little leisure and the few materials I can bring to my aid are my excuse. I deem some of them, however, not unworthy as subjects for Otagan reflection, and consider them as bearing on our own political situation in some respects.

1.—The cause which operates always the most powerfully in the dismemberment of States is the intersection of them by natural boundaries. These boundaries are mostly either ranges of mountains, large rivers and lakes, a desert or tract of uninhabitable land, or part of a sea. These are physical disuniting causes. The political disuniting causes are of a secondary character, and owe to the former their existence and variety.

2.—The aid given by mountains in the division of communities of men and their interests into classes and races is apparent from the slightest geographical knowledge. Sweden and Norway were for ages under separate Kings and Governments, owing to the Kolen Mountains. The Alps and Pyrenees are much to blame for France,
Italy, and Spain knowing no unity, despite their belonging to the one Latin people. The mountains of Spain and Austria are constantly threatening the dissolution of these powers. The Himalayan Range gives safety and separation to Hindostan.

3.—Rivers and lakes, though less completely than mountain ranges, divide and direct the nations. Thus the River St. Lawrence and its connected lakes in North America divide very nicely the commercial centres of Canada from those of the United States, and the Mississippi in the latter country those of its Eastern and Western peoples. The Tornea, the Rio Grande, the Danube, and the Guadiana are similarly serviceable. Rivers, however, seem to be more indispensable in the division of a State into separate districts. The Waitaki bounds between the Provinces of Otago and Canterbury, and the Mataura between Otago and Southland.

4.—A waste or desert tract in the heart of a country is an ugly barrier in the way of its unity. Africa, because of the Sahara Desert and others within its borders, can never produce such a power as the United States of America; Arabia can never be otherwise inhabited than but sparsely on her coasts; and the Desert of Gobi in Asia, and the waterless grounds of Central Australia, are equally abhorrent of political unification.

5.—The last and by far the intensest disuniting cause is the intervention of a sea of considerable breadth between the different parts of the State. The old dominions of England comprised a part of France, but the English Channel has long since given to the latter political separation. Denmark formed a part of Scandinavia, but does so no longer. Norway and Denmark then tried to get along together, but could not because of the sea which divides them. Norway is now in company with Sweden, in a union far from complete. The mountain range, though troublesome, divides nevertheless less strongly than the sea. Why are Scotland and Wales quiet and Ireland in commotion? Because of the want of a dividing line to the first two, and its possession by the last. The living waters, the life-blood of Fenianism, is the narrow Irish Sea.

When a country such as France or Denmark is joined to a continent, or backed by extensive tracts, it is generally successful in its attempts at separation. For it is to the interest of that back country to bring about the separation, in order that it may serve the purpose of an outlet for them the more. Had Ireland been connected with Europe by land she would long ago have split her partnership with the Sassenach.

(The difference of climate which holds in different portions of the globe is certainly a disuniting cause, but not so much so as the others. Under its influence one nation more generally is obliged by means of arms as a secondary cause to yield and be governed by another.)

The human family since the days of Babel has been split into a hundred communities, and such are some of the barriers which nature has declared shall ever divide them. When a sovereignty consists of sundry islands, even though divided by a small width of sea, and if these islands have an extensive coast line, indented with several bays and harbours, the probability of their separating rises very high indeed. The thread of their confederacy is likely at all events to be slender. The reason is obvious. On these harbours population seeks and finds seats for its energy and enterprise, and a far greater variety of interests spring up in such a country than in an agricultural or pastoral, and more inland territory. The inhabitants of inland districts in possession of no coast-line have indeed scarce anything to interest them, save the regular return of the seasons. The Government, to be felt equally over all the parts of such a State, must not only be strong, but must be near, and when a sea divides it from its subjects it is incapable of doing them equal justice. Thus, in an island sovereignty the balance of power and interests cannot be easily maintained. The attempt to govern a number of islands from one centre is as the case of a farmer who has a farm divided in two by a broad river. Being resident, and having his steading on one part only, to cultivate the other he must swim his horses and boat his implements over to it, and be put to many considerable inconveniences. It results that he does as to his farm what the people of New Zealand wish to do as to their country. Separation follows, but not generally before it is sold. The separation of the Middle Island, it is to be hoped, will not fail to come; undoubtedly it too has been preliminarily sold.

6.—The results of these disuniting causes are inevitable unless the causes themselves are removed. Anything less will not do. They hold almost all their own against the most brilliant discoveries, and the most prolonged labors which man can afford to bestow on them. The railway, the steam-engine, and the telegraph only slightly break their force. Though the Alps and Pyrenees be pierced and tunnelled, they will still divide different nations. The mainland of Circassia, and of the Ural, will ever weaken the Russian power in the East. A shield is by no means useless though pierced with an arrow. Nor will the telegraph and steamboat be more successful among peoples divided by sea. The submarine railway now spoken of under the British Channel will never unite England and France. The Sahara will divide Africa, and the deserts Australia, though the French dig wells innumerable in the first, and the English do likewise to the last.

7.—The physical causes of disunion being pertinent to the world we inhabit, are unalterable, but the political causes of it are perhaps less steady, are altogether subordinate to the physical, and belong directly to man himself. It is the result of his political experience and observation, and stands with a thousand others beneath the mantle of earthly interest, and finds embodiment latterly in the vast abyss of pounds, shillings, and pence. Political relations are sometimes a cause of union as well as division, for a country often separates from
one neighbour but to join another.

8.—A political cause which frequently disunites a country's people, is the difference of the races which inhabit it. This is partly the cause of the present disturbed state of Ireland. Austria's people are of different races, and they and her mountains cause her Government annoyance. The other day she lost Venetia through this and a physical cause. The Celts of Scotland are scarcely yet on good terms with the Lowlanders, and they would be on much worse ones were it not for the want of a strong natural boundary.

9.—When the interests and aspirations of a part of a State clash directly with or are hampered by those of the other part, a separation sometimes follows. This tended a good deal to separate Holland from Belgium. The late civil war in the United States was produced chiefly from this cause. —It was to the interest of the Northern States to manufacture goods for the South, and to receive of course in return their productions, and the profit both on their purchase and sale; and to abolish slavery, because of the variety and greatness of the evils and the odium which sprang from it. Slavery besides placed their labour in some respects at a disadvantage, and was utterly and in every way opposed to their genius and policy. It was for the South to see that it bought its goods at the cheapest rate, and sent them directly to the dearest mart, and to retain slavery. The result was the most desperate attempt at separation the world has ever seen. But though the political causes were present and leaned to separation, a powerful physical cause on the side of union was at hand and prevailed. As the late Edward Everett and many more said, in case of their division, Where would they draw the line? Each could only have obtained an absurd and curiously dove-tailed frontier physically bad, and leading to endless future complications. Could the South and its abomination but have had the fortune to be placed across the Rio Grande, and to Western Mexico, or across the Rocky Mountains, with possessions thence to the Pacific, then would that river, those mountains, and those sea-boards, in their plea for separation, have shown good cause.

10.—Countries are sometimes assisted in disuniting through one of them having difficulties or burdens to contend with unknown to the other, and which while they remain in partnership they are bound equally to bear. Such a burden are the Maories in arms in the North Island of New Zealand on the colonists of the Middle Island.

11.—Countries may become disunited when a strong power seizes on the possession of its neighbour. This is a forced or hurried disunion, but generally is mainly caused by a physical circumstance. Sweden lost Finland, because not only was she unsuccessful in war with Russia, but because Finland is physically more in union with Russia than with Sweden. For similar reasons nearly, Nice was united some years ago to France, and partly from the same cause will the Prussian dominions in Europe be enlarged.

When an energetic and effeminate race are neighbours, the separation (as it may be called), if physical causes do not prevent, of the weaker is often brought about. Thus Russia has cut Turkey in slices and appropriated them. Persia and Circassia have also given up to her parts of their territory. But neighbouring peoples are seldom so different in their characters. An advancing race has commonly to go some distance for materials with which to found a possession or dependency.

12.—The want of good roads or other means of inter-communication in a State gives often great help to its division. A Government, to be effective, should reach easily every part of its dominion, and be easily reached from every part of the same. In Colonies this cause figures importantly. In a group of Islands such as New Zealand, its value is of course added to. The districts nearest the seat of a good Government, receive all its benefits from its insularity Wellington if intended for a capital ought, like Copenhagen, to tower equally on both sides of Cook's Straits.

I do not mean to say but that there are exceptions to these dividing causes. A portion of a State-sometimes cannot separate because of its smallness, its inability to maintain a separate Government, and from fear of neighbouring enemies. The Western side of this Island (the Middle Island of New-Zealand) will be retarded for ages in just desires after division, by the smallness of its available agricultural lands. Its people will also with difficulty agree about anything for their common weal, owing to the numerous divided centres to which they will tend, and this because of the bays and harbours on their coast. Its position will be precisely that of Norway at present. Its future factions may resemble those of ancient Greece. Were Norway capable of sustaining a larger population, the divided interests which would spring up around its fiords would effectually prevent union with Sweden. But the fear of Russia and poverty give to the alliance its utility. Iceland in its smallness remains a dependency of Denmark. A sovereignty over several adjacent islands is, as has been said, the most apt of all to split asunder. The only exception of any consequence almost to this rule is the empire of Japan. But its entireity has been maintained by several powerful political causes—the absolute character of its Government, the small extent of its external commercial relations, the gross ignorance of its people; and a fourth cause is the wondrously conservative nature of all its institutions, being the impersonation of narrow-mindedness and conceit. The strongest cementing cause of all is its religion. This comprehends everything in the life and concerns of its believers, and constitutes the morals, the economics and the politics, as well as the theology of the nation. I do not see how a group of considerably-sized islands could remain long together under any other
system. When that system breaks up, separation will assuredly ensue. The Colonial party of New Zealand might therefore gather many a hint from the Koubas and Mikados of Japan.

But when countries thus become disconnected, What is the fortune of the seceder? I think almost always good. France, disunited from England, never afterwards regretted the division. Nor did Denmark when separated from Norway and Sweden. Tasmania would thrive no better if united to Victoria. Victoria and New South Wales are both prosperous. The union of the Transvaal Republic with the Cape Colony, could bring no gain to either.

The causes which mark certain boundaries to the provinces or departments of a State, are in principle the same with those that divide the State from its neighbours. Rivers, the smaller mountain ranges, and coasts lined with numerous harbours, are the chief physical causes of division. The size of these Provinces depends politically on several circumstances. In a land thinly peopled, and of considerable extent and suited to pastoral and agricultural purposes, they will be large. In New Zealand, where her coast is extensive and numerous harbours abound on it, the tendency is for each of these harbours to become the centre of a province or community. The States on the north-east coast of North America are small because of her harbours. But to the southward, larger States, as Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia and Florida, prevail, from the fewness of the inlets. In a country such as New Zealand, where the settlements are seated pretty widely apart on its coasts, no better form of Government theoretically than that of the present Provinces can be found. They are copied from the Constitution of the United States, and could be proved, I think, to be the only good thing in New Zealand. Her settlements are divided by uninhabited roadless tracts. No intervening population binds them together, nor breaks the force of insulation. White-faced sheep may abound, but white-faced men and women don't; a solitary shepherd is insufficient for the purpose. An institution near at hand, and possessing considerable law and order-giving power, is manifestly wanted in such a case. The Provincial Government undoubtedly meets that case.

I believe that no country that has ever sought and obtained separation from another had better reasons for seeking and obtaining separation than we of the Middle Island from the North Island of New Zealand. If any tie is to be left between them, the slighter such the better. Such a tie is of no use in peace, and after honest reflection I see no use for it in foreign war. Our only means of defence requiring co-operation would be the building a fleet. We have no money to do that. If we had money, and had it built, we should never agree about the port or the position it should lie in, or what it must do in case we are attacked.

We can only defend ourselves, then, by fortifications and a militia, and the first can be built and the other raised in the Middle Island, with a seat of Government in its centre, as well as if the seat of Government were elsewhere.

Political causes of overpowering moment demand the financial separation of the Islands of New Zealand. Physical causes cry out no less loudly for insular separation. Till both are gained, peace and prosperity shall never reign in our Island.

1866.

A Defence of Provincial Government.

[The following is a defence of the Provincial form of Government, once existent in New Zealand. It is now a thing of the past, and it may long remain so. The system is in my opinion of a very high class, but it requires men—and a good many of them—to work it; and it requires these men to be of education and integrity. In a young colony men with these qualities, and who have time to devote to public affairs, are not to be found. That dignity and steadiness which ought to mark the conduct of government soon disappears, foolish and unprincipled measures are carried through, and debt and bankruptcy follow. In New Zealand the Provinces were also too small, and the number of Councillors required too great. Many of the States in America are larger than all New Zealand. I am persuaded, however, that for a moral and educated people, and having competent men in sufficient numbers to send to its Councils, this very democratic form of Government is indisputably the best. The Cantons of Switzerland and the United States of America are examples of its powers. There it has withstood the vices of peace and the storms of war. If it should ever return to Britain, France, or Spain, these countries had better keep in mind what in New Zealand was forgotten—that "the love of money is a root in every kind of evil," and that debt and disaster go together. I have expunged some passages from this and some of the other papers immediately following, as they seem to me now more forcible than desirable. The late Hon. Major Richardson's name was mentioned in the present one too often. He has passed away, and has laid down his harness, but with untarnished name. Some lasting memorial of him would be acceptable. His speeches would be well worth publishing. One I remember on the founding of the Dunedin University was surpassingly neat and elegant.]
It is said that Provincial Institutions have been always intended, in the political policy of New Zealand, to be temporary.

I do not see that this can have much to do with them. Intentions in this world are plentiful enough, and cheap enough. Very bad ones possibly existed in the past, and very good ones are believed to have a very bad place of the future. The future belongs more to the prophet than the politician, and to him it should be left. But, supposing that Provincial Institutions were given with this intention, it is not so certain that they were received under the same belief. But even if they had been given and received in the past with that intention, if in the present we find them good and desirable, the intention is immediately stript of its force; that is, if by any possibility it can have any force, and is of no avail as a reason for abolishing Provincial Institutions. But, all these things aside, it is self-evident that no Government and no people have power to bind their successors to any plan of internal policy, or as to their own institutions, though even they go about it with all the formalities of a legal enactment; much less is an expression of opinion or declaration of future intentions entitled to respect. Men are too much the creatures of circumstances to be guided by the past in anything but on general principles; and when we ask from the dead information on particular forms of government, or on particular forms of anything else, we shall not receive it.

The question then arises: What cause, or is there any cause, which, in the present state of New Zealand, ought to lead to the belief that a change in the form of government is desirable? On so large a field of speculation it is with some diffidence, certainly, I set down these remarks.

The form of every Government, unbiased by tradition, and unharnpered by past association, may be rationally shown to depend on three things—the physical features or character of the country, the moral and mental character of the people, and general character of the age, chiefly as regards its inclinations for peace or war. If a country is divided into districts by powerfully-acting natural boundaries, these districts if small will form Counties, if large Provinces or extensive Municipalities. Again, everybody knows that the higher the moral and mental culture of a people the freer may be the institutions. A government should do nothing which the people are capable of doing themselves, and the better educated they are, the more they can do; and freedom is necessary to their doing it. Should, again, it be common for nations to go to war and destroy each other, it is clear that this, the element of danger, is a powerful influence on the form of Government. Nations, then, must run together for defence; the larger the State, the more chance there is of its holding its own in the troubles. The interests of particular communities must be sunk in the interests of all, while the benefits of one head and one Government for all, are readily recognised.

If we apply these principles to the case of New Zealand, we shall find that her large rivers and lofty mountains, and her tracts of uninhabited territory, favor a division into districts more extensive than are usually applied to the name of county. The sea which separates the Colony into two islands, goes, of course, dead against national union. The standard of moral and mental culture of the people is not so low, it may be believed, as to unfit them for Provincial government. Regarding the third cause mentioned, all will agree that the tendency of the present age is towards progress and peace, and that the dangers of attack from without are not so imminent as to cause us to sink our individuality, and much of our institutional freedom, for the safety of defence. This, however, some think we ought to do. We should allow the powers of the General Government to increase, those of the Provinces to diminish, and New Zealand will then take up a "commanding position in the Southern Seas."

It is true, no doubt, that similarity of race and language are a considerable cause in determining the union and extent of nationalities. Out they are altogether inferior, and less enduring than those first mentioned. The latter are mental, or rather sentimental, the former bear with great directness on the pocket.

It is thought or hoped by the centralists that all the difficulties of government arising from natural phenomena are overcome by steamships and telegraph. Common roads, and railroads, and postal communication, I should have thought, were more powerful than either; for while these search to the heart of a land, the steamship only draws now and then near its borders. But, admitting that we have steamships and telegraphs, and that these are means of nourishing a union and common sympathy, one could have wished the point as to their sufficiency for this purpose had been more enlarged upon before the proposal of such considerable changes in our institutions. This is the more necessary if we look around. For instance, in Great Britain, disaffection in Ireland seems to grow with steamships and telegraphs. In fact, when it is attempted to "found a great nation, exercising a commanding influence in the Southern Seas," out of two or three small islands, the attempt will be attended with some difficulty, and with especial difficulty when attempted from Wellington and centralism. The difficulty of exciting a common sympathy among people divided by sea is almost self-evident. The only hope I entertain of a united New Zealand lies, first, in its distance from all other countries—in its insularity as a whole, forbidding the possibility of either of the Islands maintaining an alliance with other States; and, secondly, in the allowing the utmost freedom in Government institutions. If people will not unite politically of their own will, little good will come of driving them together. If they are thus left, I
make no doubt they may see it to their interest to have many things in common—a common fleet for defence, a common militia system, common postal contracts, &c.

Another thing which it behoves us to keep in mind when reflecting on Provincial institutions, is, that doubtful or bad results often happen on the adoption of a measure—not from any essential defect in it, but from defects which are adventitious and removable. A tree is known by its fruit, but great care is often needed in not mistaking the fruits of trees as to their origin and quality. Two dogs may often be seen worrying one another, because they both cannot get one bone. Very good marrow may be in the bone, but the blame of worrying belongs to the dogs.

The chief charges brought against the Provinces by Major Richardson are—I. That they do not attend, as they ought, to the interests of the outlying districts. 2. That they are in a state of indebtedness, verging on bankruptcy. 3. That the system of Government is clumsy and expensive. He then proceeds to give his proposals "for a change for the better"—this change consisting in a triple or quadruple plan of political management, both curious and striking.

Respecting the objection first noted above, it seems strange that very few, except Mr Stafford and his political supporters, have heard very much of the cry which rises from the Dan and Beersheba of New Zealand for Counties and endowed Road Boards. It is true that Oamaru on the north and the Mataura on the south, two of the most distant parts of this Province, have sometimes set forth that they did not get their fair share of revenue. Other districts may have said, now and then, the same; but this must happen under every sort of Government where men dare to speak. It is a mere enlivening of the dry bones of polity, and is highly to be desired. And it is different from any settled belief, giving birth to a cry of pain for honesty and fair dealing for Counties and Road Boards or new Provinces. People distant from the centre of Government are apt to think they are forgotten, whether that centre be the capital of a State, or a Province, or a County town. But to assert is easier than to prove, and I am of opinion that alarm on this point is much too easily taken. Besides, in every division of territory it is existent and will exist while human imperfection remains. We shall soon see how the Counties of Timaru and Westland succeed. The first proceeding of the Councillors of the latter was to vote each of themselves £150 a-year, because the people (in their interpretation of its wish and will) would like, as they said, to see their Councillors well paid. I have given some notice to the working of Counties in Victoria—and they will work better there, perhaps, than here—and for cheapness and economy, I cannot recommend them; nor is the language and etiquette of the County Board very refined.

With reference to the second objection, that of impecuniosity; Provincial Institutions are blamed because the Provinces are poor. But this, surely, cannot be the peculiar features of any form of Government. Common sense, or the sense of the most obtuse, might see that it results from the administration, not from the form. "For forms Of government let fools contest—that which is best administered is best:" and it is a foolish contest for and against a form, when poverty is set up as a ground of attack. Again, wherein lies the financial skill of the General Government? Is it not in debt?

I do not mean to defend the plan of borrowing. I think that no Colony for its first century of existence should be allowed to borrow a farthing. After that it ought not to need to borrow a farthing. I say that, after having heard the pros and cons of public loans from good authorities. National prosperity and indebtedness are seldom synchronous. Public debts have weakened every State that has contracted them.

The Hon. Major Richardson thinks that the Provincial system of institutions is clumsy and expensive. He says, "It is utterly unnecessary that there should be nine sets of Provincial Institutions, nine Provincial Councils, nine Executive Councils, and a General Assembly and Colonial Executive. It is one of the most extraordinary political phenomena that has ever appeared on the face of the earth." A cheaper and more workable system, he fancies, would be the following:—A Superintendent and Council; a County Chairman and Council; a Road Board with Chairman and Council. This is his idea of an improvement. I will only say, as regards this, that I wish he had laid down a standard of cheapness, or dearness, or efficiency in Government administration; that I wish he would condescend, and show wherein lies the improvement in his proposed system. Is it cheaper, more efficient, and less clumsy? Under his system too, he claims that more money would be available and received for roads. But whence is this money to come, unless saved out of departmental expenditure or somewhat else? But this somewhat else he has not specified. It is nonsense I apprehend for any one in this Province—loaded as it is with debt—to say, you shall get this and you that. We have too many creditors to pay to take up or keep this rather respectable position.

I will close with this reflection: When people are meddling with the political constitution of a country, they are at a very solemn operation. With every people and in every age is this true. Institutional solidarity is the foundation of order, progress, and the resultant civilisation. But peculiarly is this true in New Zealand. If conservatism in any part of the world is permissible, it is in place here. We inhabit two islands in the Southern Seas, remote from every other country of any consequence in the world. Our commerce and wealth from this source can never, probably, be extensive, while our lands are not in a very high degree fertile. Unless, then,
minerals come to our rescue in exceptional abundance, our hope of future greatness and a "commanding position" must rest on carefulness, caution, and untiring industry. We need never calculate upon those streams of gold which flowed into the coffer of England from her splendid commercial position, her Indian and Colonial empire, and her mineral resources. From all this, I consider (looking to the future) that the affairs of New Zealand should be administered with the greatest caution. I do not like to hear of these constant bickerings between the General and Provincial Governments—of those "conspiracies"—of those proposals for violent constitutional changes. In our lone position here in the Southern Ocean, let New Zealand by a false step once made, once go down, and she will not be easily raised up again. Indeed, were a moderately severe disaster to strike this Colony now, with its present load of debt, I would not like to answer for its good behaviour.

It may be that there is a pretty common desire for change just now; but in all young colonies, till confidence grows between the ruler and the ruled, public opinion is apt to run in this direction. This confidence is the child of time alone. We may be further assured that when the fire of patriotism burns low in a country, an antidote shall be sought for dissatisfaction in vain.

1868.

Public Works and Immigration Scheme.

[When the Colonising Policy, as it was called, was begun in New Zealand, now 15 years ago, and which consisted in borrowing money for public works and immigration, a number thought that the results might not be by any means so strong and beautiful as its author and supporters did. The result, however, was not felt to be detrimental for a time. Indeed, from the stagnation then existent in the U.S. of America, which gave us emigrants, a certain amount of success attended it. Now, however, there are few here who would not rather see less debt and taxation, and more liberty. The day may come when the cry for public works and work for the poor, and public loans and taxation of the rich and their property to pay for these loans, may be heard in England; were the House of Lords abolished it would possibly be heard all the sooner. The true cure for over population is in emigration, and in the emigrant being satisfied with a rude plenty afterwards in his new home.]

I PROPOSE to offer you a few observations on the Public Works and Immigration Scheme started and in part carried out by the present Government of this Colony. I have been in no hurry to offer them, for one might have expected that the late loan placed on the London market would have been a failure—a circumstance which, had it happened, would have effectually settled the question. Though the loan was by no means "a great success," yet a sufficient sum was subscribed within the limit. It seems therefore not impossible but that the Colony may be permitted—London being careless, and as long as our waste lands appear as a sort of security—to incur an utterly hopeless indebtedness. Argument and a sounder public opinion is then the only hope of safety.

The Government propose to benefit New Zealand by raising a loan of some millions, at not more than 6 per cent, to be expended chiefly on immigration, roads, and railways in the North Island, railways in the Middle Island, and on water-races for the goldfields of both islands. They say it is our duty to colonise New Zealand, and to enrich the inhabitants thereof. Without our interference the land will remain far too long a desert, and the people at present on it will be shortly ruined. They think that between the £6 paid annually on each hundred and the returns from public works, there will accrue a sum sufficient to enrich the present and immediately future population of New Zealand.

Now, at the outset, one or two things must occur to every man of the most ordinary abilities. First, that if such a plan as this will enrich a country, it must seem strange that it has not been more often put in practice. It is altogether a simple plan. It is precisely similar to that so often tried in private life, which, in nine cases out of ten, brings the trier to ruin. Further, that it is by a loan we are to attempt to get enriched, not by labour or by feeding our own labourers, but by foreign capital; not by the sweat of our own brows, but in great part at least by the sweat of other people's. One would think that in a weak and distant Colony like this, pressed hard by foreign countries in the race of production, and peculiarly liable to be shaken and shivered by the woes of life, that a rather light load of debt would suit it best. And this the more so since our public debt at this moment is greater per head, I believe, than that of any community on earth; and since at last balance our income would not have equalled our expenditure if without additional taxation.

A third thought must have struck nearly everyone. It was necessary to prove the existence of New Zealand's poverty. This was not very clear. How such a poverty could exist, requiring foreign capital to aid and alleviate it, seemed strange. Three bushels of oats cost 6s., a fat sheep from 5s. to 10s., and a day's wage is about 6s. This compares very well with many a country, be the same old or new. I have been reading Mr. Laing's Tour in Sweden in 1838. He mentions that during a season of scarcity there it needed the labour of 11 days to exchange for a bushel of rye—an inferior grain to oats. This is an extreme case, of course, and bark bread was being used to supplement other provisions. Still the difference between one and thirty-three, though everything be
considered, is enormous. Ornament and luxury may be wanting in the Colony, yet if labour is prudently directed, and its fruits as prudently husbanded, poverty is impossible. It is worth remembering too, that this scheme was never called for by the people, but forced upon them in great measure by their Government; and also that it is founded on mere conjecture. Mr Vogel's Financial Statement will be searched in vain for any reliable data on which to found his prospects.

But to return. If it can be shown that there is no existent poverty in New Zealand, then it follows that this visionary scheme, however desirable as a last resource elsewhere, is not needed here. But I may suppose that such poverty is in the Colony, and will enquire how far the scheme, with its additional millions of public debt, its railways, &c., will relieve it. It will be necessary to enquire into the cause of a country's poverty. Having discovered these, there may be a chance of finding a cure. The causes may be manifestly of two kinds, moral or material—pertaining to the people especially, or to the land itself. The chief of these will be perhaps as follow:

1.—Immorality, sensuality, crime, mental and bodily indolence, if chargeable to anyone, will rapidly bring him to poverty. I have no wish to traduce the people of New Zealand, yet it is not to be doubted that intemperance is terribly prevalent. Statistics, daily observation, and William Fox, declare this a most drunken country. It damages potently not only our material but our moral power. In view of the latter, who can recollect without a blush the circumstance that when Dr Featherston was in England, imploring on bended knees the aid of the Queen's Government to save our fellow-colonists from massacre, the Premier of New Zealand was travelling here disclosing the truth that we spend on drink more than sufficient to extirpate the Maori, root and branch.

2.—Bad laws and government, and political institutions of low and imperfect development, are inimical to a country's welfare. I do not know that bad laws can be said to prevail in New Zealand. It may be confidently said, however, that there are by far too many laws.

3.—Ignorance of one's business is very often the cause of failure, and that in this Colony. In agriculture, to take an instance, it is above all things necessary that one knows the business, when competition comes, as it will come. Yet I think that a very high proportion of failure may be set against this cause. When oats are at 5s. a bushel, general knowledge will do; when at 1s. 6d., special knowledge is wanted.

4.—A too heavy population manifestly does not exist in New Zealand, and is no cause of common poverty.

5.—Outside or inside enemies may bring a land to ruin. The inevitable Maori now appears on the scene—the Maori whom the eloquent Charles Hursthouse predicted would become the Colony's ornament in peace, the Colony's stoutest defender in war. Yet I cannot understand how these millions will solve the Maori difficulty. I have great doubts about the roads to be constructed having such beneficial results. As long as the bush remains, rebellion will remain. Were it cleared away to a distance of 1000 yards on each side of the roads, we might hope to penetrate those fastnesses, or at least to move with some freedom. The expense of doing this would be enormous. On reflection, the causes of Maori wars seem to be mainly three—to the fact that two distinct races exist in the country; that these races do not commingle; and that the warlike strength of the one is not much greater than the other, arising from natural obstacles, chiefly bush. It is true those roads during peace may tend to promote an intercourse between the races, but this may be interrupted or totally destroyed by a hundred accidents. With enemies from the outside we have not as yet been disturbed.

6.—Extravagant and unproductive expenditure New Zealand is certainly not free from. We do not maintain fleets and armies or a very heavy priesthood, but the cost of Government is very great. There is no need for supposing, as many do, that a change is needed in its form. What is wanted is a cheaper and better administration. If bankruptcy follows a Province, the County will not escape either.

7.—Reckless borrowing, and recklessly incurring engagements, is a dangerous and poverty-bringing thing. It is manifest that if, say, a settler borrows largely, and expends the money no matter how carefully, if his produce cannot find a market he has a high chance of becoming a ruined man. I have supposed the most favourable case. A Government is seldom so good a judge of productive and unproductive expenditure, can never so carefully expend as the individual, and does not borrow (all things counted) much cheaper than he. Out of these seven evils it is absurd, I think, to look for a cure in the scheme.

8.—Coming to material causes: deficient natural resources in a country will go far to produce poverty, such deficiency being not probably absolute; yet comparative want must remain. If two countries offer pieces of land for sale which differ widely in fertility, the one will be chosen and the other left. No man will buy a blunt instrument when a sharp one can be got as cheaply and easily. I am obliged to confess that in my opinion the natural resources of New Zealand are not great. It is but a hilly, pastoral country, covered in many parts with heavy and useless timber. Nor, as many have supposed and been disappointed in, is the pasturage capable of much improvement. For instance, through the southern parts of Otago English grasses are a total failure—a failure meaning millions. Oats and potatoes are the only crops suitable there, and for these no market can be found. Will the Government scheme, with its railways, get a market for them? Will emigration agents and
The other day of the steel sand of Taranaki, which lies on the coast, things which may be received pay to work. We need nor hope to compete in iron or coal with far more favoured lands. Great things were said they have been found. In a distant Colony such as this, copper and minerals of a rather precious kind only will manifestly needs no railway. With the exception of gold, there are no positions than ourselves, we must wait our turn.

It seems to be the opinion of the Government that this is what this Colony mainly wants, and with it I cannot coincide. I venture to say that were an avenue of enterprise to open just now in the country, with but a moderately good chance of success at the end of it, neither capital nor labour will be wanting a day. Let the flax and meat-curing industries bear witness. For many years past there has been no want of money seeking investments. Gold and wool are the chief products which it will pay the people of this remote land to produce. From gold-mining the glory soon departs, and a few years suffices to stock a country whose grasses are economically unimprovable. In Dunedin at this moment there are hundreds of thousands of pounds seeking investment, and finding none. When it is said that want of capital hinders the progress of New Zealand, all private experience contradicts the assertion: and the Government must think that though the individual is a fool, they, his representatives, are wise—a strange opinion certainly.

These are the chief causes which occur to me as likely to war with our or any country's prosperity, and I think scarcely a sane man will be found to argue that the Government scheme will remove any one of them. It is not by scheming, but by labour and abstinence, that men grow rich. Every dog has his day, and New Zealand must take time. Among a number of equally intelligent competitors for labour and capital, but having better positions than ourselves, we must wait our turn.

But it may be asked if the scheme is not likely to cure directly these ills, will it not cure them indirectly? A weed may be hoed up or smothered down. Now, perhaps, few instruments have a wider bearing on economical and political conditions than railways, and they form part of the scheme, the chief part. It strikes me then that if it be impolitic and an economical blunder for a Government to construct railroads, it will be a waste of time enquiring whether it is worth their while to engage in any save the most ordinary colonising operations. If the railway division of the scheme fails, Mr. Vogel should have moved on immortality from some other quarter. Railways are powerful developers of certain resources.

Let us now see what railways have done in the world in this way, and are likely to do, and whether they are required by New Zealand, and this as briefly as possible.

1.—A heavy population and consequent traffic require and can support a railway; a saving of time is effected, and if the population is wealthy many will travel both on business and pleasure. There is no heavy population in New Zealand.

2.—Railways are required for minerals of certain kinds, chiefly coal and iron, when in consort with a heavy population. Gold, which is one of the most valuable metals, and which sustains a population scattered about in the most inaccessible parts of the country, manifestly needs no railway. With the exception of gold, there are no minerals found as yet that can support a railway here; and it is surely time enough to make the railway after they have been found. In a distant Colony such as this, copper and minerals of a rather precious kind only will pay to work. We need nor hope to compete in iron or coal with far more favoured lands. Great things were said the other day of the steel sand of Taranaki, which lies on the coast, things which may be received cum nota.

3.—Unless in a flat and extensive country, and having an outside market, agriculture alone—that is,
without a heavy population—will not support a railway. The railroads of America—a land comparatively lightly inhabited—would not for an age have been made, had the old world not purchased the fruits they carry. Otherwise, what could have been got for them to do? The corn of one State could not differ much from that of its neighbour: and even if it did, the settler might have found it not easy to find another product with which to supplement it in its inferiority. With high farming, such as that of England, and a dense population, railways are needed. If agriculture, then, but barely supports a railroad, I need not say that depasturing stock decidedly will not. If what is asserted above is correct, New Zealand cannot claim a railway as an agricultural or pastoral country. Even were the Colony not a mass of mountains, covered with fern, bush, rocks, snow, and ice, but largely containing cultivable land, the smallness of its districts, and their comparative nearness to the coast, rivers, and firths, could not for a long time have greatly needed a railway. For American competition should not be forgotten.

4.—A railroad is useful in war. Suppose a war breaks out between two nations, the one with, the other without, railroads. It is manifest that the railways of the one, by rapidly concentrating men and material, would gain a hold on the ground of the other, and perhaps overwhelm it. An exception is to be noted where the defender is protected by nature, as by mountains. And this exception pertains certainly to New Zealand. If aid comes from hills, we shall not have far to look for either.

5.—A part of the expense of maintaining the common roads is saved by railways. This is a great point with the railway-manics. But I think if this saving is set against the maintaining and working the railway, and the interest on the money borrowed to make it, it will not be boasted of. Indeed, to argue thus is a palpable absurdity, unless we can show that we have something to carry more than sufficient for a road. It is true that roads do, or rather did, cost much money. They cost a great deal when a day's wage nearly equalled three-fourths of the present week's wage, and their maintenance was costly, and when the former night traffic equalled the present day traffic. Although these things hold against any general system of railways (against just the system proposed to be pursued), yet there may be found exceptional cases, where a railway, if not much required, may be useful, as where the configuration of the country concentrates on one route the traffic. Thus the produce of this district passes and ever will pass by the Taieri Plain to Dunedin and its port; and the Canterbury tunnel is not to be hastily condemned, for a like reason. In other words, a railway must pay by its work the expense of its existence and maintenance. The tolls on a road do not always do this, because the meshes of the net are are not close enough, and the benefitted get through free; with a railway you open and shut the door with a key.

6.—This railway system will tend to the stronger political unification of the Colony. Most will not deny this tendency. But before much practical good can result a connecting population is needed, as well as a connecting railway; and before the former can be settled and relied upon to remain, sundry economical conditions, not recognised by some of our political philosophers, must combine and act. "If the people will make the railway, the railway will make the people:" so said Mr. Pease, and so say some of us. They do not say at what rate of speed the making goes on. Where different railways in different parts of the world compete for this making, I suspect the rate of speed will vary, and that in a distant land, possessing wealth of low exchange value, it may be pronounced slow.

7.—It has been urged, however, that though a railway might not pay in the ordinary commercial sense of the word, yet that in very many unseen ways they enrich a community. Now, I think this a very dangerous notion, and evidently so. It would be dangerous in any community, the most educated and moral; much more so is it here with a population far from firmly settled, and who are compelled to trust their interests to a lot of bankrupts and broken-down fanatics, utterly unreliable in their judgment of right and expediency. This opinion, too, is mere conjecture, unsupported by data or figures. Has any one ever named a sum warranted to approximate that which shall accrue as profit? Much less than this indeed can be done, I suspect. Was ever the interest on the money borrowed to make it, it will not be boasted of. Indeed, to argue thus is a palpable absurdity, unless we can show that we have something to carry more than sufficient for a road. It is true that roads do, or rather did, cost much money. They cost a great deal when a day's wage nearly equalled three-fourths of the present week's wage, and their maintenance was costly, and when the former night traffic equalled the present day traffic. Although these things hold against any general system of railways (against just the system proposed to be pursued), yet there may be found exceptional cases, where a railway, if not much required, may be useful, as where the configuration of the country concentrates on one route the traffic. Thus the produce of this district passes and ever will pass by the Taieri Plain to Dunedin and its port; and the Canterbury tunnel is not to be hastily condemned, for a like reason. In other words, a railway must pay by its work the expense of its existence and maintenance. The tolls on a road do not always do this, because the meshes of the net are are not close enough, and the benefitted get through free; with a railway you open and shut the door with a key.

8.—Railways will supersede common roads, some allege. That they may, under certain conditions, as by cheap carriage, supersede roads to some extent is possible. If the Colony is unable, as is also possible, after making these railroads, to make roads or anything else, roads will be still further superseded. But many may be excused for believing that the day is still distant when the commonality will go to church and market on a railroad.

All things considered then, I defy anyone to name a civilised country where railroads are less required than here, Iceland perhaps excepted. I now hasten to conclude with a word on immigration. The plan of the Government must herein too be condemned. To colonise and people these Islands in the wholesale way proposed by them is impossible, consistent with modern notions of liberty. Such a plan would require despotic
power and unbounded wealth, coupled perhaps with a subject as docile and plastic as the Hindoo. In these tines the requisites of Teutonic migration are rather numerous and interesting. If we forget these, we shall only enrich the neighbouring colonies to our cost. If by a too heavy addition to our population industry is not rewarded up to the general level, that population will emigrate till it does; the best of it (those who have laboured and; saved) will do this, and the paupers will remain.

I shall conclude with this remark: Government interference is excessive in this Colony. The bad results which follow where everything is done for a people, and not by a people, I need not particularise. It is not the duty of a Government to work, but to oversee; and it will remain a blot on our economical history that it did such and such things. The efforts of the New Zealand reformer should be directed towards defining the limits of the province of Government. Her weak and light population, and the fewness of her cities, call aloud for this. A heavy civil service is apt to be uncontrollable in such circumstances.

Frisky Finance.

[These observations were made by me in September, 1872, when Mr. Vogel was Colonial Treasurer. He is now Colonial Treasurer, in the year of grace, 1885. I am sorry to say that they apply in almost perfect entirety to his financing still. He and it are as "frisky" as ever.]

Mr. Vogel, in the middle of his financial statement, treated his hearers to what he called "some interesting statistics, comparing New Zealand with other countries." My opinion of Mr. Vogel's capacities was never very high, and since reading these statistics it has not improved. His object was very evident—to prove how great were the Colony's resources for taxation, and how right and proper its present terrific expenditure and downward credit-destroying course, and to do this by assertions of nonsense no matter how utter. The key to success in New Zealand's political life may be summed up in one word—borrow. A prolonged borrow-bawl is the soul of her politics, and any notions which may get abroad that are likely to startle the money-lenders would be disastrous indeed. Had he been addressing a skilled audience, the insult he offered to their common sense would have been resented in some way; and the fact that no one seems to have thought himself insulted does not weaken the disgust and alarm which all who know better, and have any stake in the country, must feel.

To enter very minutely into these "interesting statistics" would require more space, and more of the patience and attention of the public, than I can well count upon, but the following remarks may tend to modify any influence which such fallacies may anywhere exert.

1.—The people of a country can pay taxes in money according to the abundance with them of that money; hence their taxpaying power is regulated by the amount of their average net income and capital. What that average per head is, these statistics give not the remotest idea.

2.—The amount of the exports and imports of a country give no index to its wealth. A country without any foreign trade, as China, may possess very considerable wealth; and another, with such trade, may, as to the bulk of its population, be very poor. Many circumstances, moral and material, may beguile the superficial observer; for the extent and the profits of a business are two very different things. Wool is the chief export of New Zealand, for instance. A gentleman well acquainted with pastoral matters stated lately, on oath, that for years back there had not been a station in the country, with few exceptions, which paid working expenses. The same may be said of agriculture. This is true still. Since the rabbit plague, pastoral matters have been in most ruinous form.

3.—In the Colony one very obvious question may be put: To whom do these exports belong? When ancient Rome conquered a territory, it became her property and the inhabitants her tenants. The exports, say, of ancient Egypt were no doubt great, but then they did not belong to Egypt. In the same way it may be suspected that, were the amount of interest paid on foreign capital, and the amount of property owned by non-residents known, some damaging admissions would have to be made. I may add that the capital of old and wealthy States acts on new ones not always very unlike the doings of ancient Rome. Its domination is more polished, yet the day may be near when its action, both on land and labour, will be curbed—though in a less downright fashion than the French Communist would have.

4.—The high amount per head of the exports and imports of a new country like this show, if they show anything, the sameness of the employments of the people, and particularly the absence of manufactures and of fixed and accumulated capital. The older the colony grows, the amount must fall. An advanced state of society will permit the supply of many of its wants by its own members. Hence these exports represent far more of our present and comparative wealth than do those of an older country. Our circumstances compel us, so to speak, to put nearly our all in the window. The absence of fixed and accumulated capital chiefly stands in the way of an income and property tax.

5.—But public indebtedness must be taken into account. In every land whatsoever a public debt is a burden
and a nuisance. When the creditor abides in the indebted country the payment of interest is but an exchange from one to another, and does not detract from the resources of the country. But where, as in the case of New Zealand, he does not so abide, the payment of interest does manifestly and very greatly cripple us.

6.—I believe, however, that, after a sense, the people of New Zealand are wealthier than those of Britain. The Britain of the South ought to clothe and feed 500,000 people a little better than the Britain of the North does 30,000,000. But wealth may be rude plenty or exchangeable. I have known many tons of excellent potatoes flung into the Clutha River to get them out of the way, and Mr. Vogel's acumen would not have taken them as payment of a very small tax. I also think that wealth increases faster here (though some doubt if it does), and that it is better distributed. Yet all this does not warrant the belief that the present taxation of New Zealand is not excessive, since the accumulated capital of England is reached by an income and property tax. Possibly we are now making money faster than in England; but that is manifestly no reason for supposing that her past savings have been destroyed.

7.—The best indices to the progress of national wealth are the net returns from labour, the net income and interest procurable from capital, and from the post-office revenue. The post-office revenue in the United Kingdom was 2s. 11d. per head of the population, as against 3s. 4d. in New Zealand. When the difference in the charges are noted, this does not say much for us, save that the internal trade between the town and country is here a very slight one indeed. Probably the telegraph revenue will shew a like result. The wages of the labourer are clearly greater here, and interest on money is higher, which shews only that there is more room for enterprise (not that enterprise has achieved great tax-bearing resources), and that the extra risk and trouble in prosecuting the same in these distant waters should be remunerated. Stamp duties, which are highly indicative of wealth, amount to 6s. a head in Britain, or nearly 50 per cent, more than here.

8.—But though it be true that we can bear the taxation of Britain, or more, that can be no reason why we should. Why should not a diminished instead of a greater taxation be the property of the colonist? Did a hungry bureaucracy and wildest public extravagance always gripe the throat of the settler? Those who would learn something of this should consult Dr. Adam Smith's chapter on colonies in his celebrated work. He there speaks in the highest terms of the cheapness and efficacy of the government of the North American colonies, and mentions the "moderation of their taxes" as one of the four chief reasons which have contributed to their progress. "The expense of the civil establishments of Massachusetts Bay, before the commencement of the present disturbance, used to be about £18,000 a year; that of New Hampshire and Rhode Island, £3500 each; that of Connecticut £4000; that of New York and Pennsylvania, £4500 each; that of New Jersey, £1200; that of Virginia and South Carolina, £8000 each. The civil establishments of Nova Scotia and Georgia are partly supported by an annual grant of parliament, but Nova Scotia pays besides about £7000 a year towards the public expense of the colony, and Georgia about £2500 a year. All the different civil establishments in North America, in short, exclusive of those of Maryland and North Carolina, of which no exact amount has been got, did not cost the inhabitants above £64,700 a year—an ever memorable example at how small an expense three millions of people may not only be governed but well governed." He then compares this frugality with the expensive ostentation of the Spanish and Portuguese in the same hemisphere, where "the sums spent upon the reception of a new Viceroy of Peru, for example, have frequently been enormous." These latter colonies are at this day in a state of chronic bankruptcy and disorder, without morals or religion; those former are perhaps the strongest nation on earth. I consider the financial position and the resulting taxation of this colony should be deplored by every thinking man, and I cannot conceive of any more pernicious counsel than that which would preach contentment and satisfaction with them. While people recognise their faults they may improve, but when they don't know them they cannot. The fact that in our short career of self-government we have a taxation of nearly £4. a head, as against 43s. in Britain, saps the foundations of that liberty our ancestors laid, and wrongs our posterity. What can we advance for ourselves in the face of such a truth? What kingdoms conquered, what victories won? Will the hardships we have endured, softened as they are by natural circumstances and modern art, compare with those of many other colonists? Mr. Vogel, however, is very well satisfied, for he says—"I find when I turn to a neighbouring colony (New South Wales), that without any very exceptional circumstances the deficit of that colony, inclusive of £381,000 treasury bills, amounts to £825,000." He gives also further evidence and reasons for happiness and contentment when he compares our position with that of the United Kingdom.

9.—Those comparative statistics show that we have a higher proportion of able-bodied and young men in the colony than in most other countries; but they show that if they can earn more in consequence, they do not always spend their wages on the most proper commodities—the consumption of spirits and tobacco being great indeed. [The consumption is now, I am glad to say, much less than it was 12 years ago.] Indeed the want of old men in a state seems no unmitigated good. They should give a steadier motion to things political and social; and had we more of them, perhaps some of the capers which the "Friskies" have cut among us might have been wanting. Age, even when ignorant, is cautious; youth, though educated, is apt to be passionate and reckless.
10.—The local taxation, according to Mr. Vogel, is not nearly so heavy here as in the United Kingdom. But local taxation is very heavy. We have road rates in New Zealand in abundance, and land reserves for education and religion which count up to millions of acres. These enormous reserves will, by being withdrawn from taxation, cause its incidence to fall the heavier on the general land and labour of the country, thus producing an indirect taxation, and one of the worst sort.

In the financial statement there are of course many things to be found suggestive enough. I have seen a 'Hansard,' and find that Mr. Vogel admits in one place that comparative statistics, such as his I suppose, are practically useless, and "create in different minds widely varying impressions." As if talking against time, he goes on to give them, however, and hopes before concluding "that they will be suggestive to honourable members of many and valuable conclusions." We hope so too.

1872.

The Land Tax.

[This paper seems worth reprinting, for there are some still in New-Zealand who demand a Land Tax. Their labours are not likely now to be successful.]

To criticise an editor in his own newspaper is a rather delicate business. When the writer has no time to enter fully into the subject, his sentences are short and abrupt, and apt to seem offensive. I think, however, that your discrimination may fairly be counted on. In a late leading article, you write as follows:—"We do not hold that all large purchasers are speculators, but we do argue that it would be better for the country that 10,000 acres of land should be occupied by say fifty families than be held in the hands of one man to be occupied for grazing purposes only. In regard to taxation, we argue that the owners of large speculative purchases, or unimproved estates, have a right to bear an acreage pro rata rate of taxation equivalent to what the Government would receive were it occupied by moderate-sized holdings, and consequent increased population, and from increased value per acre by reason of cultivation. Large properties, equally with small ones, receive an increased value per acre by reason of the expenditure of borrowed money on public works, and ought therefore to bear an equal share of the increased burden of taxation incident on the construction of those works. Let Pathfinder say why they should not."

I deem it my duty to offer these considerations, as the position you take up seems to me quite erroneous. 1.—The reason given above is likely to fail, because it is by no means certain that railways on borrowed money will permanently raise the value of land. With a mania on the popular mind everything from a tulip to a railway appears valuable; but before concluding it might be best to wait a little and see. Besides admitting that there must be heavy taxation of some kind, I do not see how the owners of pastoral land are to escape more than others. I am aware that the natural course of things in every civilised country tends to raise the value of land, and that this rise may take place without the efforts of the owner, and that it has been proposed and held fair by some to tax this natural movement (though there would probably be much difficulty in enforcing such a tax); but the present expenditure on doubtful public works is not the natural course of things, and when it ceases property will return to its former value.

2.—The tax would be very unequal and inequitable. One acre of land differs greatly in value from another. Some lands contain minerals, which may require a railway to develope them; and others are broken and mountainous, and don't require one. From these causes any taxation so applied would be of an intolerably crude and rough description. In the present case it would be specially inequitable, because the large land-owners and all generally who had any considerable stake in the country consistently opposed and succeeded in modifying the present "policy."

3.—As you are aware, many and long have been the discussions about large and small farms, their benefits or otherwise. Their purely economical causes are of course easily understood, but I believe people still differ as to their moral and social powers. You are of opinion that 200 acres generally is large enough for a farm, and further that it should be devoted to agriculture. From your opinion here I decidedly differ. Before all the cultivable land in New Zealand even now bought shall be improved, we must have towns to suit and markets both inside and outside the country. To tax anyone because these are non-existent, and farming a non-paying thing, would be an extraordinary policy. Fifty families on 10,000 acres would no doubt be likely to pay in indirect taxes more than one family; and why? Mainly owing to the market price of their corn and cattle. If cultivation extends unnaturally, viz., driven by a violent law, prices must fall, and the purchasing power of the fifty families over dutiable commodities will be spread over perhaps 100, to the detriment or ruin of all. The small farmer and large pastoral land-owner have similar interests. Why should the former court the competition of the latter? Why should the Government seek to deteriorate the style of living of the farmers, by compelling others to compete with them or be taxed? If we don't want large farms we should not sell large farms, and if we
are not to sell large farms we must keep out of debt.

4.—But probably such a tax would be found to delay the day of these 200-acre farms. For by robbing and impoverishing the land-owner, he might have no capital remaining to make them when their making would be economically possible.

5.—It might be asked, should not bought and unoccupied lands be taxed? Even here I would pause before doing so. Their owner has bought them, and the Government has got the money for public works. Meanwhile, the neighbours fatten gratis on him. He is more to be pitied than taxed. It should not be forgotten that freedom in industry is everything, and that by compelling the worker to divert his attention from most probably a better paying to a less paying labour, we weaken him and consequently the state he is a member of. His object in not occupying the land for a time may, for ought we know, be to occupy it the better when he thinks the proper time comes.

6.—There are other reasons, no doubt—and very good ones—in bar of the taxes you propose, which a less rusty pen than mine might divulge. It may be denounced as a tax on capital, and not nearly so just as even one on rent. An export duty on wool, and an increased one on gold, would be better than either, and will probably have to be resorted to. Again, town lands on the same principle should be taxed if not built upon. If the empty country is to be filled by law, so may the empty town be filled by law.

7.—I come, in conclusion, to observe that to impose such a tax would be a most impolitic step to take in the interests of all the country settlers. A moment’s reflection will teach us that the people of New Zealand will shortly be called upon by the civil magistrate to pay an annual sum per head greater than any age or nation has ever known. These railways even their promoters now admit will not pay. Mr. Vogel the other day at Christchurch scouted the idea of the question "Will they pay?" ever being asked at them. A railway was only a modern equipped road, and being modern we must have them—no matter how little soever we have to carry on them—no matter, I suppose, though we have not a sixpence to pay for them. The spirit and temper of the times demand them, and so forth. Balderdash like this will get more common as the day of reckoning draws near. A back door of the meanest description will be then an article of the first necessity.

Now this sum can only be raised by additional taxation, or through the disposal of the waste lands Much may be said against adding to the present terrific taxation. Debt, taxation, demoralisation and disaster "gang thegither." Human nature is weak, and heavy taxation means perjury, false declarations and lies. Yet to sell the lands wholesale would be liable to still greater objections. When the lands are gone immigration is gone, and the colony goes down. It was also distinctly maintained from the first that the public creditor should look to the consolidated revenue for payment, and to that alone. There are chiefly three interests in New Zealand—the mining, the commercial or the towns, and the country or the land-owners. Should one of these allow itself to be disunited, it is manifest that the others may the more easily clap an unfair amount of public burden on it. I do not know which is the strongest, but that unity is strength and self-protection is certain. Still if the landed property of England can hold its own against the swarm of mines, manufactures, money, and commerce, surely this Colony if true to itself may hold a still stronger position. If, however, one division of it is arrayed against the other for the purpose of imposing the tax alluded to, a tax as oppressive as it is Eastern, the whole body will find themselves mistaken. The taxation which only reached the pastoral farmer of 200 acres and upwards, will soon find its way downwards when other interests ask the reason of the exclusion, and deem it, as it is their interest to deem it, unsatisfactory. I will conclude, therefore, for unity and against the Land Tax.

1873

State Guarantees.

The Financial Statement recently made by Sir Julius Vogel has proved an incentive to reflection and comment, and has already met with more than the ordinary share of criticism at the hands of the conductors of the Press. There is one paragraph however, which appears to me to have been overlooked It is as follows:—

"I desire to say a few words about the general position of New Zealand credit. There is no disguising that it has suffered, partly from detraction, which I hold to be altogether unmerited, and partly from the fact of the Colony having borrowed very largely. It is impossible to secure for the public debt of a Colony like New Zealand an accurate consideration of its true nature. People will not pause to analyse. A public debt means to them a public debt in its ordinary acceptation, and they compare New Zealand's public debt with national debts of old countries. The comparison is essentially faulty for the New Zealand debt is mainly composed of money, expended on objects which have no place in ordinary national debts, but the value of which is fully recognised. If a person wished to show the extremities of good and ill which distinguish a country, he would be apt to point to the small amount of money expended on the usual objects for which national loans were contracted, and the vast expenditure on the purposes for which, mostly, the debt of New Zealand has been contracted. Do not let us
say there is nothing in a name. If a large proportion of our New Zealand debt had been in the shape of a loan to railway companies, not to the Colony, its amount would be accepted as a proof of the Colony's progress, and judicious promotion of settlement."

We have here neither more nor less than the old "enemy-whine" which used to be so prevalent in Otago some years ago. It was used by a great Otago politician, and seemed both to edify his people and support his conscience. When a scheme fails through its own absurdity, and the stupidity of its proposer and worker, the latter is apt to be laughed at or questioned. He then defends himself. "My plan and I were all right, and just on the point of success, when a man, my enemy, declared to all and sundry that we were both wrong, and with a lot of cunning and villany he got them to believe him. Faith fell. I have somewhat failed this time, but won't the next. Hate, then, my friends, your enemy and my enemy; stick to your friend and martyr, so torn and disfigured by misfortune as scarcely to be recognised as one, etc. etc." Priests in the temple of humbug often discourse the enemy-whine. The statement made above in the financial speech is palpably erroneous. When the article appeared in Fraser's Magazine at home, written against New Zealand's finance (and which, no doubt, is alluded to), the Colonial funds did not fall a sixpence, and when it was answered by Vogel, the funds did not rise a sixpence. Had people been disposed to read magazines to learn the state of our public credit, they had then an opportunity. If they took it, and relied on the information, it is strange that it did not show itself on their conduct.

The dealers in Colonial or other stocks do not need to go to Home magazines for information regarding the financial condition of almost any people in modern times. This, at any rate, is a free country. Its press is free. Every information can be had with the least possible amount of trouble by anyone, not only as to the public income and expenditure, but as to all our resources. He may further publish the same all over the world, and none dare make him afraid. He can consult for himself the Blue Books annually published, and does not require anyone to lead him to correct conclusions. The attack and defence have each their fair field and no favour. To gag the press of England is impossible, and the public servant who would be above criticism is impudent indeed. It is not to be denied that New Zealand has been vulnerable for a long time on the side of its finance, but no writer of the required acumen has appeared on the field.

The causes are perfectly evident which have led to the fall in New Zealand's securities. Any man of common sense knows that taxation, where the people are not utterly enslaved, can only draw from a given number a given sum; that this was nearly reached here even before the present borrowing began; that the public lands, which are a sort of security, are being rapidly parted with, while the demand for more money grows chronic and eternal; that the money which has not been utterly squandered has been spent on railways, nine-tenths of which are virtually unproductive, because made before we have full use or need for them, and thus demanding further taxation or a sacrifice of the waste lands; that in a country so bare of capital, wages to the labourers who have been imported at great expense cannot be forthcoming, necessitating their departure to other lands not under a similar cloud; and that the price of the chief colonial productions is falling, and likely to fall. These are the causes which have led to the difficulty New Zealand statesmen find in borrowing money.

But this part of the Statement, I maintain, is an insult to the people of this Colony. Never, perhaps, since the day of civil government broke in rudest dawn, was the call of the magistrate responded to by any people as was lately seen in New Zealand. Vogel and his fellows sounded the trumpet of supposed progress, and a considerable display of faith, alacrity, and determination was witnessed. They put their shoulders to the wheel. Of course a croaker would now and then suggest that declamation and verbose lumber were scarcely convertible terms with learning and caution; but then he was reminded that envy and calumny never forsook the latter is apt to be laughed at or questioned. He then defends himself. "My plan and I were all right, and just on the point of success, when a man, my enemy, declared to all and sundry that we were both wrong, and with a lot of cunning and villany he got them to believe him. Faith fell. I have somewhat failed this time, but won't the next. Hate, then, my friends, your enemy and my enemy; stick to your friend and martyr, so torn and disfigured by misfortune as scarcely to be recognised as one, etc. etc." Priests in the temple of humbug often discourse the enemy-whine. The statement made above in the financial speech is palpably erroneous. When the article appeared in Fraser's Magazine at home, written against New Zealand's finance (and which, no doubt, is alluded to), the Colonial funds did not fall a sixpence, and when it was answered by Vogel, the funds did not rise a sixpence. Had people been disposed to read magazines to learn the state of our public credit, they had then an opportunity. If they took it, and relied on the information, it is strange that it did not show itself on their conduct.

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Time has passed, and now effects somewhat unexpected begin to follow causes. The tramp of a coming change, and one not for the better, sounds clearly on the ear. Men ask of the man whom they have trusted, and he answers with an enemy-whine. He is not bold enough to confess to the blame and the blunder. But "an enemy hath done this," he replies.

It is also, we think, an insult to the people of Britain who are in effect told that they are being misled by their press in believing what is not true, and in ceasing to confide in the Colony without sufficient cause. Such reflections are uncalled for. It must be known to many that of all the colonics to which a warmth of friendship and convertibility of terms with learning and caution; but then he was reminded that envy and calumny never forsook the good who were great.

We may add that the remark made above, that when a Government adds to its liabilities by guaranteeing a certain interest to a railway company, instead of borrowing the money directly and doing the work itself, its credit would not be affected thereby, is decidedly new. It is also a very great pity that Sir Julius Vogel did not
find this out sooner. It is one of the most wonderful discoveries human genius ever compassed. When applied to private life, the case may be stated thus:—Man No. I has some money to lend. Man No. 2 borrows it, and agrees to pay five and a-half per cent, for it, if he can; but if he cannot, here is Man No. 3, who agrees to make good the deficiency, and who does so to the extent of three and a-half per cent, per annum. In other and darker days, it was thought that No. 3’s credit and resources were damaged by such an obligation as that, and that neither he, his wife, nor family would gain anything by it. These dreams are all dissipated now, and the door of hope has opened with a vengeance.

The Property Tax.

[When New Zealand, consequent on her heavy indebtedness, had to tax her people to pay the interest on it, a very general desire was shown by many there to throw this duty of paying on their neighbour rather than on themselves. A very considerable number thought that the land owner should be called on, and a tax on land imposed. What follows was written on a defence of the property tax now law. This taxes with a very few exceptions (as libraries) a certain sum, now ¾d. in the the capital value of all property, and including, of course, money. I insert it here because I consider it and a poll tax the only fair and moral taxes possible. Luxuries which pay so much in taxes, should, if they are an evil, be prohibited. To play fast and loose with evil results usually in us coming off second best. Britain might do worse than try a property tax on the same or perhaps improved lines.]

The people of New Zealand find a rather considerable deficit in their public revenue. There has, it is true, been depression in trade, but rightly enough the railways receive the major part of the blame of the deficit. The so-called New Zealand Railways are only London railways in New Zealand, or railways rented by the people from some capitalists in London. That rent is about £5, 10s. on every £100 of their cost, while the work that can be done by them for the people, and which the people can as a body directly pay for, brings only a direct recompense of £2 in the £100, and perhaps scarcely that. Until the people grow far more numerous or richer, there is no hope of improvement. This rent is payable every six months, and when the time is up and no money to pay it with, men look now and then at one another before they put their hands in their pockets. The people of New Zealand may be classed as miners, merchants, and farmers or settlers, and each of these thinks his neighbour should pay at least his share of the balance due, if not more. In the struggle the farmer has come the worst off; a land tax has been imposed and paid for a year. The deficit being still in the ascendent, the settler, it is thought by some, should have a still higher land tax imposed on him, and that the property tax now law—should be foregone.

My object in writing this letter is to bring to the memory of some who clamour against the land owners, a few facts which they seem to forget. They might remember (1) that when this scheme of borrowing was begun, it was distinctly laid down that the Colonial creditor was to look to the customs revenue for his rent or interest. The work to be done was Colonial work, and no special employment or class was to be specially called upon or taxed. Each province at first was to bear its own railway burden. This was changed, and the Colony took it upon itself. Vogel was jubilant, or pretended to be, at the seeming success of the scheme; many in New Zealand were with him in this. They forget, however, like Benhadad, that the proper time to boast is not when one puts on his harness, but when he takes it off. For at that time New Zealand railway harness was not half put on. (2.) That the majority of land owners opposed the borrowing from the first. (3.) That railways, when they do not bear their own burden, neither raise the value of life or property of any kind. The value of land in New Zealand has risen truly enough, and the land owner has been enriched, but not by railways. If large sums of money are borrowed, and scattered or squandered broadcast over the land, of course land and other commodities will not exchange for so little gold as they did before; and of course when this scattering and squandering not only ceases, but begins to scatter the wrong way in the shape of interest paid, then land and other commodities will exchange for just as little gold as they did before, and perhaps for a good deal less. If, therefore, land rose, it shows that somebody must have got the money to raise it with, and the money-holders should be taxed, and not so certainly the landholders, for the money so obtained was borrowed. It is ten years or so since the borrowing scheme commenced, and if we compare the rise in land of these three years with the rise of the former ten years, we may find that the railways have not been so advantageous. (4.) And that the public in all its classes benefit just as much by the borrowed money and public works as the land owner. Neither his property nor his person is carried at any other than the common rate. (5.) That railways lower the value of land in a country where more of them are made than the people require. This is the case now here. By opening up the country too fast farmer competes with farmer, and the public benefit at his expense. I can name farmers who are now driving oats to a railway station ten or twelve miles distant, and receive 8d. a bushel for them there. (6.) That land is taxed enormously already. The farmer, in
addition to customs duties, pays road rates, rabbit rates, county rates, sheep rates and land tax. Common sense, not to mention common morality, might indicate that further special impositions should not be attempted, and that those who do seek to attempt them do so from low and vicious motives. (7.) That since the golden shower has fallen on all indiscriminately, all should indiscriminately assist in making up the balance wanting. (8.) That a land tax reaches in every five cases in ten the very land owner whom it ought not to reach. As everyone knows, during the late inflation all the country from Dan to Beersheba was for sale, and perhaps the half of it was sold at enormously high prices. A land tax makes this price still more enormous, and the receiver of the high price stands by with the money invested or in his pocket, untouched and untaxed, looking on.

For these and other reasons it seems to me that the present property tax is by far the fairest that can be imposed. We cannot eat our cake and in honesty spare it too. If we rent railways which are too heavy for the numbers and wealth of the people, and are consequently unproductive, we must expect to be molested. We must expect, when we incur such a load of debt, to see what for the sake of courtesy we call our government degenerate into a mere machine for gathering money for the home loan-monger. We need not wonder if with debt and taxation present, demoralisation and disaster follow.

I have, however, two faults to find with the present property tax. All are exempt who have property under £500. Where the moral right can have come from to charge one's second £500 with a tax and let the first go free, and along with it five-sixths of the population, I am at a loss to conceive. On these five-sixths the golden shower fell as plainly as on the rest. Another most pernicious breach of common sense is the exemption of the property of public companies whose partners reside abroad. Private property owners may also, it is said, evade the tax by residing say in Tasmania or elsewhere. This is expediency with a vengeance. Capital, it is said, would not enter the Colony if it had to pay taxes like the common colonist, &c. The legislature seems to have thought that the moral law, which says "Thou shalt not steal," was a piece of fanaticism, which they and the Colony would annihilate. But the subject is beneath criticism.

I would urge, in conclusion, upon the land owners, be they large or small, the necessity of union in their own defence. The object of Grey and others is to divide the camp of the agriculturist by the cry about land aristocrats, land sharks, and such like, in order that the other classes of the community may escape the payment of their just debts. A moment's reflection will show that the large land owner is not the cause of the present dangerous state of things, and neither would his ruin raise the country to prosperity. Those who want large estates divided should state where the small farmers are to come from to occupy them. If we did not want large farms we should not have sold large farms, and the not doing that means the keeping out of debt; and that we are utterly incapable of doing this is as melancholy a fact as the future historian will have to narrate. The seller was therefore as much to blame as the buyer. To tax a man because his farm is large, is to punish him because the population of the globe is, in the opinion of the taxer, insufficient, or because the globe was made too big.

Land monopoly, so much talked about, is mainly a dream. A glance at the map of the two hemispheres shows this. What with land where the civilized foot has never been, and land inhabited by effete nations over whom the doom bell is ringing, there seems more land than ever will be held till perhaps the end of the world. The effort of the ruler, should be directed to keep farms from getting too small. Our race seems to err as much on this side as on the other. It seems prone to degenerate to small farming and a weak vegetarian economy, which a hot wind or a few bad seasons upset. Famine and the death of the population by the million then follow. In Ireland about a million of people died of starvation once on and surrounded by small farms. In India, lately, two and a-half millions died of starvation on small farms; and in China, still later, the frightful fact seems to be established that five or six millions of industrious men died in a land of unequalled fertility, but of small farms, of starvation. The enlightened cosmopolitan should try rather to give each a large farm, and that, if need be, by the encouragement of only a light population.

Let me then advise the settlers to resist by every means in their power the imposition of burdens on them in which the public as a whole do not or refuse to share.

I have not alluded to the sale of land as a means of meeting our difficulties. The Grey Government give the falling off in the land revenue as the reason of these, and why their excessive deficit is existent. But say they, "We have still the land." This is, however, untrue. If New Zealand, being a young country, would grow longer and broader daily (and it would need to grow very-fast to meet the increasing public expenses), it might be then said that we have still the land. The land revenue has fallen decidedly, and just as decidedly it will never rise again, for reasons very manifest. Against our huge debt all the land we have is but a very little dust in the balance as a saleable article.

Some Thoughts on Protectionism,
And Restraints upon Labour and Industry.

Protectionism, or protection to Native industry, are phrases meaning the prohibition or discouragement by heavy duties of such foreign commodities as may be produced at home. Industries can be protected and encouraged in this way, and it is a very coarse and direct one. There are other ways by which native industry may be encouraged. Drawbacks were given on exportation; that is, the duty leviable on goods was foregone when they were exported. Foreign goods, liable to duty when imported, to be exported had this duty given back upon their exportation. Bounties or bonuses were given for the encouragement of some manufacturers at their commencement, when supposed by the public to deserve them. Advantageous Treaties of Commerce were made with certain countries, and preferences granted which were not shared in by the rest of the world. Colonies were established, and a monopoly obtained from the colonists for the goods of the country which established them.

These are the principal ways by which it has been tried to make men industrious, and to get for them higher wages than they would have obtained without them. The absurdity of such legislation is so manifest that it is doubtful if anyone ever really thought wealth would result from it. The only cause and reason for it seems to have been a love of hate and of war even in peace, a determination to see who could live the longest on the least wages, to test the country's resources and to needlessly strain the people's strength. One would think that it must have been apparent to everyone that if money is taken specially from a public or private purse to support any labourer, there must be just so much the less left to support others; that his strength must be gained on their weakness, and that unless some other overhanging or unearthly enemy can be named with which this action does battle, it is clearly a blunder.

Yet other means than those above cited, though less direct and powerful, may be used to encourage certain labourers and their industry. Indeed all things are so full of labour no one can name its extent and fullness; force, labour, the struggle for existence, are common terms and fill all nature, and no one can move without disturbing them. Every law, new or old, be it ever so general, hurts or aids somebody and his interest. The springs of human industry are numerous, and we can hardly say of any that it stands alone. The web of selfish and vicarious suffering is deeply woven among us. The rich should aid the poor and the strong the weak. The presence of and the combat with moral and physical evil so demand. With this we agree; but when a systematic and legalised drain is made on the resources of one set of men for the benefit of another set of men, who are not poor or weak, such is not only a loss to the community, but seems immoral. When carried to its necessary and proper length it becomes communism.

We may now allude to some of the arguments which have been used, and may have caused these restraints on labour and trade.

1. The notion that they would keep money in the country, and that this would be a benefit. This notion is now seldom heard of. It is at any rate asleep, if not dead. The idea that by compelling a people to keep by them more gold and silver than they could use, to the exclusion of course of other articles, they would be benefited and enriched, was a peculiar one. Its absurdity was manifest in peace, and in war its extra power if realised would not be great. The amassing of treasure and war material by a government may in some cases be profitable, but to try by legislation to put money into the hands of the people, and to keep it there, also by law, was a most comical undertaking.

2. The opinion that only one or but few kinds of employment in a country are a bar to the people's intelligence, and that this should be provided against, apparently at any cost.

   It will not be denied that a country which contains within itself the appropriate natural basis of all industries should, if possible, have that basis occupied by human inhabitants. The trouble is to get the base and the inhabitants. No country contains within itself the elements of such prosperity; and even if one did, a sufficient population does not now exist on the earth to occupy it. Mankind will not increase more rapidly with protectionism than with free trade, and neither will capital. It would, therefore, be better to wait till they increased sufficiently in the land to be economically usable for the production of the desired commodities. They will then be produced. By violently extracting the capital from some other employment, the particular article wanted may be got in the country a few years before its natural time; but other articles, which, it may be, are just as necessary, will have to appear on the stage a few years later.

3. It may be said that in an under-populated country the protection of native industry tends to draw men and capital with their industries from other and better-populated countries to it. If 20 men are making linen in London for New Zealand, and if New Zealand suddenly employs 20 of its own people to make the linen, or gives costly inducements, which is much the same, these 20 Londoners may be thrown out of employment, and may come to inhabit New Zealand. Would not New Zealand thus get both the Londoners and the linen? She
might. But she might have to pay highly for them. She may have to pay the enhanced price for many years before the Home prices and the Colonial are the same. This difference she will extract from the capital of the Colony, which should have been given to other industries and added to the general wealth. The day of equalisation would be thus retarded, and probably the price of other commodities exported by the Colony would be affected. For if it by its action throw men out of employment in England, and cause them and their capital to leave it, the goods it exports may not find such a good market. There will be fewer men and less money there to meet them.

4. Protection, it may be said, is a means of keeping population in a country, and dense and numerous populations are desirable for several reasons. For instance, a small population may be conquered or enslaved by a larger one.

There can be no doubt that protectionism tends to keep people on the ground, and the reason above will be backed up by kings, priests, governments and vested interests generally. The opinion is a very doubtful one, however; for a rich and lightly peopled country is probably as hard to conquer as a poor and heavily loaded and probably discontented one, and where an invader stands a good chance of being welcomed. It is not to their numbers but to their courage which a people owe freedom; it is indeed always difficult, and will never pay to conquer a brave nation. Unless under very extraordinary circumstances, it would cost more than their country is worth; and if religion and morality rule in the future, it will never be attempted. Again, it may be urged in plea for a dense population that solitude is not good for man, and that if protection in an under-peopled country attracts population to it, it is well. Man is a social animal, and the colonist might spend his surplus funds in protectionism accordingly. To be social, many different employments are needed. Society is the better of as many and as high ones as it can afford to pay for. There is, of course, some truth in this. But whether it is the duty of the civil magistrate to compel by legislation the public money to flow in this direction is altogether doubtful. It is the duty of the civil magistrate to keep order in the state, and if he has anything to do with the subject at all, the ruler of the over-populated country should more properly act. It is for his and its benefit that the deed must be chiefly done. Moreover, by burdening the younger community and lowering the income therein, we go so far in making the one country as poor as the other, and thus to weaken the inducements to people to come at all. This social argument is popular in the United States. It seems a very poor one, and shows, what is indeed true, that the freetraders there are pushing their opponents rather hard.

5. It is also urged that men differ greatly in mind and body, and that it is necessary to provide some lighter labour, such as that of the spindle and the loom for the weaker sort. In a large population such people may be considerable in number.

This was a Victorian (Australia) argument, and was used with great earnestness when protectionism was set up there. Like a good many other arguments in that country, we should think that the less we have to do with it the better. The result has been, at any rate, that there has been always, and is now, just as much light labour seeking employment as before. The cure offered has failed. Light labour and the desire for it, and sometimes for no labour at all, are desires very prone to perpetuate themselves in spite of protectionism. There need be no one in a new country so light as to want employment, if he will take the market price for it.

6. The flourishing state of certain countries, as France and the United States, are urged as reasons for protectionism.

But it may be answered that these countries would flourish still better under freetrade. What they gain by pride they lose by poverty. The United States is flourishing, but not because of protectionism, which impoverishes it just as any other country. The great extent and natural wealth of that country raises the average income of the people, in spite of protectionism, higher than in older ones. Its extent draws also new people and capital to it, which carry it triumphantly through. Were, however, South America as near Europe, and better governed, and under free trade, the competition would perhaps teach a lesson.

Canada is now, by what it calls a "National Policy," seeking by protectionism, large loans, and public works to bring to and keep within it a large population. It may make a mistake, for if its forests could not, as was true, compete with the prairies of the United States when the incomes of that people are lowered by protection, and their own high by freetrade, they cannot now compete better with the lower income of their protectionism.

Victoria now finds that protectionism and prosperity are not necessarily convertible terms. Her large mass of wealth and compact population and its high income declared for protection. It was thought that this income might be lowered perhaps without injury to her competing power. Since then and in the course of years capital in the freetrade of her neighbours has accumulated faster than in her own borders. She is left behind, and cannot well rise again. Her frantic ravings about breaking up large estates, and building up small ones at the expense of the rest of the community, do not seem to rise to the occasion. Mr. Berry's hysterical martyrdom notwithstanding.

France has flourished under protectionism, but only as compared with other and poorer countries. The soil
and climate of the country are far above the average in excellence. The people are surpassingly laborious and thrifty, and do not increase numerically.

7. From the difficulty of dealing with, what has been called, a one-sided freetrade. Thus, England admits without a protective tariff American corn, but America does not so admit English-manufactured goods. Hence English corn is lowered in price directly by competition, and indirectly by the English manufacturer being thrown idle, and then want of money to purchase. What is to be done in this case? Should England retaliate? We think not, for these reasons:—(1.) Though we can prove to a man or a nation that he and they will gain by buying cheap goods and not dear ones, we cannot compel him or them to buy anything against their will. (2.) Were England to retaliate on American grain she would raise it to her consumers, and this would hurt the English manufacturer. And though the United States market be closed to him, he may have others to which he can turn, and cheap corn will help him so to do. (3.) The evil on England is not so great as it looks. For the non-importation of English goods raises the price of them to the farmer there. Mr. Mongredien thought that in 1879 the seven million farmers there would lose about £120,000,000 on this account. The American cultivates his land at this disadvantage accordingly, and cannot sell his corn at so low a price as he could without it. His competition is thus weakened. Again, the American manufacturer though bolstered up will not greatly flourish, because the farmer has but little money to buy goods with. The one impoverishes or lives on his neighbour, and both live on a loss. The cotton manufacturers of the States from 1860 to 1878 only increased, it is said, by £100,000. England's in the same time increased by £12,000,000. The United States, with freetrade and the surpassing activity and ability of the people, would be more formidable than now to Britain.

Such are some of the arguments for and causes of the restraints on trade. I will now give in a few words what may, with fair correctness, be called the tendencies and results of such legislation.

1. It tends to collect and keep population on lands when it could not without it find employment up to the general average of wages. This it does by taxing property or anybody it can get hold of, and impoverishing them. It does not now hesitate, and never did, to break the most sacred rights of man. It is therefore a distinct foe to human progress and national development. The problem as far as man can solve it, of national wealth and poverty, of the struggle for existence, and of physical and much of moral evil, may be stated in one word: *Take your labour to the best field; when there, labour industriously; and save the fruits of your labour.* As the world grows older the field may grow narrower. But it is not narrow now. There are acres by the million which the civilised eye has never seen. No amount of ancient philosophy or of clumsy modern musing nearer home can tell much farther than that. Economists have inquired into the causes of the wealth of nations; they have inquired also after the stupidity and follies of nations, but they have not perhaps as yet set forth the fact that men have lost more by breaking the first of these rules than they have lost by breaking all the rest they have so keenly enumerated. The light seems now to be dawning on man, that to attempt many kinds of reform without first equalising the population more fairly over the globe, is a too costly, if not fruitless, labour.

Dr. Chalmers and Dr. Guthrie, we have read, stood one day looking down on the Canongate of Edinburgh—"A fine field, sir," said Chalmers to Guthrie. (Opinions might differ about the fineness of the field.) But how did this man of powerful intellect intend his friend of resolute philanthropy and useful and beautiful oratory to cultivate it? By emigration, weeding, and culling away the superabundant plants? Not at all; by teaching morals and religion.

2. It leads to ill feeling and possibly wars between countries. Trade is the great material uniting bond of nations. Protection diminishes trade, and hurts good fellowship into the bargain. Protectionism is or produces a modified kind of war. There is no fair competition near it.

3. It benefits kings and rulers generally at the expense of the people. A country where protectionism exists requires clearly more management than a simple and free one.

4. The results of monopoly on the country monopolised upon are sometimes very momentous. One of the most memorable and deadly was that of Denmark on Iceland. Space does not allow me to enter into particulars; but the history of Iceland under the monopoly is instructive. The system gradually gave way and entirely ended in 1854. During its continuance the population sank sometimes as low as 30,000, caused by hunger. The country was also subjected to losses by floods and fire. Against these disasters and without trade or the possibility of trade, the position was hopeless. Under the monopoly their annual exports of wool were sometimes as low as 39,000 lbs. In 1855, and with freetrade, they exported 1,600,000 pounds.

The cowardly conduct of England towards her colonies in North America, which was of the nature of a most gross restraint on trade, led to that revolution in the New World by which her glory departed thence and was given to another.

Touching the cure for protectionism; we would say, remove the cause. The cause is ignorance; the cure then must be more light, more knowledge, more religion, more morality. We look around, and we hope to see all its fallacies fail. Education prevails; at the fountains of knowledge the millions are drinking. Christianity pursues the human spirit, fights the evil there, and triumphs. Other systems, political and religious, with their
sages and their cunning, totter on the steeps of age and doom. The altar and the throne together rent, together fall. And nations old and slow awake to a fruitful life. We look again. And, Lo! under sun, and moon, and starbeams, a huge steamship presses on, she drops her anchor in the silent bay. For the green earth she brings forth a nation. Soon over distant regions stretching sunny and afar the notes of conquering labour are sounding on the ear. On the naked expanse and in the wounded forest, the table is spread. They go forward still forward, and a voice says, Come.

**Protectionism.—II.**

### Considerations on Freetrade and Protectionism.

1. Freetrade and unrestricted commerce are in the interests of peace—of peace, the foundation and corner stone of this christian era. Protection is the product of narrow-mindedness, and a remnant of the old feeling of envy or hate to the stranger.

2. Protection, it has been said, gives an amount of independence to a people when it causes them to supply to some extent their own wants. Yet they lose money meanwhile; while dependence is some security for peace.

3. It may be thought that the increased cost of protected articles is of small moment practically, because vast sums of money are everywhere spent unproductively, in sensuality and in obedience to the passions. But it is the office of the priest and religion to teach morals, and how to command the passions. To the economist belongs the truth that labour is productive of utilities, and that such production should be as great as possible, and that freedom is the great element in the question. It is indeed an insult to man to declare it necessary that he should be stript of the fruits of his labour, lest he destroy himself with them, and that the more he commands the forces of nature, the less likely he is to be benefitted by them. Further, we have always the poor with us, in spite of the waste of productions.

4. But in perhaps every country there abounds, chiefly in towns, a class of people suited only for light labour; should not benevolence cause certain manufactures to be protected if necessary, to give them employment? Should not the happiness of man be regarded, as well as the wealth of nations? But it may be remembered that what is economically wrong is seldom either morally or politically right; that to settle in this disguised way a burden on the strong and on those willing to work, is self-evidently a doubtful proceeding; that there is nothing which confronts the socialist so much as the natural indolence of man, and that it is more than probable that the greater part of the supposed necessity for employing light labour, arises not from want of strength of body, but from want of strength of will; that the remedy proposed will be but temporary, for England, though eminent in labour of this sort, is also eminent in pauperism.

5. In a society of protected industry and where the people may be said to live on one another, such a society is more liable to be affected by disasters than under freetrade. For if any trouble affect but one industry, it must very immediately concern and affect the whole society. All being alike burdened, no one can step forward to assist; but with freetrade and a richer community, an industry may decay and its workmen still find room on the world's arena. The wider the field of enterprise, the higher the hope.

6. In Laing's Tour in Sweden, there is a fine example of the benefits of freetrade

7. Freetrade leads to simplicity in life and legislation. In these present times society seems about to be smothered within its own folds. We have laws maritime, military, civil, and ecclesiastical, preposterous manners and etiquette, and the hordes of unproductive labourers which arise; in consequence much of the industrial product of the world is lost to civilisation. It has been said that at least 20 per cent, of the sum of indirect taxation is lost in the cost of collection.

8. When protection is once established in a country, it is most difficult to get rid of. Capital expended on the faith of its continuing, and vested interests are soon existent, which give their influence in its favour, with at least a show of justice.

9. Protection in one country leads to protection in others. If one country, by a protective duty, throws a number of men out of employment in a particular industry in another to give work to its own people in it, that other tries by a similar course to do the same to it in some other industry for which it is indebted to it.
10. Mill, I think, made a mistake when he wrote that a government might aid a new industry at its introduction by a protective duty. Enterprising capitalists abound in every country, and these are all that are required in the matter which may well be left to them. If the capitalist does not of his own accord undertake it, it must be that such industry is not so remunerative as others.

11. A glance at the map of the world shews that but the coasts of continents and smaller islands are generally inhabited. Protection in these countries tends to keep the people in them, and-to keep them there in poverty. Other causes, no doubt, and which are passing away, have been also in this case active, but protection opposes their passing away. The whole earth, under God, belongs to man, to civilised man, and its pastoral and agricultural resources cannot be used by him unless he goes within their reach and labours there.

Population, through free trade, will swing towards those parts of the earth which offer health and wealth in the greatest abundance and with the least expenditure of care and labour.—It will belligerently the Temperate Zones—the poorer regions of the earth if they do not decline will not advance. Will not men then run too much to and fro on the earth, forgetful of their parents, their God, and religion? Not necessarily, we say. At least there is no hope for it, for their residence at home under a knowledge of better things elsewhere would be equally demoralising.

12. Another consideration may perhaps be urged in favour of protection, which arises from the economical condition of under-populated countries. It may be thus expressed. A nation advanced in civilisation, whose morals are not deficient, uses its surplus wealth in the cultivation of the finer arts. It may spend its time in repose and idleness or indolence. Utilitarianism involves within it indolence or a very high Christian work. Take the case, however, of the Australian Colonies. Physical difficulties, chiefly distance from the seats of population and competition, prevent them from extracting with their capital and labour the resources of the soil. With the present means of international transport it may be observed that agriculture must be depressed in every country without towns, and a large part of its produce is necessarily wasted. While with the natural liking of mankind for farming and for the country, the tendency to over-produce is inextinguishable. It may thus happen that a class of population will grow up, living in a state of rude plenty indeed, but manifestly compelled to indolence. Their powers of production are but partly developed. If they produce more than the state of their country requires, it must be either thrown away or exchanged for articles of taste at a heavy sacrifice. People in our day of education and increased knowledge and sensibilities may become demoralised by one kind of employment. It is therefore not clear but that protection on manufactured utilities would not to some extent be a remedy. A consuming population would exist which would refresh and put a more civilised face on such a society. Activity in agriculture would widen its spheres, and the former torpidity would be drawn from the coasts to the interior, and in time from there also. In pastoral countries, which produce wealth so easily by merely stocking them, capital is more abundant, so that labour is the only element wanting to production, Hence a further inducement to protection. The agriculturalist would require of course to pay more for his purchases; but then he would be rescued from inaction, while much on his farm otherwise lost would be utilised.

Yet, as against all this, it is to be observed that immense improvements in the means of transport have been and are daily being made. In Britain there is great sameness in the prices of commodities in every part of it. The day will doubtless come when knowledge will be powerful enough to do for the world what it has already done for Britain. The market for land, labour, capital and products may become essentially one. In such a case there would be no need for protection on the reason last stated. There is no doubt but that the world's surplus wealth would be sufficient for the purpose. The state owns the railways in many countries, and this is a move in the direction alluded to. If railways can be thus nationalised there seems no impossibility in their becoming, as well as other means of transport, internationalised. The accumulations of futurity should be directed to improving the means of transport. How humane it would be were the world to carry everything and everybody for nothing. These and many other schemes where it would be necessary to concentrate the common force, are retarded by the difficulty hitherto met with in devising an equal and just system of direct taxation.

But direct taxation, it is said, is an impossibility, and hence come customs duties, and in effect Protection. There is inherent in all men a love of individuality. Each wishes himself a star and distinct unit in the firmament of fame. Everyone talks of his house as his castle, and hates the tax gatherers. Yet it is doubtful if these thoughts and feelings should be encouraged so greatly in the circumstances. When a country lies under a heavy debt, owing money in all directions, within and without its borders; when the necessity of protecting at least life and property is evident and has been acknowledged through all time, it rather savours of immorality to refuse to pay down direct what is clearly and necessarily due. Round-about indirect taxation seems a poor unmanly kind of thing, well enough for a nation of shallow, narrow-minded people, but irreconcilable with notions of discretion, fortitude, or intellect. Yet so it is. During the late American war a call for men was responded to, but a call for money directly was never even attempted to be made.

13. "Salus populi suprema lex," says the maxim; and doubtless if it can be shown that in the event of a war...
breaking out in which a given country may or may not be engaged, it would suffer heavily by the want of certain commodities, then protection is allowable. Factories of war material may be established, and on a similar principle Adam Smith defended the navigation laws.

(a) The rapid diffusion of correct ideas in political economy which is going on in every country at present—and perhaps more rapidly abroad than in Britain, from tills being the only free field for the public mind to expatiate in—shows the beneficial power of a periodical press, conducted by enlightened men.

The harvest in Norway having failed almost entirely In consequence of early frost in autumn, government gave orders as a precautionary measure, for the purchase of a considerable quantity of grain in the Baltic ports for the relief of the distressed districts. Twenty years ago this would have been considered, in the most enlightened countries of Europe, as a wise and beneficial measure; and the parental care of government would have been landed by all classes. The British Government, in 1812, took similar measures for alleviating the scarcity and high price of grain; and even In this year, although government took no part in the measure, the charitable feelings of the British public attempted to remedy the local scarcity and high price of meal in the highlands and islands of Scotland, where the grain crops had likewise failed, by furnishing grain at a cheap rate, by subscription, to the distressed districts. In Norway there was but one opinion about the policy of this measure of Its government—that it was the surest way to starve the people, as neither foreign nor native merchants could venture to send corn to a market in which government was ready with a stock to undersell them, and disappoint their speculations. The common sense of a people, so nearly equal in circumstances that 110 class is wealthy enough to feed another class, either from the taxes or from charitable contributions, came at once to the Just conclusion, that the interference of government with the natural course of demand and supply would only aggravate the scarcity; and this opinion was so loudly and generally expressed, that government had to withdraw the measure, as far as possible, and sit down with a lesson in politicai economy from the voice of the nation. It is the first time perhaps that such a measure adopted by a government, instead of thanks and praises, met, even from the most ignorant, with disapprobation. It shows the spread of intelligence in political economy.

(b) A more approximate cause of the country's decadence may certainly be attributed to the misfortunes which those terrible volcanic eruptions, and the sickness and distress they entailed, brought upon the country; but above all, to the oppressive system of commerce, under which the country groaned at the same time. The history of Iceland's commerce is, therefore, one of the most sorrowful, and at the time most Instructive chapters In the history of the country.

When Iceland was united to Norway in 1262—1264, it was provided in the Act of Union which was then drawn up, that the king should guarantee the country an annual supply of six ship-loads of goods, a provision which was naturally considered to be to the advantage of the country, as It originated from the Icelanders themselves; but from tills fact, at a later period, the kings of Norway came to look on the Icelandic trade as their own peculiar property. After the union this state of things was altered; for the kings of the union had other things to think about. They accordingly relinquished this privilege, and left the trade with Iceland to the Hanseatic towns and the Copenhagen burghers. At that period, however, the limits of the Inland and foreign trade were not so strictly defined as at a later date. In 1602 the Icelandic trade was let by the Danish Government to a company of merchants In Copenhagen for a certain sum of money. This state of things continued up to 1787, whereby the company got the exclusive right of trading In the Island, while the Icelanders themselves were by the same means entirely shut out from foreign markets. In order thoroughly to understand the great importance of such an arrangement, It should be borne in mind that Iceland is only a cattle-producing country, which has to import all its corn-stuffs and other produce from foreign countries. Its exports are principally fish and wool. When, partly to enrich the Danish exchequer, partly to benefit the Danish merchants, a system of monopoly was Introduced Into Iceland by the government, the result was that many of the necessary articles of consumption which the country absolutely stood In need of, unless, indeed, its inhabitants were to perish from starvation or eke out a miserable existence, were considerably raised In value. This method of attracting revenue to the Crown, and of heaping up all the profits in the hands of a few by the establishment of a commercial monopoly, corresponds to an income derived from Imposts, and a consequent rise in prices; though the first method of reaching the same goal is more convenient where one has to do with a remote region.

And what was the immediate consequence of that chain with which free trade was fettered by the ordinances of 1602 V Naturally this: that the prices on Imported goods rose, so much so that in three consecutive years they amounted to three or four times their original value, whilst the prices of fish fell. The effect such a state of things must needs exercise on the developement of a poor country Is easy enough to comprehend. Its small income became still less; its industries, such as its fisheries and its rearing of cattle, dwindled away; poverty increased, and the population diminished in proportion. In one district of the country alone no less than 800 persons died from starvation In the three years succeeding the introduction of monopoly
in trade; while in the whole country it is computed that no less than 9000 persons perished—In other words, a sixth part of the whole population. These terrible consequences of a trade monopoly might have been foreseen, for when the country previously to this had only been able to produce a sufficiency for the frugal wants of the inhabitants, it is only natural to suppose that it would be a matter of the greatest difficulty, if not actually Impossible, for them to exist when the prices of all articles of Import were raised to an artificial height; and the consequence was, that the poorest died from starvation, which is, perhaps, the very extremest consequence at which a prohibitory system can possibly arrive.

Meanwhile the Danish Government, without paying attention to such matters, continued to proceed in the line of conduct it had marked out for itself, and drew the chains even tighter still instead of relaxing them. In a proclamation of 1684 it was strictly enacted that the natives should not trade amongst themselves nor with foreigners, but that all traffic should pass through the mercantile company in Copenhagen; that on no conditions should they trade with others, "neither on land, on sea, in the harbours, in the fjords, or in any other place whatsoever;" and that they should not sell the fish from their boats when out fishing, under pain of the severest punishments.

Of course, by prohibiting a people from conveying the produce of their country to foreign lands, the art of navigation was rendered an Impossibility among them; the more so especially as it could not possibly answer their purpose to fit out decked boats in order to participate in the fisheries, when the prices which the mercantile company put on the fish were so very low. Fishing therefore, was confined to open boats, which naturally could not keep out at sea for any length of time—scarcely over the twenty-four hours—and thereby the danger was considerably increased, while the profits derived were proportionately diminished. Iceland still suffers from the disastrous effects which this system of monopoly left behind It; the natives have still to row from fifteen to thirty miles out to sea in their open boats, and thus lose a great deal of time, while in stormy weather they cannot put out at all, though they know that off the coasts the sea teems with myriads of fish. Neither has the prohibition that all fish caught off the Icelandic coast should first pass through the hands of the Danish company before entering into the world's markets, been attained. For when the Frenchmen—who are the greatest consumers, as France is a Roman Catholic country, where large quantities of fish are eaten during the fasts—were prevented from buying directly from the Icelanders, who could have supplied them at a much cheaper rate than It would have cost them to catch them themselves, they began, as above stated, to equip vessels and send them out to those far northern waters. Ably and substantially supported, by their government, the French companies have made a very good thing of it. In the year 1864, the value of the fish taken by them amounted to no less than sixteen millions of francs, while the entire exports of Iceland in the same year, scarcely reached one-and-a-half million of francs.

By the commercial regulations of 1684, the price of all imported goods rose still higher, so that It was doubled over and over again. The commercial companies paid on an average a yearly sum of 45,000 rix-dollars to the Danish Crown.

In the eighteenth century Iceland was a great sufferer from the terrible consequences which those fearful volcanic eruptions entailed; and as her powers of resistance were completely paralysed by the oppressive system of trade, this century proved a most disastrous one to the people. In 1762, a malignant epidemic broke out among the sheep; and about 280,000, or nearly half the whole number of sheep in the country, were slaughtered in this and the years immediately succeeding. In 1783, 11,000 cows died of hunger and pestilence, and 27,000 horses—that is, the greater portion of all the horses in the country, and a large proportion of the cows—and 186,000 sheep. In consequence of this the population diminished in a very marked way. Up to that time a diminution rather than an increase of imputation had taken place. Formerly it had amounted to 50,000 persons, sometimes slightly exceeding this number, at others falling under it; which was an unnatural state of things, as the country was at peace and ought therefore to have been able to reap the fruits which peace entails. In 1783, however, the population of Iceland amounted in round numbers to 48,000 persons; in 1784-5 it sank to 39,000, which number was again diminished by the deaths of 9,000 persons from starvation. In the succeeding year the population was again diminished by 1200 persons.

In consequence of this unhappy state of things, the Danish Government conceived the idea of removing the inhabitants away from the country, as the means of subsistence there were wanting. As a preliminary step, however, a commission was appointed to enquire into the causes of the retrogressive condition of the country; and it arrived at the conclusion that these causes must not be sought for in the country itself, but that they were rather due to the pernicious course pursued by government, and especially to the heavy pressure under which free traffic and the producing powers of the country in general laboured. In consequence of this, and owing to the great disasters which had overtaken the country, the commercial bonds were relaxed by two succeeding enactments in 1786 and 1787.

But trade was yet far from being free. The harbours were only open to Danish subjects, and these were not even permitted to take their vessels to Iceland without first touching at some Danish port. Neither might any
nativie Icelander trade except he was in partnership with Danish merchants. Foreigners, too, were prohibited from putting into an Icelandic port, except in wise of distress, and even, in such cases they had to leave as soon as possible. But even till limited concession of competition could not but bear good fruits. After the lapse of two years, the products of the country had increased manifold in value; the prices of fish especially rose in a remarkable degree. A "skippund" of fish which, in 1776, cost 7 rdl. 16 sk., in 1792 amounted to 24 to 30 rdl., or to about four times as much as formerly. In the days of the monopoly it had fetched from 30 to 40 rdl. in the markets of the world, while in Iceland it was not worth more than 7 rdl.

The number of cattle, too, increased in a remarkable degree after the commercial fetters had been relaxed; while the population, which had receded rather than multiplied during the whole century, was increased in the years 1788-1800 by 8,500 persons. The number of sailing vessels, which during the days of the monopoly had amounted to about thirty, now rose rapidly. In 1788, there were fifty-five, and in 1790, sixty-eight.

This progress seemed to the Danish Government to be too rapid; or more properly shaking, private interest interfered, and the privileges that had been granted were again to a certain extent withdrawn. The people were permitted to trade only at certain ports. Direct trade from vessels was greatly circumscribed; and the captains of trading vessels were forbidden to remain more than a month ashore, and not to run into more than one of the authorised ports in the course of the summer. The effect of this enactment was that the yearly arrival of vessels diminished in 1793 to forty-nine, and in 1794 to thirty-nine. In the following year a petition was forwarded to the government, praying for an extended liberty of trade, but received in reply the answer that such a concession would act injuriously to the interests of the country. Foreign vessels were thus excluded, and no goods might be conveyed from any foreign place to the country directly without first passing through one of the Danish ports Consequently at the outbreak of the war, in 1807, between Denmark and England, the Icelanders were put to great straits as the Danes were afraid to send any vessels to the country on account of the English cruisers. But by the intervention of some persons, the English Government gave permission to Danish vessels to visit Iceland unmolested, subject to certain conditions.

In the following decennium sundry changes certainly took place; for instance, in 1816 foreigners were first permitted to trade on land, though subjected to the heavy duty of 50 rdl. for every ton burden—a duty which no ship could endure.

In 1836 this impost was considerably reduced, and other privileges were granted, until finally, in 1854, a complete system of free trade was introduced. No duties whatsoever are demanded now, and only a trifling tonnage duty. The material and intellectual resources of the country have since then developed in a remarkable degree, in direct proportion to the freedom that has been granted to its commerce. The imputation, which in the eighteenth century up to the year 1787 had not advanced a step, has now gradually reached up to 68,000 souls. From the year 1800 it rose at the rate of 50 per cent. The exports, too, have increased in like proportion. The average of the exports of tallow for nine years in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries amounted only to 114,000 lbs per annum, of late this article has been steadily rising, while in 1855 the exports of tallow amounted to 933,000 lbs. In 1784 and the preceding years 2000 lbs of eider-down were generally exported; in 1855 the exports amounted to 4000 lbs. In the eighteenth century the export of feathers amounted to 4500 lbs for one year only and this is the highest sum it reached, namely, in 1753, while in others it sank to some hundreds. Since the beginning of the present century the export of feathers has been steadily on the rise; in 1855 it reached 25,000 lbs. The greatest advance, however, appears in fish and wool. During the last few years of the monopoly about 8,000 "skippund" of fish were annually exported; in 1855 the exports amounted to 24,000, or to three times the former quantity. During the latter half of the last century the exports of wool occasionally sank so low as to some thousand pounds. In 1734 the exports were 107,000 lbs; in 1743, 84,000 lbs; in 1764, 39,000 lbs; but in 1806 they rose to 260,000 lbs; in 1840 to 940,000 lbs; and in 1855 to 1,600,000 lbs. The export of woollen manufactured goods has, however, diminished though in a much smaller proportion.

These brilliant results appear to still greater advantage when compared with the prices which obtained hi former days and at the present time, both as regards imports and exports. We have already alluded to the article of fish. The price of wool, moreover, steadily rose: in the years from 1840 to 1849 white wool on an average, fetched 21 sk. (5½d.) the pound; from 1850 to 1859 the average was 30 sk. (7½d.). In the last few years a further improvement has again taken place, owing, no doubt, in a great measure, to the scanty supply of cotton in the great markets of Europe. In 1864, wool fetched 3 marks C sk. (15d.) the pound. The propitious circumstances resulting from free trade have shown themselves in a most advantageous manner; and although Iceland has been visited during the last decennium by years of severity and distress, still she has not only not had to experience those dreadful horrors, famine and starvation, which the disastrous times of the last century produced, but no check of any importance has been given to her advancement. The development of her commerce is best to be seen from a glance at the number of vessels which visit Iceland at the present day, in comparison with the 11 amber that visited her in former days. From 1856 to 1863 the average number of vessels amounted to 134, with a burden of 6164 tons; in 1800 to 1807 the tonnage amounted to 2401, from 57
ships; while from 1848 to 1855 the relative proportions were 120 ships, with a burden of 4785 tons.

It is natural, therefore, that the people value very highly the advantages which free trade has conferred upon them, while the merchants themselves have not, on the whole, been losers. Of course the few large mercantile houses which in former days usurped the entire trade of Iceland, and which, consequently, amassed a large amount of wealth, have been compelled to give way to competition; but, in their stead, opportunities have been afforded to numbers of small merchants, who were formerly entirely excluded from the markets. The result of free trade, therefore, has been to divide the prize among a larger number of individuals, which, though of course productive of no little grumbling among the few who have made their fortunes in the Icelandic trade, has yet opened up sources of profit to the many who were formerly shut out from it. Moreover, the producing powers of the country, and with these her exports, have considerably increased, as will be seen from the statistics quoted above, and an impulse been given to her commerce In general. The advantages of the new system are, therefore, mutual.

The Nationalisation of Land.

Between reality and reverie there is a great gulf; and, if it be true that this age is eminent in its arts, its conquests of nature, its realities, it is also eminent undoubtedly for its reveries and its rants. A subject of display for the latter kind of eminence is at present found in what is called the nationalisation of land. Private property in land should cease or be drawn within narrower limits, and the civil magistrate, along with his other duties, should take upon him that of general landlord and rent-collector also. Pauperism is said to be increasing in all old countries. The wages of labour are falling. Employment is becoming daily more difficult to get. The lands of Britain are being daily more and more engrossed, and harder bargains are being driven between the landlord and his tenant—the former looking more to his own pleasure than the profit of the commonwealth. The unearned increment is also in the front, and is of course said to be the natural outcome of a swindled community.

Now, there are one or two things which one would think must strike everyone at the threshold of the scheme, and yet which the bold advocates of it never seem to have noticed. The first is: If this mode of dealing with land will honestly enrich the people, it seems strange that it did not sooner occur to the very able men who have written on political economy. It is strange that neither Adam Smith nor Ricardo, Stuart, nor Quesnay should have noticed this mighty power in adding to the wealth of nations; though they gave their subject a life-long study. And it is strange that it should only be revealed to Messrs George and Wallace, and a few others here whose studies in that direction have not, we may guess, been quite so long or profound.

Another thing which must strike everyone, is the preposterously absurd price which the nationalisation would cost. The lands of England would have to be bought. The people need not gather around the land-owner and howl out—"This is the heir; come let us kill him, and the inheritance will be ours." They will find a good many difficulties in that way of gaining their point. The heir has a habit of dying very hard in such straits. His inheritance may cost to gain more than it is worth; while a third party may step in and appropriate from the heir and his killer, and thus snatch the fruits of the victory from both. The lands of Britain would probably cost £70 an acre, while much better lands in other and unoccupied parts of the world would not cost the thirty-fifth part of that. If, then, the want of land keeps the British people from their proper exaltation, it is surely probable that 35 acres for their money will exalt them more than one. But, assuming that the British cannot see this, and that they are determined to buy English land, the question next arises: "Where is the money to come from to buy it with?" To tax the land-owner openly and avowedly to buy his own land on a national scale, is of course ridiculous. It seems manifest that the purchase of English land at a speed which would be appreciable would be impossible. But supposing that the money was forthcoming and the lands procurable, a matter of no small difficulty would be the arranging the boundaries and sizes of the farms; It would be necessary herein, I apprehend, to throw all pre-conceived economical opinions, regarding the size of farms (about which discussion has been considerable) and the suitting them to population and climate, to the winds, and lay them off in squares. This would divide the land, but would not enrich the nation; and that in a world of competition.

Assuming further that they are divided, the fixing the rental would be a peculiar task. Would competition and free trade in grain from other countries be allowed? I doubt if small farms and open competition would be very surely based on such, and that for reasons very clear. Wages, if paid at any rate in silver and gold, would not be likely to be very high. If, then, it could be afforded, the imagination should be followed herein also.

The next trouble and the darkest would be the collecting the rents. Our deferred payment men here, and our Irish friends there, are examples; but these would be easily managed and understood as compared with the national host of the future. "Hould the crops and hould the rents," would never indeed be heard in the country or the town. It would be a mere waste of wind, and utterly unnecessary. Each rent-ower would simply retire under
measure. The first step would be a valuation of all the land in the country. The present value of all land should
and expenditure on the part of the proprietor. The only admissible mode of procedure would be by a general
between an increase owing solely to the general circumstances of society, and one which was the effect of skill
that it would be unjust to come upon each individual estate and lay hold of the increase which might be found
right of taxing the spontaneous increase of rent to the highest amount required by financial exigencies? I admit
this accession of riches? In what would they have been wronged if society had from the beginning reserved the
independently of any trouble or outlay incurred by themselves. They grow richer as it were in their sleep,
of landlords; to give them both a greater amount and a greater proportion of the wealth of the community,
in full, but the following extract will give those who may not have seen it a fair idea of its teaching:—
"The ordinary progress of a society which increases in wealth is at all times tending to augment the income
of landlords; to give them both a greater amount and a greater proportion of the wealth of the community,
independently of any trouble or outlay incurred by themselves. They grow richer as it were in their sleep,
without working, risking, or economising. What claim have they, on the general principle of social justice, to
this accession of riches? In what would they have been wronged if society had from the beginning reserved the
right of taxing the spontaneous increase of rent to the highest amount required by financial exigencies? I admit
that it would be unjust to come upon each individual estate and lay hold of the increase which might be found
to have taken place in its rental; because there would be no means of distinguishing in individual cases
between an increase owing solely to the general circumstances of society, and one which was the effect of skill
and expenditure on the part of the proprietor. The only admissible mode of procedure would be by a general
measure. The first step would be a valuation of all the land in the country. The present value of all land should

As perhaps this article is getting too long, I may conclude it with these remarks:—Every reverie which has
for its object the concentration of population on small and confined patches of the earth's surface—which this
nationalisation one has, most undoubtedly—should be deprecated. The foundation of wealth, national and
individual, lies in these three simple laws—Take your labour to the best field; Labour diligently; and Save the
fruits of your labour. This IS THE PROBLEM OF POVERTY. Now, a moment's reflection shews that the greater
part of our race has never even dreamed of obeying, for ages past, any of these simple laws. Here is a house in
Edinburgh 14 stories high, and packed with inhabitants; and there are lands within a few days' travel, calling
day and night for occupiers. But while the labourer so rarely takes his labour to the most productive field (the
cause of which, if I am not mistaken, may be found in his cowardice), it is just as manifest that the other laws
are very consistently broken. How many won't labour at all on any field? How many refuse to save the fruits of
their labour? Let statistics declare.

I believe that were the lands of Britain forbidden by law to be sold to anyone under £500 the acre, it would
be better for the British, and better for everybody. It would tend to drive population from where it is not wanted
to where there is room for it.

Yet it may be admitted that should a people be of opinion that a large agricultural population is necessary in
any country, to balance say, the mining, manufacturing, and commercial, they have a perfect right to place and
keep such population on the land, provided always they acquire the land by honest means. Yet to specially
support agriculture seems indeed—when we count the number of heads and the number of acres in the
world—a most absurd proceeding. Freedom, common morality, and common sense, seem all that is necessary
to support any industry.

1883.

The Unearned Increment.

A great deal has been said and written about the unearned increment. A few still continue to talk about it.
Many in this country (New Zealand) who have found time to read over John Stuart Mill, put forward this
doctrine of his with great fervour, particularly if they have little or no land it may be likely to affect. As a
Scotchnman I am very proud of Mill, but doubt sometimes if it is necessary to pay much heed to those who strut
about among us under a few of his dingiest plumes, borrowed for the occasion. With Mill's life there are some
melancholy facts, and with his death also, but he will ever be known as one of those teachers of a science for
which Scotland is famous. He found political economy not ill-understood, but its truths not too well arranged.
He brought his great breadth of intellect and generalising power to bear on them, and placed them and left them
in an order and frame in which they still remain. But in a field so wide some minor studies went half-scanned.
No man can own sufficient acumen to fully and unerringly pursue every truth and its bearings in that field. Mill,
indeed, admits that he wrote his work rather hurriedly, and he did not consider it his best one. He is, however,
the greatest in another and kindred science, which alone certifies him unsurpassed in his day on the arena of
mind.

When writing on the general principles of taxation, he gives it as his opinion that the rent from land is a
kind of income which constantly tends to increase without any exertion on the part of the owners; that this
"unearned increment" belongs to society, and should at least be taxed for their benefit. This he advocates in the
fifth paragraph of the second chapter of the fifth book of his work. The paragraph is perhaps too long to quote
in full, but the following extract will give those who may not have seen it a fair idea of its teaching:—

"The ordinary progress of a society which increases in wealth is at all times tending to augment the income
of landlords; to give them both a greater amount and a greater proportion of the wealth of the community,
independently of any trouble or outlay incurred by themselves. They grow richer as it were in their sleep,
without working, risking, or economising. What claim have they, on the general principle of social justice, to
this accession of riches? In what would they have been wronged if society had from the beginning reserved the
right of taxing the spontaneous increase of rent to the highest amount required by financial exigencies? I admit
that it would be unjust to come upon each individual estate and lay hold of the increase which might be found
to have taken place in its rental; because there would be no means of distinguishing in individual cases
between an increase owing solely to the general circumstances of society, and one which was the effect of skill
and expenditure on the part of the proprietor. The only admissible mode of procedure would be by a general
measure. The first step would be a valuation of all the land in the country. The present value of all land should
be exempt from the tax; but after an interval had elapsed, during which society had increased in population and capital, a rough estimate might be made of the spontaneous increase which had accrued to rent since the valuation was made. Of this the average price of produce would be some criterion; if that had risen, it would be certain that rent had increased, and as already shown, even in a greater ratio than the rise of price. Of this and other data an approximate estimate might be made how much value had been added to the land of the country by natural causes; and in laying on a general land tax, which, for fear of miscalculation, should be considerably within the amount thus indicated, there would be an assurance of not touching an increase of income which might be the result of capital expended or industry exerted by the proprietor.

It is now more than 30 years since Mill wrote these words. I do not think he was the first to give birth to the idea, for Dr. Adam Smith proposed the taxation of ground rents in towns, but certain it is that though enforced in these and other words with no little plausibility and care, it has made very little progress and produced very little fruit. The reason is manifest: for when enquired faithfully into, it is seen to be utterly worthless and erroneous. The following simple lines will, I hope, show this:—

1. When the land was sold and parted with, this claim was not advanced and conceded by the parties concerned. There were in ancient times certain burdens laid on all the lands of England, but this was not one of them.

2. If it is unjust of the landowner to demand this increment, why does the buyer pay it? The landowner uses no physical force, either by the civil magistrate or individually, to enforce the payment. Why should the civil magistrate be asked to interfere to keep the people from paying money which they need not pay, if they deem it improper?

3. To separate the earned from the unearned increment would be a most difficult work. On many properties the improvements manifestly exceed the value of both these increments; but there may be others in a similar case which do not show the fact so clearly. For instance, if 500 trees be planted with ordinary care and ability and only five of them grow, the landowner has a right to claim credit for the 495 dead, as well as for the five alive. Experience is worth money. It is not always what is seen on a farm that is costly; it is sometimes what is not seen. Governments have probably already plenty to do without interfering meddling in a business so intricate as this. The amount of corruption, indeed, likely to result from the attempts at valuation would be more than balanced by any revenue likely to accrue from it.

4. But if land be taxed for the causes stated, then a good many other things will also not escape. The world is full of such unearned increments. If a hot wind rise in Australia, and raise the price of oats here, and a merchant has a large lot in store before the hot wind blew, the price will rise, and he will get an unearned increment upon which he should get taxed. Nobody can maintain that it was through his labours—were they ever so Herculean—that the wind rose. Again, if a strike takes place among the coal-miners, an increment may result to those who happen to have coal in store, and this not through their own labour, but through the idleness of others. It would not, however, be wrong to tax them on such an increment. When commodities fall in price from a contrary cause, the owners should, I suppose, be compensated. Men make money by lucky speculations, and receive it by gift and private bequest. This last increment should, apparently, be treated as if it belonged wholly to society, or nearly so; for if it be wrong for a man to receive money from a society unearned, it must be wrong also to receive it from his neighbour unearned. There is no compulsion in either case on the givers. The public protected the giver when he made the money; and the public, on this theory, have the best right to it when the earner passes away. In a word, the reason of dear land is because that it is scarce land. Therefore, other commodities, when they happen to be scarce, should have the increment resultant taxed. But this scarcity, be it remembered, results from the supineness of the people interested, and from their possession of wealth; otherwise they would seek new fields of enterprise, where land is cheap and abundant.

5. Mill takes it for granted that the rent of land constantly tends to increase; and it is of course on this basis alone that the doctrine is raised. I think, however, that the value and rent of land does not so constantly tend to increase. Kingdoms wax, kingdoms stand still, and kingdoms wane. Town sections once upon a time in Babylon, Meroe, and Carthage sold, no doubt, for handsome sums; now they would not be worth sixpence apiece. When the kingdom wanes, what guarantee does society give that it will compensate or repay the tax when it wanes? For the last 50 years, when the peace spirit has been in the ascendent, land, perhaps, in the greater part of Europe has risen in price. In Turkey it has not risen, perhaps, very much. In England just now it is falling. Were wars to break out and consume capital, land would fall; but even with peace continuing it would be a very hazardous speculation in England, in my opinion (and land and property is as secure there as anywhere), to value the lands as they at present stand, and to agree to tax for an increment and to compensate for a decrement. The means of transport have been so greatly improved that lands may easily become more equal in value all over the world, raising Colonial and American, and lowering English and Continental—raising the New World and lowering the Old. When the huge steam ship, with her compound engines, carries wheat across the Atlantic for, I think, 7d. a bushel, comment is unnecessary on the effect of
Considerations on Public Debts.

1. It may be said that money, if borrowed at a moderate interest and spent upon productive works by a cautious government, gives productive employment for capital, which might, if the people are not uncommonly thrifty, have been spent by them unproductively, or possibly destructively to themselves. They might have spent their time in idleness, or their money in drink.

But this is only likely in a thickly-populated and wealthy country, where capital is abundant and the returns from it small. The Government can only, therefore, invest at a low rate of remuneration. The more the
Government invest, and the more capital increases by these means, the lower this rate will become. It would be better in such a case for the people to lend their money to other countries where the openings for the industrious are wider and their wages higher.

2. It may be said that no country in modern times, could raise on an emergency sufficient funds in any way but by a public loan. Few nations now follow war as a profession. Robbery under arms is not generally a national element in the foundation of modern society, and hence a country when suddenly called upon to act offensively or defensively, finds that taxation alone cannot supply the money required. This seems true, and it is perhaps the only case in which a loan is undoubtedly necessary.

The single city of Rome conquered the world, however, and was scarcely ever a sixpence in debt, but the spoils of the conquered filled her coffers. Napoleon I. carried on his wars and paid for them with the results of his victories. Nations when once engaged in successful wars are difficult to restrain. They lose population, but not capital. At the end of every battle the people are richer, and unless restrained by sorrow for the loss of their friends, they are dangerous indeed.

3. It may be urged that in a new country or colony, for the formation of roads or useful public works, money may be borrowed, because the future inhabitants should pay for what will benefit them.

But, financially speaking, man has no descendants. Population in this respect surrounds the globe just as the atmosphere or the grass, a particle replacing and replaced. Every moment dies a man, every moment one is born. Again, many public works thought needful now may be discarded in the time to come—If in a colony the price of the public lands is not equal to the opening of them up by communications, it shews that they are sold too cheaply, or that they are not worth much. It is a mistake to sell them cheap and tax afterwards for the interest on a public debt. Land should be husbanded, for when it is all sold the inducement to immigration is in a great measure gone.

4. Public debts have usually been followed by recklessness in the public expenditure, and have been the cause of wars. Man was to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, and this is the only honest way of earning it. But loans, by upsetting the even tenor of this good way, demoralise the people; for they, no matter how expended, inflate and raise too greatly, either some or all industries in the country, to be followed by an unhealthy fall.

5. In borrowing, a great skill and high morality is needed in the magistrate, lest the loan be got too disadvantageously, and this skill is not easily acquired. In expending a loan in works of utility it is very difficult to tell how to expend the money to the best advantage, even if one had always the power of so expending it and were not hampered by political motives. Political economy is not an exact science. The question might be put, did it benefit Otago to borrow at over 12 per cent, for roads? Roads then cost £2000 a mile, and this gives a rental paid for them of £240 per annum. A community on the goldfields, both which are uncertain and transitory demand a road. Who can say where for such, there is an economical index?

6. A public debt may, however, give stability to a dynasty or a government for a time. The peace and prosperity which France enjoyed for a time during the reign of Napoleon III., was due to the loans contracted, the demand for labour, and the high wages paid. This debt, too, is owed by the nation to far more of its people than, perhaps, by that of any other. The fund-holder dreads disturbances which lower the price of the funds, and he resists change.

7. Public debts almost necessarily produce heavy taxation. The public must be taxed to pay the interest of the debt so long as they owe it. Taxation is demoralisation. Perjury and lies abound. Interest must be paid; but in this world of losses and crosses, of ups and downs, revenues are not so certain of being received.

8. It might be urged that in a colony a block of land might be set apart, the rents from which could mitigate the evils of taxation. But other evils not less great would result. The money would be wasted. The people Would not be brought face to face with the expense. Corruption would also prevail more extensively than where the money is drawn directly from the people.

9. Government accounts are thrown into a very complicated state by loan transactions. This is a greater fault than appears at first sight; for the more intelligible these are, the more interest would be taken in them by the people.

10. A country heavily indebted is always within the circle of bankruptcy, and bankruptcy is a national calamity not easily got over. When a country's credit is broken, to mend it requires the work of ages.

11. Nearly all statesmen and political economists of note have been against public loans. Napoleon I, Adam Smith, John S. Mill, &c.

12. It seems safe to reason thus in a new country with respect to public debts. If it be not expedient for the owner of land to borrow, it will not be so for the public to borrow for improvements. In a colony such as New Zealand, lightly populated and distant from markets, improvements may be conducted faster than the country requires. But then it may be said a colonial government can borrow cheaper than an individual. In the early times of a colony, this is chiefly true. The tendency of time is to cheapen money, and the colony thus soon
looses this advantage. In a country under-peopled, profits and interest on money rule high, and they cannot be lowered till the field of enterprise is occupied. But there is this drawback to the public loan of a colony, that the money is owed out of the country, and money has to leave it for interest under every economical condition. When a colony borrows from the mother country, and also buys its goods there, the mother country gets its money back again. Her labourers are employed, and she gains the same end as Napoleon III. gained when he borrowed from the rich to spend among the poor.

13. Mr. John S. Mill gives a mode in his "Principles of Political Economy" of determining when a government is borrowing too much, viz., if it by so doing, raises the interest on money beyond the probable normal and natural rate. This mode, however, can only apply when the money is borrowed within the country. Adam Smith also notices the danger of this raising of interest on money which may induce the people to vest their money in the funds, and not in productive employments.

14. We have the danger of dull times to a nation which borrows. The population will clamour for borrowed money when labour becomes scarce, and the unprincipled magistrate will listen. This is perhaps, England's greatest danger if the colonies do not act as a safety value. To borrow for the poor to give him work, and tax property and the rich to pay the interest, is a most tempting policy, and could be done under any form of government where wealth has not an absolute veto.

15. Public debts seem to belong to a civilisation not of the highest. We can conceive of a day, not very near, perhaps, when their imposition will be resisted, and their evils understood.

An Undelivered Election Address.

MR. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN,—For a reason known very well, the people of Bruce have been called upon to elect a representative for Parliament. You will more than agree with me when I say that the late member was a man of whom any country might be proud. He was a man of mark in public and private life. His business abilities and experience, his energy and activity, are discoverable from the works he has left behind him, and during the short time he remained in this County. It will be a happy fact for Bruce if she can always find one to represent her as wisely and well as he did who has passed away.

You may have read in an ancient poet of a man who when he rose to speak was in a manner awkward and uncouth, but soon it appeared he was an orator born, causing his words to fall gently on the audience like flakes of snow. I have a suspicion that many who rise to speak get more naturally through the first part of that orator's performance than the last. And I am not certain but I may also be one of the many.

RELIGION AND POLITICS.

Before proceeding with the few remarks which I intend to make, I wish to preface them with this reflection. When I resolved to place myself in this position—and which I have done with much diffidence and hesitation—I turned up the article 'Politics' in a popular Encyclopedia. The article seemed written with some ability. Its writer spoke of politics when taken in the widest sense of the word. He then divided and treated the subject under such heads as Natural Law, Abstract and Theoretical Politics, Political Economy, the Science of Politics, the History of Politics, and so forth. He showed that the soul of Political Science was order and law. But he forgot to mention that under these laws there was another law, or spirit of law, the Revealed and Divine, which gave to them all their certainty and sanction; and that all the body of human politics and law, without this spirit, is dead or destructive. This is sometimes, too, forgotten by others as well as the writer of that article. The application of the Great Scripture to the scriptures of Politics might be, I think, more extensively given, and revealed religion be more remembered as in this respect the whole duty of man. Man is not his own master, and he knows it. His reason, his natural religion, his natural laws, are like a good many other things—natural to the world and to man. They are but ruins and the father of ruins. And these ruins and their history declare that if the will of man's Master be not ever recognised and followed" wrath and death will reign through all his walls, and till not a stone of them be left upon another.

Want of Interest Regretted.

I will now attempt to give you shortly my opinions on sundry matters which seem to me to be of moment to the Colony, and to our District. I must say, and you will excuse me for saying it, that it is to be regretted that more interest has not been taken in this election, and that more candidates have not come forward on this occasion. The District of Bruce is one of the oldest and most advanced in the Colony. Its roads, its railways, its agricultural and mineral and pastoral resources, its hills, its dales, and its sea-board, are an inheritance which
anyone might be proud to represent in the Parliament of a very noble Colony. But we may fairly hope, perhaps, that the present appearance of but one local candidate is a failing which will never be repeated.

Subjects not very Fully Commented on.

The subjects I have proposed to myself, I am afraid when I have done you will think are but meagrely commented on. Yet there is this excuse that the call for a new member has been sudden and unexpected; and full and special knowledge is sometimes not easily got on certain subjects at, so to speak, a moment's notice. Still I hope that the statements to be made will be so far sound.

Direct Steam Line to England.

We have now a direct steam line of ships to England, and I augur from it the best results to the Colony. Steamships, you are aware, even before the introduction of the compound engine, pressed in certain trades (viz., on shorter voyages and with heavy traffic,) seriously on the sailing vessels. Since that great improvement which requires sometimes as low as 1 ¼ lbs of coal the horse-power per hour, steam has still more asserted itself. Indeed the superiority of a steamship, where passengers are at all concerned, seems manifest. Even where goods are concerned, the great regularity and speed of their carriage, saving thereby interest on the money of their cost and requiring a smaller stock of them to be kept by the merchant, are advantages also apparent. Added to this we have the political fact of a stronger bond which binds the empire together; and such facts are to be hailed with all satisfaction, for the empire is scattered very far and wide. Yet the route chosen through the Staits of Magellan might, I think, be reconsidered. That route for sailing vessels, on account of the winds, is the only one possible, but with steamers the case is different. The road is very cold and stormy one. I remember being in a gale on this side of Cape Horn, which increased to a hurricane, and which lasted four days, when the seas were very violent indeed. The canal through Panama will have a bearing on this subject, but its day has not come yet. This line is run like several others, through the medium of a company. Yet this medium I have sometimes thought is unnecessary. If England can manage and maintain directly her fleets of war, we ought to be able to maintain and manage directly these few ships of peace. I have not sailed in large steamers very often, but I have sailed in them, and I think that steam navigation is still in its infancy. We may yet live to see steam vessels drawing 40 or even 50 feet of water, and propelled by three screws, not perhaps much longer than some at present, but much broader, built all but fire-proof, and all but unsinkable.

The day too is not distant when cargo and passengers will cease to be carried in the same vessel, as now, together. The world will soon be rich enough to afford and pay the extra cost and expense, and for the safety and speed of this arrangement.

Sea Walls or Breakwaters.

For this line of ships the question of accommodation in the Colony is very clamant at present. In too many of our harbours on the East Coast the water is very shallow. On the West Coast, harbours in numbers and great depth are existent, but there they are not required. It seems to me that the best solution of the difficulty is by a wall of concrete blocks run out to water of the proper depth, at places as near as can be found to the chief towns on the coast, or to the railway. The plan of dredging a natural harbour to such depths, and keeping the harbour at the depth needed, would be a most onerous affair. Those sea walls, since concrete is used, can now be built to withstand the sea, and on every part of a coast. The salt water in its chemical action does not seem to affect their stability.

Home Railway.

In this connection, and regarding improved means of transport and communication, I must allude to a subject which I often wonder has so seldom been discussed by the Press and the public of these Colonies. I mean the railway which could be made through Australia and Asia, and thence Home. The European part is already nearly covered. The Asiatic part is nearly all under the influence and the power of Britain. The short voyage by sea from Singapore to Port Darwin is of course open. And from Port Darwin to Melbourne we have British ground. By this route it may be new to some to hear that the journey from Dunedin to London need not occupy more than 20 clays; less than half the time it now takes. The advantageous results of such a railway would be enormous: advantages moral, material, political, and religious, and to generations yet unborn, and embracing a very large portion of the human race. The primal home of the human race, now a desert, might blossom again, and many nations would pass from death unto life. That jealousy and stupidity would have to be combated in the undertaking is not impossible, but if Britain could overcome and accomplish, she would cover
herself with a glory never known before, and her office as the leader and teacher of men would be
immeasurably strengthened. It might be urged that New Zealand, from its insular and disconnected position,
would not be benefited to the level of the other countries. But though this should be admitted as true (it is not so
certain), yet the position when calculated as to its drawbacks in time and money, is not very serious. All the
Australian Colonies should never cease to keep this undertaking before the eyes of the British Parliament. We
knew something, I may add, about the nationalisation of railways. The time may yet come when arterial lines of
railway from country to country and from continent to continent will be internationalised. There are now cases
extant where a country has a right-of-way through a neighbouring State, from one part of its territory to another
thereon.

Imperial Relations.

And this brings me to another subject and problem which I think presses for solution,—the relations of all
the Colonies with the Mother Country. The question is, should the bond of union remain as now, or be
strengthened or weakened? I think it should be strengthened, and if strengthened, then the whole subject of
Imperial communications and transport is supreme. You may remember that before the abolition of the
provinces of this Colony, we used to lament their financial difficulties. The lamentable course of a province
borrowing at 8, 10' and 15 per cent., and the general Government borrowing at the same time at 5½ or 6, was
often pursued. Now there is a similar action going on in the Empire every day. The Imperial Government can
borrow at 3 per cent., the Colony can borrow at 5. Were England to guarantee Colonial loans, the gain to them
and to herself in the end would be very evidently great. And the reason of this reserve and and distrust is chiefly
the want of better communications. Indeed, with communications of a high class between the different parts of
the Empire, it seems possible enough for the Colonies to be represented in the British Parliament at least once
in each alternate year; and they, as Adam Smith thought, would then become the counties of England, only
slightly divided by sea.

The Native Race.

I may allude to what may be called the Native Question—the fact that a race of strong men are dying out
before our eyes. Could not something be done to arrest so dire a phenomenon? I am of opinion that something
could be done, and would like the subject, both as to its cause and its cure, exhaustively considered. It seems to
me that were books on social and sanitary philosophy plentifully distributed among the Natives, and a stronger
public opinion raised in favour of their preservation, some good might result. Special laws, special missions,
and special actions of many kinds might be contrived for this object. Where there is a will there is a way it may
be suspected, in this matter.

Land Question.

Touching the land question, you will expect from me a few words. And I would say that I am as anxious as
anyone to see the lands of the Colony occupied by people; but I would like to see these people settled there also
in comfort. There is a balance which must be maintained between production and consumption, and unless that
is maintained neither agricultural, commercial, nor mining labour can hope to be repaid. I do not deny that out
of land under very various social circumstances a certain amount of rude plenty can be got, but this rude plenty
has, I suspect, been chiefly acceptable to poets. In fact much of this land talk is a sort of advocacy of the old
agricultural system of political economy which Adam Smith combated and completely overthrew, and which he
considered as more absurd than even the mercantile system which sought the wealth of all nations in commerce.
If freetrade in land is thought undesirable, and the consequent probability of large estates, then there is no way
to prevent this but to pass and enforce a law prohibiting the owning of any land by any person beyond a certain
extent. Let the country be divided into farms suited to the climate and the surface, say of 100 acres near the
town, and of 200 if agricultural and further off, and of 2, 3, 4, or 5000 if hilly and broken ground. Enact that no
one shall own more than one of these farms at the same time. There is no other way to prevent the creation of
large estates besides this. It would have to be provided, if land came to anyone by will or by mortgage, that
such be sold within a certain time, or failing that it would have to be purchased at a valuation by the
Government. Before, however, introducing the change, I would approve of a plebiscite being taken of the
people of New Zealand. The natural and commercial way, however, of dealing with an article when it gets
scarce in a country is to raise the price of it. This, for reasons not very manifest, has not been done with land.
Other measures have been tried apparently from a humane point of view. But humanity and economy are not so
often at variance as many imagine. When a high price is paid for land, and the money expended in roads, the
high price is high to the _bona fide_ settler more in appearance than in reality. Through adhering to neither the
one nor the other course above advised the land laws have always been in a state of costly confusion. As to the lands which have been already sold, and owned in many cases in much larger blocks, I am not prepared to interfere. When the land was sold and bought it was not provided that the future owner should obey the seller ever afterwards as to how he should farm it. I do not like to see slovenly farming, or lands lying in pasture when they could be economically tilled, but I am not prepared to nag or dispossess the owners on that account. Many large land-owners and land-owning companies have done better for the public and for working men than they have done for themselves. I am no friend to very small farms. The famines of Ireland, India, and China, which are so disastrous, are caused, I believe, in the main by these small farms, and the weak vegetarian economy which they can only offer to their possessors. Men seem only too prone to degenerate towards this small farming. We should remember that we cannot safely do without both the animal and the vegetable world as a defence against famine. If we have only the vegetable, a hot wind or a bad season brings death and desolation at once. It is not perhaps to be feared very much that the British or their Colonies will ever sink to the status of small farmers. Their seafaring genius and their love of room, it is to be hoped, will never leave them.

As to land nationalisation, I regard it as an absurdity, and no way likely to add to the national wealth, which is the product of labour and the sweat of the brow and the brain. That the Government is likely to make any better use of the rents than the individual, few it seems to me, will be found to believe. The system of perpetual leasing I regard also as unnecessary and uncalled for. If land is not sold for money, then money must be borrowed to provide roads. The interest falls on the Colony at large. And this is unfair to those who have already bought land. I think it is very likely that the rents will only be paid for a short period, and that the system will cure itself out of existence. The Government should appoint certain sharp and active factors to see that the conditions of the leases are carried out, otherwise both tenant and rent may some day be wanting. It is needless also to point out that when the tenants become numerous enough, the rent collector may be resisted. Yet if I might advise the large land-owner, I would tell him that should he decline to sell his land in farms, he should lose no opportunity of leasing it at a fair rent. The law of love requires us to look not alone on our own things but also on the things of others; and where a man is ready to improve land and produce additional food therefrom, his wishes should if possible be met at least half way.

**Railway Extension.**

The extension or not of the main line of railway to Blenheim is a subject likely to be decided next session. The report of the Commission regarding it has not been published, but I think that unless the cost and difficulties of the work are very great, it should be so extended. Some grudge and grumble that the land-owners cannot be made to pay a part of the expense, inasmuch as it is likely to open up and add value to their land. I fear, however, that as no bargain of that kind was made when the land was bought and sold, it would scarcely accord with reason or right to set up such a claim now. It is some comfort to know that if the land is thus raised in value, its owner will pay in property tax accordingly.

**Light Tramways.**

I may say, too, that I am an advocate for cheap and light tramways. I could name an engineer who gave it as his opinion that there was nothing between the metalled road and the railway. Were our progress very fast I would agree with him. It would not be worth while to have anything else. But from experience I can testify that a tramway of 24-inch gauge is, with iron rails or even with wooden rails faced with iron, a most useful instrument. Such a tramway over a common road has many advantages. A horse can draw much more over it than can be done on a road. It can be taken through property where less land is required, and less damage and disturbance caused than by a road, while it can be more easily developed into a railway. It has also advantages over a railway. An engine on a railway must be heavy, otherwise it will draw very little. This fact requires heavy rails, and costly bridges, and ballasting. The grades on tramways should be as light as possible; but where this is not so a horse can very much more easily be used to bring the loads in two trips than an engine. Where minerals can be found to aid the traffic of a tramway, its usefulness is still more pronounced. And there are localities in this county which possibly offer these conditions. It would probably be best to lease the working of these tramways. The Government are now making a tramway—the Forest Hill one—but it is of a wider gauge and more costly than I approve of.

**Open Towns.**

Another scheme of improvement I have thought over for some time, and one which, if elected, I would like to see introduced, is the scheme as it may be called, of "open towns." The question of the laying-off of towns
has never yet had that attention bestowed on it which its importance deserves. When we consider the proportion
of the human race which lives in towns, the subject is a worthy one indeed. In the former days of war and
ignorance, walls surrounded towns, and the inhabitants had to be enclosed and packed within these walls
regardless of everything save their defence from enemies. But in our day the case is different, resulting chiefly
from changes in the art of war. In this colony a law has been passed, and well passed, regulating the width and
levels of streets. I think the law should go much farther, and order that in all future towns in the colony,
whether laid out by the Government or by the individual, every alternate section or space be left vacant for
gardens or recreation. I am a firm believer in the *rus in urbe*. The allotments might be in quarter or half-acre
pieces, surrounded by open spaces accordingly. The advantages are such as these:—(1) It would undoubtedly
be conducive to the health of the citizens. Health, as is truly said is a blessing we never know the good of till we
lose it. What will a man give in exchange for his health—for his life? By letting in the light of day on four sides
of a building instead of two, you in this way even add probably to its healthiness. I see they are proposing to
burn down a part of Cairo to get rid of the cholera. It might be well if parts of 10,000 other towns were burnt
down at the same time. (2) All those destructive and extensive fires which we hear so often of would cease. A
town so laid out, and in possession of a moderate supply of water, could never be devastated by a fire.
Insurance would thus be greatly cheaper. (3) The sewage could be far more easily dealt with, and the smoke
nuisance would be abated. (4) The buildings presenting three sides to view, there would be more room for
ornamentation. (5) A town built in this plan would of course suffer less from earthquakes then if raised in the
common way. From earthquakes New Zealand is not free. (6) To bombard a town so built would require for the
same amount of damage ten times the shot and shell as if built in the ordinary way. We owe to posterity an
open town. Anyone who reflects on the cost of rebuilding old towns, such as Edinburgh or Paris, will admit
this. With them it is almost a question whether the new town with its taxation, or the old with its trouble, is the
worse. On the other hand, it would be more costly to light such a town, and distacnes would be longer from one
house or shop to another; but this with tramways and underground and elevated railways need not very much
disturb us. There is plenty of land in the world, and no good reason can ever be given for a closely-built town.
The open spaces would be in gardens, in flower vegetable, or fruit, and would be therefore anything but waste.
And though in the case of very large factories or warehouses, some inconvenience might be caused to the
builder and owner by the divided housing, yet this even to him would be balanced by the advantages
mentioned. Moreover, such cases would not very often occur.

I believe also that the plan might be applied to farmsteadings. Fires would be less destructive were the
buildings—the stable, barn, and byre—separated by intervening spaces. I have a plan by me of a steading in
France arranged thus, the intervening spaces being planted with fruit trees, the walls being also utilised for
fruit-growing.

**Taxation.**

As to taxation, I may say that I am in favour of the present system. The present property tax I consider a
very fair one indeed. The more property a man has, the more he should pay for its protection. Some may object
that those who have large incomes and spend them all should pay an income tax. But the customs gain by their
expenses, and, indeed, they undoubtedly pay the most taxes of any. I believe that a poll tax is, theoretically a
very fair one. The person and the property are all that are taxable to and by man, and all that require protection.
If we touch the one, there seems no reason why the other should be forgotten. The good wills of businesses
might also be taxed. For the goodwill is a property, and often saleable for a large sum of money. The difficulty
might be in valuing that goodwill. I am in favour also of direct taxation as far as possible. Direct taxation is the
taxation of light; indirect taxation is the taxation of darkness; and the reason why men prefer the one to the other
is just in this case as in many others, because their deeds are evil. Taxes also should be reasonable and
moral. Take for instance one with which we are all familiar, the penny stamp on cheques and receipts. Why
should we be charged such? It cannot be wrong to draw our money out of a bank if we have any in it, and it
cannot be wrong to receive money if it is our due The argument that it is expedient for revenue purposes is
absurd in the face of the fact that there are other taxes every way more proper, which can be added to. Lord
Beaconsfield was the author of the stamps on cheques. But his authority and his great genius seemed to have
split partnership herein.

The tax on Bills of Exchange seems also indefensible. If it be wrong to give the bill, then it should be
prohibited. If it be right, then it should be allowed. Evil, and not good, should be run down.

**Laws Amendment.**

Regarding improvements in our laws and law-making, I need not say that I am greatly in favour of
codification; and the present Government are doing an excellent work in that direction by repealing and framing anew. Yet care should be taken not to load the Statute Book by Acts which are already covered by the common law of England. Many such Acts or parts of Acts are, I believe, on the Statute Book of New Zealand. Acts which have been amended should in most cases, and as a rule perhaps, be redrawn every three years. There is one law which I am much in favour of amending and disturbing, and that is the law of lien and retention, particularly where it bears on the right of attorneys to retain documents and deeds till their costs, or what they may call their costs, are paid. I would do away with all general lien, and allow only special to remain, and this only when specially contracted for. General liens indeed were never favoured by law. Why I propose this change I will state: There seems no need for such a right. The lawyer has the usual remedy against his debtor by an action at law. When deeds or property of any kind are held, but especially title deeds, the holder, against too it may be an innocent and third party, has a very great advantage. If possession is nine points in law, it is so here. On three occasions I have myself had trouble in getting deeds from lawyers when their costs were paid, and when there remained not the shadow of a claim on them.

**Women's Rights to Property.**

I am also in favour of women, whether married or single, having the same rights and wrongs regarding their property as men. The position of woman, which, according to some, the law of England regards with such affectionate concern, seems in this respect anomalous and absurd. The education of women is now different and fuller than formerly, and there seems no reason to doubt but that, though married, they could look after their property. If any of them think they cannot, they may ask their husband's advice, which, if he gives it, they can take or not as they choose.

I am of opinion also that breaches of promise of marriage should not be actionable, unless made by a deed and the penalty for non-fulfilment stated. The spectacle of thousands of pounds being given and received under such balderdash as love-letters and reported evidence, is a most extraordinary one. I think too, that the duty of maintaining a wife and family should fall on the husband alone, when the wife has no property. When she has property, it is her duty to maintain herself and to provide her half of the expense in support of the family. If she belongs to herself, then she should keep herself, and the family are as much hers as her husband's. When the wife has no property, it seems that the husband might be justly called upon, for he not seldom is the first to ask the woman in marriage, and is mainly the offender. The "necessaries" allowed by law to a wife should be more clearly defined by statute, but which might be modified by contract between the parties. I would allow separation on security being given to the State for the support of the children.

The father to he held primarily liable. Separation to be obtained on a simple petition, and as a right, by either party. The parties to have no claim on each other for aliment after their separation.

Divorce is of course only to be obtained through adultery.

**Cheaper Conveyancing of Land.**

The cheapening of the conveyance of land has made much progress during these few years, and a Land Transfer Act has been passed; yet it may be found that it could be still further cheapened. The cost of bringing land under the Act should, I think, be lessened. I do not, for instance, see why insurance should in all cases be charged. And further, when the conveyance or Crown Grant has not been altered or broken, there seems nothing to hinder it from passing from hand to hand by simple indorsation and witnessing.

**Cost of Actions.**

Much has been done already to lower the cost of actions, but there is no doubt that much more could be done. The question of establishing arbitration courts, which exist in some countries, and which was once raised here, might be raised again.

**Statute Exchanges.**

I think that a system of statute exchanges should be largely introduced among the English-speaking colonies and countries. Acts referring chiefly to municipal law would be the most interesting. It would not cost much to send a copy of every Act passed in this country to all the British colonies and to the United States of America, if we received from them in return their legal lore.

**Education.**
I may now refer to education. The question of Bible reading in schools is a difficult one, and it is strange that it should be so. At the school which I attended in Edinburgh, we had an hour every week devoted to Bible history; and Jews and Catholics attended the school. These could stop away when that lesson was being taught, and there is no apparent cause why a somewhat similar plan would not suit here. I think at any-rate it is a thousand pities that the Bible was ever allowed to leave the schools. It is the exponent of the Divine mind, and is the crown of nature and of man, be he old or young. The youth of New Zealand may not be so hardy as the youth of Britain, but I don't think they are so delicate and soft as to be unable to read the Bible. It might not be needed for every scholar to carry all the book on his back, but extracts sufficient and suitable for the young, could easily be made and read. A revised translation of the Old Testament will soon appear, which we hope may be read more easily and intelligibly by all. This, with the revised version of the New, might commend itself to our notice.

In school books I think there is room for great changes, though they have been improved a little within the last twenty years. Phonetic spelling is however, still wanting, and until that is introduced the printing press is not full powered. The alphabet we now use is the Roman. That alphabet in its best days was never a good one, never equal to the Greek one. Rome was not literary. We have got many things from the Romans and have invariably improved on them. The Roman plough and the present double-furrow one are different. But the alphabet remains to this day the same, whilst instead of going forward with it we have gone backward, for we do not use it with consistency. The result is a bungle and a waste which future time will wonder at and condemn. Probably every language should consist, like the Sanscrit, of 50 signs. This would give a few signs to spare for the more common affixes and prefixes. The saving in writing and reading, in pens, ink, and paper, in easy learning and legibility, would be, even in a small country like New Zealand, very great. I could not certainly say how much it would amount to, but would name £50,000 a year as the probable gain. In teaching foreign languages, some of which, like the French, for instance, are badly spelt, I think the pronunciation should be shown on all school books. They might be arranged in double columns for this and other comments. Latin is a favourite study with me, and I esteem very poorly the pronunciation of it as taught here. The quantities of all the syllables should be marked in the school books and the words pronounced accordingly. When the visions of a universal language which have floated for long before the minds of men assume more of form and force, the prospects of Latin, once so high in that servants can be done without. If you agree with a man to do any work, you must first tell him what that work is. If, then, the magistrate is to do certain public work here or elsewhere, he must first be told what that work is, and having been thus told, a base of attack and defence is marked off, and criticism may proceed accordingly. If you let a piece of fencing, how can you challenge the number of men employed on it, unless you first state the number of chains to be done? The cases are nearly similar. The want of this agreement has been one of the greatest plagues the Colony has had to endure.

Regarding another plague, the plague of drunkenness, I may tell you that I am in favour of total prohibition. If we are to maintain our position in a world of competition and progress, the necessity of this is peremptory. Other communities are now up to this plane. Could not more games be established in which County could compete with County, and where the victors would be more honoured than now? Archery, "that ancient and noble art," might return to us; and other excitements and exercises be opposed to dissipation.

Rabbits.

As to another plague, the rabbit one; I would in addition to the measures now in force for its suppression, introduce their natural enemies. The sooner, too, we go about this work the better. There are vast extents of pastoral country in Australia and elsewhere whence a demand for these animals must come. So that if we delay the price may rise.

Such are some thoughts which I think have a bearing on the interests of the Colony, and I may now offer you a few more for consideration, but bearing more directly on the County of Bruce.

Tramways.

I think we should try for some of these tramways I have mentioned. A tramway down the Tokomairiro River to the coal mine and on to the coast, a tramway from Lovell's Flat up Fraser's Creek and on to the coast at the Wangoloa Creek, another from Waihola towards the coast, and another from Kaitangata to the coast.

Village Reserves.

Village or town reserves might also yet be wanted in different parts of the County. As population increases, we may expect to see towns. Village reserves may yet be needed at Lovell's Flat, at the mouth of the
Market Places.

Market places for the County are also in my opinion a subject for consideration. The Counties Act gives power to the counties to establish markets; but they have no power to take land compulsorily for that purpose. It might be well if the counties had that power under certain conditions. Market days might also be named by the County, and for the general benefit.

Counties act Amended.

The Counties Act may require amendment also, in reference to bridges which bound counties. The Roads and Bridges Act at Home is much more elaborate, and differs from ours in this respect, and its provisions are possibly well considered.

Factories.

With regard to factories in the County, I of course regard that subject as one of supreme moment. There is no reason why Bruce should not, in addition to its corn and cattle and coal, become a manufacturing County. The County in many things might supply at the least its own wants. We hear sometimes a good deal about the centralising tendencies of railways. That a railway draws people to its neighbourhood is certain. People like to live near a railway and a good road, for by these they are supplied with commodities and conveniences. But that a railway should necessarily cause the massing of a population in towns on the sea-coast of this Colony is not so clear. That men are prone to be collected in these masses in these large towns, and that also in the Australian Colonies, which have no foreign trade, is admitted; but it is of their own foolishness, and not because of railways. With great manufacturing industries, the results being exported, and a great export trade, we can understand a population being in centres on the coast. But with us this is not so—and indeed, railways can as well draw out of, as draw into, towns. It would be well if they were made the means of doing this more than they do. Great cities have great sorrows. It is better and stronger to fight in line than in column. With a railway in front there is no reason why in Milt in there should not be a pottery and a woollen factory; in Waihola, a boot and shoe factory; a paper mill at Kaitangata, &c.

Patriotism.

And, in conclusion, I would observe that the name of Bruce brings present to the mind the name of a patriot, a warrior, and a King; and where patriots abound there is wavering among the enemies without and the enemies within. The demagogue and the discontented disappear. Though we need not fear but that order, progress, and the ensuing civilisation will remain to every land where the Jew, the Greek, and the Roman have been and taught; yet it may be profitable to remember that these lived more a public life than we do now. And though it be possible to live too much in the market-place, the forum, or the cafe, it is also possible to live there too little. Men have a public as well as a private home. If they live too much in the latter, they become selfish and narrow-minded; and cowardice is only found when the foe is at the gate. We have newspapers, it is true, but these can never take the place of the living voice, nor sharpen as a man does the countenance of his friend. It might be therefore worth a thought whether encouragements and incentives to self-sacrifice and patriotism of a more special form should not be offered to the people. One could not but notice what happened at Auckland the other day. A man died there and left a large property to that city in land and money, to the amount, it was said, of £130,000. His memory might have been spared the coarse reflections made on it immediately afterwards. Among the ruins of Palmyra, which, if the home railway be made we may yet all easily visit, you may see still standing in a fair state of preservation, in the principal street and on each side of it, a long line of columns. These columns were erected by the citizens in honour of any of themselves who were distinguished for public spirit or heroism. Nothing struck me more in Paris than the column in the Place de la Bastille. It is erected on the site of that famous prison house which the people attacked and destroyed. It is of bronze, of great height, and crowned with the figure of Victory. On the pedestal we are informed that it was raised to the "glory of the French citizens who assembled and fought" in 1789. The names of these French citizens cover its shaft from top to bottom. The time may come here when the foundations of a national monument or Temple of Fame should be laid.

1883.
The Extinction of Drunkenness.

The subject of drunkenness is an old one, and it still occupies the attention of the public. In the following lines I give my opinion of it, and on its extinction.

1. It is necessary and proper that drunkenness be extinguished, because it is wholly and palpably an evil, and because it is easy to remove it, by simply removing strong drink.

2. It is the duty of the civil magistrate thus to extinguish drunkenness, because his duties are chiefly moral. An aid to morals is manifestly of more importance than an aid to money-making. Railways are made and owned by the state, but of what use are they if the people be immoral?

3. If drunkenness is to be extinguished in New Zealand, or in any other country, the sooner the work is begun the better. The population now is very sparse. The coasts could the more easily be guarded. A comparatively few points could be landed upon, and would require to be watched. This condition is daily passing away.

4. Drunkenness can only be removed by total prohibition.

Anyone who reflectson the terrible hold which drink has on our race, must, I think admit this at once. Even were the case not so black and formidable, the fact that drink is only an evil, and that continually, shows that total prohibition cannot at least do any harm. What is the use of enduring temptation and fronting risks when we can remove them? He who has a sheep farm on which there are many holes and sluggish creeks, will find sheep dead in these holes, especially the younger ones. He does not depend upon the good example of the older sheep who pass by or over these dangers. He fills up, more usually, these holes or drains, or covers up these creeks.

How much easier, in very many if not in every instance, would it not be for the parents of a family to guide it aright were the tavern removed?

5. The exertions of tetotallers have not been everything considered, very successful. Moral suasion alone, in this work, is of little use. When the soul is deeply tainted, other means and more of the sword, must be tried. If we plant a tree and wish it to grow, we should clear away the weeds around, and it will grow and thrive all the better. If we want morality to prosper and endure, we should also in this case clear the ground for it.

6. But will this prohibition not lead to the use of other instruments for the same destructive ends? Will opium or other narcotics not establish themselves on the ground lost to drink? I think not. The more the passions are restrained, the less likely they are to break out. The longer they are imprisoned, the less agile they become to scale the walls. Man in this respect goes forth conquering and to conquer. Opium and chloral have now more chance of establishing themselves with their friend the drink than without it. But should opium attempt to do so—should opium be against us—then we are against opium. It was never promised to man that in this world he would cease to combat evil.

7. Will wine, on which millions seem to depend for a living, be also extinguished and prohibited, and will beer and ales be also put down? There seems no help for it. Grapes, however, need not be made into wine and drunk, but may be made into raisins and eaten, and they will be greatly more useful and supporting as such. The grape-grower need not suffer therefore. With regard to beer, its wholesomeness as a drink is more than doubtful, and if it be an offence it should be removed—though admitted to be less actively destructive than other stronger drinks.

8. Should the producers and sellers of drink be compensated for loss in case of its extinction? I think not, because I do not see that they will lose anything.

The people reserve to themselves the right to make laws for the common good, and if drink be purely an evil, both the producer, and dealer, and consumer of drink should give compensation to the state for the harm they have so long done to it. Money made by the stupidity of one's neighbours carries with it no claim when such stupidity ceases, or is made to cease. The drink dealer should rejoice in the destruction as well as the rest of the community. He and the family who may come after him will equally benefit. The human progress which constructs railways, may hurt the carriers and toll-keepers, but no compensation is paid to them. So in the vast moral and material advance which would be contained in the supression of drunkenness, no claim can be maintained. It is not necessary to to talk of general principles, general laws, the liberty of the subject, and such like, when drunkenness is to be extinguished. Man, in his combat with evil, has to do with positions often special and requiring a special attack—with both regular and irregular warfare. It is too late to read Vauban when the enemy is already in possession of the camp. No hesitation need be had in specially legislating for drunkenness.

9. But some may ask, is drunkenness after all such an evil? Have the sober nations, as the Latin, risen to greater power and eminence than the more drunken Teutonic? Are they more moral?
Looking back to ancient Rome, and the astounding fact of a single city doing what it did, we may reply in the affirmative. In modern times, (though France once showed the world what she could do) the Protestant Teutonic nations are perhaps in advance of some of the Latin Catholic ones. But the cause of this fact is not the want of drunkenness. The causes are private laziness, and idleness, and public misgovernment.

Labour and abstinence, are the chief sources of wealth. The Latin abstains, but does not labour. The Teuton labours, but does not abstain.

10. But a large revenue is raised by taxing drink; how is this to be got when drink is no more? Simply by taxing other commodities, by direct taxation if need be on the person and on property.

The first result of the sudden death of drunkenness would be the sudden advent into life of a large amount of wealth. A great rise would ensue in the value of all kinds of property. People would still labour as before. It would be strange then, if with added wealth, means could not be devised for abstracting a part of it in taxation.

11. There is also another very strong and special circumstance—special at least to New Zealand and some other new countries—and that is the destruction of the Native race now going on, and mainly through the white man's drink. It seems to me a reason sufficient of itself, for the summary expulsion of drink from the country. It is manifest that we are blameable in this respect, and that our chambers, if founded on such wrongs, will not endure. Nations have no souls. Their punishment as such must be in this world. A moment's reflection indeed, teaches that evil must be smitten, if our race is to endure-Our conduct may not reach the atrocities of the Spaniards and others, in former times, and a higher future may await the Colony than the chronic wars and revolutions of a South American republic but the plane on which we are moving seems dangerous enough.

12. My last reflection is, that there are communities now existent with and without drink. A sober community must leave another burdened with drink far behind. No amount of thought, word, or deed can make this doubtful for a moment. I would ask then, are we prepared to be left hopelessly behind in the road of progress? Shall we admit our inferiority and bow low the head, or shall we add by our faith and works, to a noble and strong development in social greatness. The men in America who have already conquered are of the same race and in much the same circumstances as we are. Nor need it take long to gain this victory. Social as well as scientific wonders are common in our day. Let Japan bear witness. Even Sweden, old and slow, sunk, a bye-word among the nations for its offending, now walks erect with unblemished name; and all done in a few years.

Total abstinence and total prohibition, are no new things. Samson and the Nazarites were total abstainers, and he was the strongest man the world has ever seen. The Suevi are described by Cæsar in his Commentaries on the Gallic War, as the most numerous and warlike of all the German nations. They lived on milk chiefly, and their bodies were of vast size, and he adds, "they prohibit wine from being brought into their country, because they think that it weakens men in enduring labour, and renders them effeminate."

1882.

Phonetic Spelling.

So much has been written and said about Phonetic Spelling that I need not begin by stating what the term means. There is no wonder that it has caused some consideration, for the present system is one of the most unaccountable muddles conceivable. The alphabet we use, or try to use, is the Roman. It was never a very copious one, but if we could be advised to use it with uniformity, the case would not be so bad. Were, say, a dozen new letters invented and used, of course both writing and printing could be done more cheaply and expeditiously, yet the learning this would entail a greater labour on the community than perhaps they would care to perform. Were a spelling reform then to be begun with the Roman letters only, the long vowels may stand unmarked but the short ones must be marked. The letters of the dipthongs I would connect as in writing them, by a curved stroke. "Ng" as in "sing," "th" in "wither" and "sh" as in "pleasure," "ch" as in "loch" would be joined also. In writing them, if wished to show the difference, a dot may be placed below. This would be the alphabet:—

(a Scotch sound)

It would not probably be necessary to mark the vowels in ordinary writing and printing, but in educational works they would, of course, be all marked. It would also be very easy to save this marking by simply forming the long or old vowels a little longer than these are printed at present.

I may now give you a specimen of a sentence written as proposed:—

Und#r a spr#ding ch#stn#t tr#,
The advantages of the plan I have given seem to be these:

- The present system is interfered with in the least possible way.
- The amount of time and attention required to master it is very small indeed.
- Every sound in the language is represented. Some give an additional sound to a, but it is not required.
- To foreigners and others acquainted with the Latin letters as used on the Continent and in Scotland, the difficulties of spelling on this system are almost none. This is important, for the facility given to the rest of the world to learn English may lead to important consequences.
- In writing the principal languages of Europe, very few sounds other than these above given will be found.

Some have objected to the system of phonetic spelling altogether, and I will allude to the chief of these objections.

1. It may be admitted that it is impossible to give on paper, with absolute accuracy, every sound and tone used by man in speech. One man differs from another in tongue and voice. But that is no reason why spelling should not be done as accurately as possible. Though we cannot keep always in the middle of the high road, that is no reason why we should not walk as well as we can—no reason for spelling d#r, "door;" and spün, "spoon."

2. It has been objected, that by this change you cloud or hide the derivation and connections of the words—that you hide the poor word from its father and brother. It is sufficient to answer to this that even were it true it would not greatly matter. The derivation could easily be found notwithstanding the cloud. But it is not true. The derivation would, in many a case, be cleared by the change. The present spelling did not come to us arranged by one head or lawgiver. The founders of it were rather like a flock of hens who scraped and cackled each in his own way.

3. Many words now spoken alike would be written alike, and not differently as now. This of course is true, but unless the context is very weak, it would shew the meaning notwithstanding. But this need not necessarily follow, for a mark might be set on such words. The sameness, however, of these does not trouble us much in the spoken tongue, and there is no reason to fear it much in the written. In English I believe there are more of these words than in any other language whatever, and it would be well if some of them could be expelled and new ones introduced. They deaden, so far, the language. There are, however, many words now spelt alike and of different meaning.

4. But among the millions of the British Empire who, according to Carlyle, are mostly fools, how are you to introduce such a change?

   It might be introduced as others have been before. The Greek alphabet had, at first, only 16 letters. The rest were added by different men at various times up to the sixth century, B.C. If antiquity is to be copied in this respect, as in many others, it holds true that we should change and improve as they did. Stagnation is insanity, and has no precedent in the past and should be unknown in the present.

   How did Peter the Great give to Russia an alphabet? How did the Swedes in 1866 improve theirs? "They just gaed and did it."

   In order to introduce a spelling reform here, I would advise that a phonetic alphabet be framed and recognised, and then declared such by Act of Parliament.

   That such alphabet be used wherever possible, say, in aid of teaching English, in the school-books, and of course in aid of teaching foreign languages. The state interferes with many things less urgent than that proposed here. There is a Maori dictionary now in process of compilation, and at great expense which would probably be all the better of a little more phonetic spelling.

   If the British Legislature could be moved in this direction we might then have a general instead of a colonial benefit. Failing this, the other Australian Colonies might be sounded, and if they reject I would have New Zealand take the business into its own hands, and have an alphabet of its own.

   If this alphabet were instituted, it might be well to institute also a national system of short-hand. I have been a phonographer for 33 years and know the use of it, and it would be very much more useful to those who now know it, if the knowledge of it were more widespread.
Thoughts (Random) on Land and Labour.

Landed properties are unequal in size in every country, and have been so in all ages.
What things should be considered in giving the sizes of properties, chiefly as to how to get the largest return from the labour and capital put on them?
All the world must be considered as open to all in discussing the size of properties.
It is the duty of every man to save as much as will take him to that field of labour which is the most productive.
The command is that man labour six days and rest the seventh. This is given to rich and poor. It requires, however, that man labour aright, in the most effective manner, and in fact freely and for the highest price.
Every man, then, who owns land should see that labour is directed to it, and capital also, and that both are put there solely because they are there more productive than anywhere else.

Is it moral for an Icelander to inhabit his country which is so unproductive for labour and capital?

Is it moral for an Irishman to work for a day, when by going to Canada or elsewhere he can get 10s. a day? and is it moral for an employer to employ a man at that low wage?

When a man owns land which would repay the labour of agriculture or mining, and merely depastures cattle on it, he seems to break in on morality; for though he may find work for himself and a shepherd, he prevents men from labouring, and thus leads on to a breach of the fourth commandment.
The fact that it is immoral not to labour, and not to seek the best fields of labour all over the world would tend to equalise population and produce vast consequences to our race. Religion might thus aid colonisation.
Marriage seems immoral in a country of low wages.

Heavy populations on one small spot are caused and kept there by kings and governments very often. These would rather have a numerous poor population than a smaller rich one. The reason being, perhaps, hostile neighbours.

Paul's advice to Timothy and the Ephesians, that having food and raiment they should be therewith content, only applied to the time and place. A small christian community in a large and degenerate heathen one, and possessing few or no means of transport to a better field, and perhaps no better field to be found, might find it best to be thus content. Discontent might have caused the loss of food and raiment and of life also under such circumstances.

Cursed is he who adds field to field. Bread should be raised. A certain density of population is necessary. Solitude stunts man, if excessive, both in body and in mind.

Cruelty to Animals.

It seems to me that the prevention of cruelty to animals, is as a work, still in its infancy. Horses, sheep, and cattle are still far more cruelly treated than there is any need for. Sheep are being shorn now. Can anyone deny that a very great measure of cruelty might be saved in this work? How many useless cuts are given, how many kicks? How many knocks through rough yards, and still rougher yarding? How many bites from dogs? How much starvation from insufficient infield accomodation? How much rough usage through improper lifting? In winter how often are they not starved? How often are parasites allowed to live on them at home; and at ease—but not for the poor sheep? How much pain from disease is suffered by them? How long do hoofs go uncut? How many rotten ones go uncared for? How many double fleeces come in each year, which the way-worn carrier sweats under? How many horns grow into the head, causing great pain? How many bites and tears do they get from that profoundly wise animal, the shepherd's dog? How often does the young lamb lose its mother, and die miserably of starvation? How often does over-stocking exist, and misery and poverty rule the day and the night? That a vast amount of pain is existent in the flocks of the Colony, and which affect heavily millions of sheep, is undoubted, and it is also undoubted that a great part of it could be saved. Ah! but to look so carefully after sheep won't pay. Are you sure of that, my friend? Providence, you should note, has a great many forces at his command, which he can retain or let go as he pleases, and which may punish the inhumane.

Had the country not been so terribly over-stocked as it was just before the rabbit asserted himself, and had cruelty and misery been less abounding, that plague might have been stayed. Besides, even if money is made on pain more rapidly, are you sure that it will remain with you and your children as steadily as if it had come on a smoother road? It may take wings some fine morning and depart to a kindlier owner.

Cattle are also often, no doubt, treated very cruelly. It is doubtful if it pays to let them remain out in the winter as many do. Much unnecessary pain is also caused in the stock-yard and at milking. A great deal could
be said about having better-appointed saleyards, especially in the smaller towns. They should always be paved, and might be roofed over also. In the moving of live stock of all kinds, whether by road or rail, it is an admitted fact that a great and unnecessary amount of pain is caused to the animals.

As to horses, no end of words might be spoken to show forth their calamities; bad housing, bad shoeing, bad driving, bad harnessing, bad everything.

**Dull Times.**

In New Zealand, complaints are loud and grievous of the dull times. By that is meant that work is difficult to be got by the workman, and that wages are falling or about to fall; that wool, mutton, and grain, the produce of the farm, of agriculture, and pasture, are low; that land is difficult of sale, and that money is difficult to employ on a productive investment.

I will enquire shortly into what is the cause of all this, and then into what, if any, is the cure of the same.

The times are dull in New Zealand because the people are poor, or poorer than they were in gold and silver. Price is the name given to the amount of money which an article will exchange for. It does not at all follow, and is not in fact true, that New Zealand is poorer in corn, cattle, wool, coal, or other commodities. She is only poorer in gold. The question then is simply, Where has the gold gone to?

Now an article exchanges for just as much gold as represents the labour in obtaining each severally. If a day's labour, all things considered, produced a sovereign, and a day's labour produced a bushel of wheat, then the wheat will exchange for the sovereign. If, then, an article fall in price, it shows that the article must be being produced by less labour than formerly, or that gold is requiring more labour to produce it than formerly, either in New Zealand or in some other country, on a scale sufficiently large to make itself felt. This, on reflection, is a very evident cause of New Zealand's trouble. It is competition in wool, grain, and meat, of other countries, which is affecting our markets very greatly. We have South America in wool, and North America in grain. New and good sheep country is still procurable in some other parts of the world, and this places the Colony at a disadvantage.

Again, labour-saving machinery is constantly being introduced and improved in agriculture and the other arts, while in gold production we do not hear that such great improvements are being made.

These are generally the reasons for a fall in the price of commodities in the markets of the world, but of course there may be many other causes bearing specially on a country such as New Zealand, and for a few of them we have not far to go; in which case we bear a special as well as general burden.

There is the rabbit plague. This adds to the cost of the production of wool and agricultural produce, and is special to New Zealand and part of Australia. It is a most serious burden, as everyone who has had anything to do with it knows to his cost. It makes dull times through destroying the capital of the employer of labour, leaving less wages in his hands; brings down the price of land by destroying the return the land gives for labour.

Another cause of the dull times may be found in the less borrowing of money lately. When large sums of money are being brought into a country and circulated there, in exchange for commodities and labour, there is a briskness while this is being done for evident reasons. This briskness is hollow, and the sooner it is got rid of, and a sound one substituted, or none at all, the better. A cause of the dull times is consequently found when a country is heavily indebted and when large sums of money must leave it to pay for interest, no matter what may be the state of the markets. This is true of New Zealand.

A cause too of the dull times, and which I have alluded to already, is no doubt the under-production of gold, as compared with the production of other commodities. It has not been increasing at all in proportion to them. Silver has been increasing in quantity, and its cheapness is daily, leading to complications, on account of its acknowledged place in the currency of the world.

A sudden increase in the population of the Colony, if of immigrants without capital, may cause dull times, but this is not the cause here. The Colony has not had any such influx.

If these be the causes then, what is the cure? How is land to be raised in value? How is capital to find employment as formerly, at remunerative interest? How is labour to be paid as high as before, and the demand for it increase.

Land may rise in price when its produce rises, and when the Government cease to sell what they have, under its value. The latest development in this last direction is by what is called a "Homestead Act," by which land is not sold but given away to anyone, in allotments, on the condition of settling on it. Comment on such action is unnecessary.

With regard to capital, I fear that its chance of ever being employed here, at the rates formerly ruling, is low. When the avenues of enterprise in a new country are filled, interest on money must fall.

As to the labourer, the case is not greatly dissimilar, yet he has the advantage over the capitalist and
land-owner of being able often to carry himself more easily to other countries where times are brighter.

A cure proposed by some is the issuing by Government of notes promising to pay money on demand. This is an absurd device. For if it can be paid on demand, why give the promise only? It may stand as long as the holder's faith stands, but when this last gets shaky, as well it may, it may happen as it has happened in other countries, that many hundreds of pounds' worth of these promises will not buy a pound of butter.

Regarding over-production as a cause of the present dullness, it may be said if we over-produce let us produce less, and then a higher sum will be got for the product. But this means remaining idle one half the day and working the other half only. It would be better, to change, if possible the employments we follow. We still import many things which might be produced in the colony. Our making these things here may tend to lower the price of the goods we export, but the difference will still be in our favour and better than idleness. Again, since gold is scarce and not easily procurable, the best way will be to do with as little as possible. In many countries the people live from year's end to year's end and scarcely enter a shop. In the colonies the useful education of the citizen has been grossly neglected. This is not to be wondered at, coming as the inhabitants do from a wealthy and heavily-populated country. But this is not the case in every or most lands, and it seems as if it had better cease here too. I append an extract from a magazine I read lately which hears on the subject. There is no getting out of the truth that if people choose to follow agricultural pursuits and settle down on land regardless of the laws of supply and demand, they must be content to live on that land, and not be found so often in shops and towns. They must learn to do this, and to find a rude plenty sufficient. Any money they may save will all be needed for taxes and to pay for interest on debt, interest which must be paid in gold.

But might it not be worth while to inquire how men in former times did when dull times came.

They tried various schemes. In France they robbed the rich and went to war, intestine and foreign. This left fewer population in the country, and if the war was at all successful those left were better off but more demoralised and unfit for labour, or even keeping the wealth they possessed. This plan would not, for obvious reasons, be very desirable in New Zealand. Another plan among the old German races was as follows:—The people divided themselves into three parts. They then cast lots, and on whichever part the lot fell that part went forth and sought anew habitation. Various other devices, too numerous to mention, known and unknown, were tried, the key to which we may suspect lay in killing each other or somebody else who had something worth the labour and risk of killing for.

In New Zealand the established way is to borrow more money. But this way is now nearly defunct. Like other low-class indulgencies the dose has to be strengthened after each taking, as it gradually loses its effect. What one million would have done a few years ago, three will be scarce equal for now. A large amount is now needed to fill the drain of interest alone.

What then is to be done? I answer in one word, we must live honestly and within our means. We have a country quite capable of supporting its present population. It is only the want of gold that is felt, and men do not live by gold alone. If we wear homespun cloth, that is no disgrace. There is more of that cloth now worn in the world than any other, though some may not be aware of it. Those who would look down on us on this account, let us shun.

It seems to me, I will add, that what New Zealand wants, and has wanted all along, is a party strong enough and proud enough, a party that will take a pride in keeping the public estate out of debt, who will teach that to borrow money for the sake of money, and with the view of making money, is a most dangerous transaction to the borrower, and that it has always been so since the race of man began—that debt is only to be incurred as a last resource—that the borrower is the servant of the lender—and that no nation will be ever great, or as great as it ought to and might be, if continually in debt.

"I am acquainted with a family residing some miles from Stockholm; their house is a large one (I wish some of my readers could spend a few days in it, they would understand then how much a girl could do in a day); it is only two storeys high. The kitchen is on the ground floor; in the centre is a large white porcelain stove; a very pretty stove, I think—it looks so bright and clean always. It has places at the top that can be uncovered at will, so as to cook by an open fire, but it consumes less coal than our kitchen stoves. Here, as in most Continental kitchens, copper pans are much used, except for certain things, such as potatoes, and some parts of veal are never cooked in copper, while green vegetables always are. My friend's family consists of himself, his wife, and three daughters. He was formerly a captain in the navy. He now farms his own land, and his entire household consists of forty persons, all of whom are fed and provided for. The housekeeping is done by the three daughters in turn, each taking it a week at a time. To enable them to do it well, they studied three years after leaving school. A year was devoted to cooking and household management, including the dairy work. Cheese being eaten in Sweden, the making of the different kinds is very important; nor was another] branch of dairy work neglected, for all three of the girls can milk the cows. Then the laundry work had to be learned. And the third year was devoted to spinning, weaving, and needlework. There are five women-servants for the house. Here, in Sweden, servants are engaged for six months at a time. April and
October are the months when the changes are made. The days on which they are engaged are called "Flyttedager" The wages are generally about five pounds a year. There is an old servant here who has lived in the house for sixty years. She was engaged at the age of ten; her wages never exceeded two pounds a year, but now she does not draw all her wages. She asks what could she do with so much money. She has only her clothes to find, and she can still weave more than she can wear. The daughter whose week it is to be house-keeper always rises very early, for, with such a large household there is plenty to do, and everything is clone at home; baking, dairy, laundry, all have to be superintended. The coffee even is home-roasted.

**Bible Difficulties.**

Why, it may be asked, should not weeds be found among the words of God, written words in man's keeping, and words which refer, in many cases, to ages that have passed away? In the material world weeds exist which exercise the labour of the hand. Weeds may have been permitted to creep into the book of God to exercise the labour of the head. If experience and observation, and the resultant knowledge, can guide and deal in one case, it may do the like in the other. If the eye of the body can detect a good fruit from a bad one, the eye of the soul should detect truth from error the more easily if aided by what is manifestly of Divine inspiration placed in company with it. I allude to the smaller difficulties and discrepancies which are common in the narratives of the writers of the Scriptures. Colenso, however, manifestly goes too far when he condemns all the five books of Moses.

**State Churches.**

It may be said that in a country when the power the people increases, and they become numerous, national churches and other specially supported institutions fall. They are not required as teachers and the people in some cases may be unable to afford them. Endowments are thus in many European and American countries against the spirit of the age. Books are very cheap, and the printed page is everywhere preaching the gospel. In the natural history of nations, those rule first who can read and write first; and they learn to read and write in the following order—the clergy, the king, the nobility, the people.

A State Church may be needed among an ignorant and sparsely-settled population, as well as a State School; but when a society is not under these conditions, it becomes a State evil. For with the spread of knowledge people think for themselves, and liberty of thought produces dissent. If the State Church continue, the dissenters must support both their own ministers and those of the State. Though the church be endowed and not supported by tithes or taxation, direct or indirect, they still assist to support it. Those lands or property set apart add to the burdens of the people, since the other taxes can be raised only from the remainder of the national wealth. A State Church, moreover, is but a weak support and teacher of religion. It is prone to become a mere machine, stately in appearance, but powerless to raise the masses, or indeed move them in any way. It is itself too much bolstered up by the world to condemn the world. Leaning on the civil magistrate, and in need of his money, it wants the liberty to rebuke him. The Roman Catholic Church, when a national one, may be called a political machine (it was once the most formidable in the world), whose wheels are kept from creaking and becoming intolerable to those concerned by a quantity of very dirty religious grease.

The Church of England maybe called a religious machine, which would tumble to pieces as such were the political craftsmen to leave it for an hour. The Church of Scotland is rightly believed by many to be on its last legs. The Church of Ireland is now the late Church of Ireland, and will long remain so.

There are not a few who think and talk thus; but the question is not so easily settled. Religion is the life of a people. Without it, their return to the level of the brute creation would be certain and fast. The civil magistrate may then be excused for hesitating to disestablish a national church. It may, and does, cost a good deal to preach the gospel, but the money is perhaps as well spent herein as in whiskey, ribbons, or ships of war. Besides, if the Bible be the best teacher of politics and religion, and a standard and guide very much needed in both, it follows that a national church is a most desirable institution in this view. For the dissenter it is a standard by which he may constantly compare himself, and if he is "holier" than it, then so much the more pleased he should be with himself. Again, the printed page, education and enlightenment, are by no means convertible terms with religion. An enlightened age has often been an irreligious and declining one. Among the classical authors of the Augustan age, you find lamentations innumerable about the pass things had come to, when they could neither bear their vices nor their remedies."
**Famines.**

To man was given the dominion of the beasts, birds, and fishes, as well as the herbs and the seeds of the field. (See Genesis i., 28 and 29.) And it is noteworthy that the dominion of the animal world seems now necessary to his safety. When he leaves it he gets on dangerous ground. In Ireland, India, and China, where a too heavy and unenlightened population compels to a sort of vegetable civilization, he is subject to die by starvation. In such a state there is no room for animals. A heavier population can subsist by unwearied cultivation of the soil than by pastoral pursuits, however ably conducted. But a too hot wind, or a too cold one, or a too dry or a too wet season, which do but little harm to the ox or the sheep, drive the population to want and its extremities. In other countries where corn is difficult to grow, as in Iceland, and where the animal world can only be depended on for sustenance, there is also often a famine. For animals are liable to be attacked by many diseases. In Iceland in 1762, 280,000 sheep (nearly the half in the country) died. In 1783, 11,000 cows, and 27,000 horses, and 186,000 sheep died; 9,000 of the inhabitants then died of starvation. The action of floods and volcanoes has sometimes grievously impoverished districts and communities.

**Memorandum on Roads.**

**A Fragment.**

The subject of roads might be considered under the following heads:—

- What a road is; the term defined. Of the several kinds of vehicles used on roads.
- Of the economical causes of the formation of roads, and of their uses. Man can create nothing, can only change the place of matter. Safety (as an investment) of roads, and their lastingness.
- Road-making scientifically considered-Different kinds of roads. Roads of the ancients.
- Of the funds for road-making and maintenance, and of the most equitable mode of raising and administering them. The past and present means.
- The legislation of different countries on the subject of roads.
- The results on man of roads, socially and politically considered. They produce both love and wealth. Observations on human progress.

A road may be called a piece of ground over which men, animals, and commodities move or are moved. It may be a bridge, viaduct, or tunnel. A road also, from a failing too common in our language, means a secure piece of water in which ships may lie at anchor.

The word road has evidently its origin in the word *ridan*, preterite *rad* to ride on horseback; and would thus mean a party of riders. Afterwards it seems to have been synonymous with raid and inroad, which is a sudden riding into a territory by what the Saxons called rad, or radhere, *i.e.* cavalry. In our time the meaning is transferred from the men to the place of action.

The oldest and most proper word for what is now called a road was way, a place for walking on. Its derivation was also Saxon, being *waeg*, a way. When the way was required to be made over very flat or wet ground, it was raised by means of soil got from parallel ditches or elsewhere, and was then called, rightly enough, a highway. Path is also Anglo-Saxon, and the old *paad*, *paeth*, or *path*, meaning a track for foot passengers, and narrower than those for animals.

The word street is from the Latin *stratum*, and thus refers to the laying or strewing of the stones on the road, *i.e.* by paving. The ancient roads of Rome had sometimes several pavements on them, the one over the other, and amounting in all to many feet in thickness. These were the *strata* of the *via*—of the way.

Glancing at the different means and degrees in which roads may be utilised for the carriage of goods, we may mention them in their order, beginning with the lowest and most laborious:—the human back or head; man with wheel-barrow or hand-cart; animal and pack; animal and sledge; animal and hod-cart; animal and cart, or waggon; animal, cart, and macadamised road; animal, cart, and paved road; animal, cart, and tramway; railway. The macadamised road is in our time dominant, and is the most generally useful, but a clay road and narrow tramway might, under certain circumstances, be a substitute.

Sledge is from the Saxon *slidan* to slide, and is familiar to everyone. The hod-cart was a sledge, but with shafts attached, the animal carrying in part and drawing in part the load laid on it. The cart was made for carrying, and with two wheels, and which were formed at first from the trunks of trees sawn across. The dray,
from the Saxon *dragan* to drag or draw, was the English word for cart. The waggon, or Saxon wain, was a *way-going* thing on four wheels and still common.

Those who *use*-roads should be rated for them.

At the first formation of, or after a very fundamental improvement in, a road, people should be rated according to the addition which such road makes to the value of their life and wealth; of their wealth, not in land only, but to other forms as well.

Users of the road should pay according to the damage they do to it, and the expense to repair such damage.

There should therefore be a general rate payable by everyone in the country, as was formerly the case, (sailors who went on foreign voyages, being alone excepted), and a special rate laid perhaps on land as now. In the older settled districts of this Colony, and where *new* roads are not likely to be made, a tax on the number of work horses on the farm, as indicating the *use* made of the road, would be fairer perhaps than the present system of annual value.

**The Economical Future of Britain.**

The British gain their living by agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. The last two employments are consequent entirely on the country's mines and minerals. These will no doubt fail, or fail so far as to bring into successful competition those of other countries. In such a case what is to be done? Will "two little islands in the middle of the ocean still rule 200 millions of people?" If this failure come to pass, and if other natural powers do not come to the rescue, the social state of the people must deteriorate. They must fall back on the land, and form a community not perhaps unlike the Irish or Chinese; or emigrate to other lands where labour is more productive. The latter, for reasons pretty manifest, will be the course. They may, to support their name and fame, endeavour to become a conquering and ruling people, like, in some respects, the ancient Roman. But the surrounding nations are powerful and watchful. In the event of their emigrating, they may retain their labour-saving machinery and their social forms almost unimpaired-Agricultural and pastoral pursuits and perhaps a wealthy but not very heavy population, may be predicted of future Britain. I say "wealthy," because the loans made by Britain to other countries should be remembered.

Even were a British Confederacy an accomplished fact, its influence in populating or over-populating the British Islands, need not be great. For such confederacy will not be stronger than at least two other great powers. Hence in case of war prudence will require but a moderate population.

**Love and Money.**

In political questions, bear in mind two things—love and money, the happiness of man as well as the wealth of nations. Sometimes, though not very often, a course may be economically productive and still wanting to the interests of humanity in the family, in the nation, and in the world. The West India planter who, when his slaves grew old and unable to work, removed them to a distant gully to perish, did something economically right, but grievously sinned against the law of love and humanity. Men and nations should remember to do unto others as they would be done by. The great change which has occurred to the modern world as from the ancient, is the greater preponderance of kindly feeling, and the displacement of the animal passion for war and destruction. Men in peace and in freedom are in industrial competition, which is no doubt a modified kind of war, but this should not be allowed to harden into hate. Of what use would wealth be were hate and war to be universal in the world for an hour?

**On the Size of Landed Properties.**

The size of a holding in the country should depend upon:—

- The richness or poorness of the soil. The richer the soil, the smaller the holding; the poorer, the larger.
- The climate and crops. If the crops, as vines, &c., require much human and hand labour, the holding should be small.
- The number of the non-agricultural population, the miners and merchants, in the country. With a large population of such, as in England, there may be room for large farms.
- The number of the agricultural population. With a numerous population, chiefly agricultural, farms must be small, as there is no room for large ones.
- The amount of intelligence possessed by the people. The want of intelligence may preclude the finding of
a sufficient number of farmers for the farms, and their keeping them even when found.

- With freetrade and among nations whose people are not averse to seek new seats, the competition of these nations bears on the sizes of farms. Large farms in America, and labour-saving machinery, go far to compel to the same elsewhere.

- The size of a farm may also depend to some extent on the distribution of capital among the agricultural class. If there are many farmers of moderate means wanting farms, then moderately-sized farms should be forthcoming to suit them. This, however, is not easy to be compassed when houses and other costly improvements exist on the farm. A farmer capitalist, if enterprising, must then usually endeavour to possess himself of more than one farm.

It is to be noted further, that in all systems of farming the time of the cultivator should be fully employed. That a dependence on mining, manufactures, and commerce is less sure than agriculture, though a part of all is best. That large holdings give their owner a certain power over his fellows, whilst smaller holdings, if the people are moral, conduce, it is thought, to independence and spirit. Yet small holders may associate, and exert power, and impoverish the country. With leased lands and high rents, this is almost impossible.

### Labour.

*Labour omnia vincit,* and may be divided into bodily, mental, moral, and religious.

Without food for the body men would die, hence labour must be bodily and with the hands.

To direct this labour aright, we have mental or head labour.

To direct the fruits of labour and guard the labourer, we have, and require, moral labour.

To sustain and direct moral labour, we have religious labour, which teaches the necessity of pleasing God, and the great and important truths of immortality. Labour would become insupportable to us unless our spiritual nature had some concern in it, and unless the labourer knows that the Great Ruler is kindly affectioned to him. Religion also consoles for, and so repairs, the blunders made in other kinds of labour. But revealed religion only does this. Natural religion fails absolutely, or very nearly so.

Idleness is an evil to man. The vital forces then spend themselves dangerously to him. Hence says the Command—"Six days shalt thou labour." Of the labours of God in nature, who shall discourse? His labours by the sun, the moon, the stars, and this our globe, with its winds and seas, its animal and vegetable life! Of the labours of God's Spirit who can understand or fathom, when in contact with man's?

Some philosophers lately have thought "force' is a better term for some of the labours I have alluded to. I do not think so. If the world were ruled by laws, and the Ruler bound by them also, "force" as a term might be good enough. But where a personal author and monarch, is existent, something expressive of more activity and intelligence, seems required.

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### Errata.

Page 19—For "telegraph" read "the telegrah."
Page 37—For "suffices" read "suffice."
Page 40—For "breaks" read "break."
Page 44—Add "1871" at the end of the article.
Page 66—Add "1876" at the end of the article.
Page 74—Add "1880" at the end of the article.
Page 88—Add "1882" at the end of the article.
Page 121—For "invest" read "invests."
Page 170—For "hands" read "handz."
Page 170—For "d#r" read "dor."
Page 170—For "spün" read "spun."
Page 182—For "produced" read "produce."
Page 208—For "force is" read "force a."