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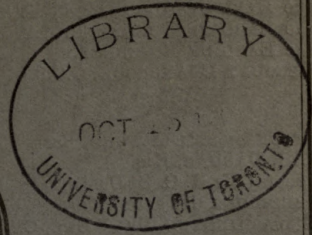
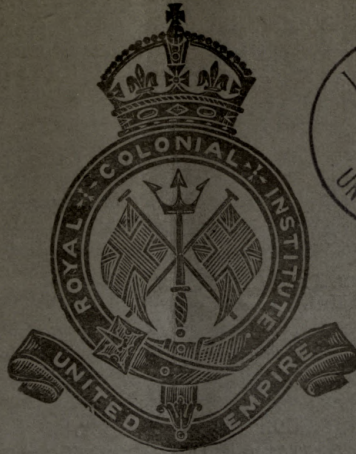
Session 1891-92

OF THE

# ROYAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE

(EDITED BY THE SECRETARY)

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There are two classes of Fellows (who must be British subjects), Resident and Non-Resident, both elected by the Council on the nomination of two Fellows, one of whom at least must sign on personal knowledge. The former pay an entrance fee of £3, and an annual subscription of £2; the latter an entrance fee of £1 1s., and an annual subscription of £1 1s. (which is increased to £2 when in the United Kingdom for three months). Resident Fellows can compound for the annual subscription by the payment of £20, or after five years' annual subscription on payment of £15; and Non-Resident Fellows can compound for the *Non-Resident* annual subscription on payment of £10.

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## JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE.

The Journal of the Royal Colonial Institute is an official record of the transactions of the Institute, published on the first of each month from December to July inclusive, in advance of and in addition to the annual volume of Proceedings, and contains reports of Papers and discussions, elections of Fellows, donations to the Library, notices of new books presented to the Library, and official announcements of the Institute.

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No. 7. SESSION 1891-92.

JUNE 1892.

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*All communications to be addressed to the Secretary, Royal Colonial Institute,  
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PROCEEDINGS.

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SEVENTH ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING.

THE Seventh Ordinary General Meeting of the Session was held at the Whitehall Rooms, Hôtel Métropole, on Tuesday, May 10, 1892.

Lieut.-General Sir W. F. Drummond Jervois, R.E., G.C.M.G., C.B., a Member of the Council of the Institute, presided.

Amongst those present were the following :—

SIR FREDERICK ABEL, K.C.B., MR. J. ALGER, MRS. T. J. ALLDRIDGE, SIR JAMES ANDERSON, MR. A. ARCHER, CAPTAIN AND MRS. W. ASHBY, MR. J. ASTLEFORD, MR. J. J. AUBERTIN, MR. F. R. AYERS, MR. P. AND MISS BADCOCK, MR. W. H. CLINTON BADDELEY, MR. J. BAGOT, MR. J. B. AND MISS BAILEY, MRS. BASING, MR. BATLEY, MR. H. H. BEAUCHAMP, MR. BEAUCHAMP, JUNR., MR. F. BEAUFORD, COMMANDER E. P. BEDWELL, R.N., MR. AND MRS. F. FAITHFULL BEGG, MISS BEGG, MR. E. BELLORD, MISS BENSON, MR. AND MRS. H. BERGAMIN, MR. AND MRS. C. BETHELL, MR. H. F. BILLINGHURST, MR. A. S. BIRCH, MR. ANDREW BLAIR, REV. W. E. BLYTHER, MR. W. W. BONNYN, MR. E. F. B. BOURNE, MR. R. W. BOURNE, MR. S. AND MISS E. BOURNE, MR. AND MRS. H. SCOTT BOYS, MR. R. B. BRETT, MR. H. J. BRISTOW, MR. AND MRS. C. E. BROADHURST, MISS BROADHURST, MISS K. BROADHURST, DR. A. M. BROWN, MR. J. D. BROWN, MISS M. MCBRYDE BROWN, MR. OSWALD BROWN, MR. PERCY BROWN, MR. AND MRS. S. B. BROWNING, MISS

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The Minutes of the last Ordinary General Meeting were read and confirmed, and it was announced that since that Meeting 17 Fellows had been elected, viz., 2 Resident and 15 Non-Resident.

Resident Fellows :—

*Thomas F. Rutledge, James A. Sellar.*

Non-Resident Fellows :—

*James Allwood (Jamaica), H. E. Barff (New South Wales), Dr. Ferdinand C. Batchelor (New Zealand), Hon. Henry Cuthbert, M.L.C. (Victoria), M. Theodore Dixon (Transvaal), Robert E. Hall (Transvaal), Petus J. Kotzé (Transvaal), Edward A. Maund (Mashonaland), Allan E. Messer (British Guiana), Thomas de Montmorenci Murray-Prior (Queensland), Robert R. Oliver (Queensland), F. Osborne (Lagos), Hon. A. J. Pell, M.L.C. (Lagos), William Stranack (Natal), Alfred F. Weaver (South Australia).*

It was also announced that donations to the Library of books, maps, &c., had been received from the various Governments of the Colonies and India, Societies, and public bodies both in the United Kingdom and the Colonies, and from Fellows of the Institute and others.

The CHAIRMAN then called upon Mr. Westby B. Perceval to read his Paper on—

## NEW ZEALAND.

## INTRODUCTION.

THE Royal Colonial Institute, under whose auspices we meet this evening, claims, and justly claims,

to promote the increase and diffusion of knowledge respecting the Colonies, and the preservation of a permanent union between the Mother Country and the various parts of the British Empire ;

in short, it is a society for the propagation of knowledge of the Empire.

No one who attends the monthly gatherings of this Institute, and listens to the various papers which are read, can fail to be impressed with the vastness, the wealth, and the mighty force of our great Empire, and to acknowledge the importance of making the inhabitants of each portion of that Empire better acquainted with the history, the people, and the resources of its constituent parts.

Distributed as that Empire is over the four quarters of the earth's surface, we find within her limits every climate, every variety of soil, every product ; so much so that the British Dominions can supply almost all the wants of every member of the Empire, without going outside her own possessions. What a glorious heritage, what a field for the energy, brains, muscle, and money of our people ! What an estate to develop ! And yet we see England allowing her people and her capital to go to foreign lands. Money almost fabulous in amount has been sunk in the Argentine, in Egypt, in Turkey, and in a hundred other places, and money has been lent whenever asked for to European nations to build machines of war, possibly to fight against and weaken each other, but also possibly to be used in warring against England herself. While this goes on, Canada, South Africa and Australasia have vast areas of fertile land crying out to be tilled and peopled. There our own kith and kin are waiting, as an advance guard, to welcome us ; there our own language, religious instincts and traditions coexist ; and there that liberty which is the characteristic of our glorious constitution has been transplanted. Yet we allow this vast estate to remain only very partially developed, letting most of it lie waste while a large portion of England's population is half-fed and half-clad. Statesmen spend their time in talking about model dwellings, compulsory insurance against poverty, in devising engines of war, and squabbling over the extent to which an island may be allowed to manage



her own affairs, to the exclusion of the larger questions of Imperial moment, which, once settled, would settle at the same time what appear now as problems defying solution.

From the discreditable indifference shown in the early part of this century to the miserable condition of our poor, we now bid fair to rush to the opposite extreme by supporting so-called philanthropic schemes, many of which, if carried out, would be a premium to improvidence and educate the people to a helpless leaning on the State as the universal provider. Given the land, labour, capital, intelligence and energy possessed by the British Empire, it is not to the credit of the statesmen and political economists of this enlightened century that such a large proportion of the people of the Empire should be in misery and want; not the want which must always exist as the legacy of crime, waste and improvidence, but the want which coexists with the desire to be thrifty and industrious, and the inability to get out of the ruck of poverty and misery. It is presumption for any one man to suppose that he can solve such a mighty problem; but, in my poor opinion, a condition precedent to the solution is a state of mind which regards the Empire as a whole, and which recognises the undeveloped resources and latent power of that Empire. Forgive me for expressing the opinion that English public men and Englishmen generally are too prone to consider questions from an English rather than from an Imperial point of view, hugging the erroneous idea that the British Isles are the British Empire. The chief work of this Institute is to educate the British public to a more intimate knowledge and higher appreciation of what has been aptly termed "Greater Britain," for it requires little penetration to see that the time is not far distant when the offspring will be more powerful than the parent, when the Colonies will be more populous, richer, and more important than the Mother Country.

My task to-night is to say something about a small, but nevertheless important, part of our Empire, a land which to know is to love—New Zealand.

It would be easy to write a paper more attractive than the one I am going to read to-night; but I shall not try to be either scientific, philosophical, or poetical. I feel I shall be prosaically practical, to such an extent, I fear, that I shall somewhat try your patience. I hardly think, however, that any apology is needed for the effort I make to render my paper useful to those who desire to make New Zealand their home. For convenience I shall divide what I have to say into three heads, viz. :—

1. New Zealand as a Place for the Safe Investment of British Capital.

2. New Zealand as a Home.

3. New Zealand as a Land of Wonder and Beauty.

With regard to the first point (New Zealand as a place for the safe investment of British capital), it is pleasing to note that the time has passed when New Zealand was pointed at as the spend-thrift Colony. She is now in the proud position of being regarded as a commendable example, illustrating what marvellous results economical administration and a policy of self-reliance can achieve. The Colony of New Zealand is an especially interesting study at the present juncture. History repeats itself, and New Zealand has been through a phase of economy and abstinence from borrowing which the other Colonies seem just about to enter. May the same happy results attend their efforts as have crowned hers! In New Zealand, in proportion as the Government of the Colony diminished public expenditure, so her people, being thrown on their own resources, turned their attention to the natural industries of the country. The result has been a marvellous impetus to land settlement—not the acquisition of large areas for speculative purposes which was seen during the expenditure of borrowed money, but the *bonâ fide* rooting of the people to the soil, and the consequent increase of the small farmer class. As a result of this increased settlement, and the steady attention paid in previous years to the development of our agricultural and pastoral industries, our exports during this period of trial have increased to a most gratifying extent, and the economy practised by individuals as well as by the Government has caused our imports to fall off, so that the value of our exports during this period has exceeded that of our imports by a large amount. The accompanying table shows the imports and exports during the last *five* years, and also the expenditure of borrowed money, and the amount of land settlement which took place during the same period.

	Total value of imports	Total value of exports	Expenditure of borrowed money	Land under cultivation	Total area of lands sold or otherwise disposed of by the Crown since com- mencement of the Colony
	£	£	£	Acres	Acres
1886	6,759,013	6,672,791	1,583,723	6,845,177	18,558,231
1887	6,245,515	6,866,169	1,572,786	7,284,752	18,914,371
1888	5,941,900	7,767,325	824,880	7,670,167	19,244,345
1889	6,308,863	9,341,864	515,058	8,015,426	19,378,511
1890	6,260,525	9,811,720	398,817	8,462,495	19,666,917

This table tells the whole story : the tapering off of the expenditure of borrowed money, the spread of settlement, the increase of production and the balance in hand after paying for the goods imported. The Colony has been weighed in the balance and *not* found wanting, and she has proved that her progress does not depend on having borrowed money to spend. Her public debt may be large, but her people are well able to bear the burden which the annual interest imposes, and every year, as population and production increase, that burden grows lighter. The test which is frequently applied, viz. of indebtedness per head of the population, is not as true a test as ability to pay.

Judged, however, by either test, New Zealand need not fear the result. In making a comparison between the respective indebtedness per head of the people of England and New Zealand, we must, if the comparison is to be fair, remember that the English National Debt does not include the indebtedness represented by the expenditure incurred in the construction of the railways, and other public works of the United Kingdom, for in the case of New Zealand a very large portion of her debt has been contracted for those purposes. The net public debt of New Zealand amounts to £37,359,157, which has been expended as follows :—

	£
On railways . . . . .	15,208,374
„ roads and bridges . . . . .	3,598,163
„ immigration . . . . .	2,145,150
„ public buildings (including schools) . . . . .	1,780,785
„ land purchases . . . . .	1,196,479
„ lighthouses, harbours and defence works . . . . .	881,818
„ telegraphs . . . . .	606,647
„ waterworks on goldfields . . . . .	561,101
„ coal mines and thermal springs . . . . .	25,171
„ native wars (previous to 1870), defence, provincial government expenditure (previous to abolition) &c. (approximate) . . . . .	10,000,000
Miscellaneous . . . . .	300,000
Unexpended . . . . .	1,053,248

It will be seen from the above table that, with the exception of the money spent over native wars, nearly the whole of the money New Zealand has borrowed has been spent in reproductive works. This is a fact that cannot be repeated too often, that whereas England and all European countries have expended a large portion of their public debt in wars, the Australasian Colonies have (with the exception of the money New Zealand has spent) expended nothing on war, but all in the construction of works either immediately or prospectively productive. So true is this, that I feel

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certain New Zealand could to-morrow sell her 1,842 miles of railway and 5,061 miles of telegraphs for a sum not far short of the whole of her public indebtedness.

It is needless to say such a course would be foolish in a new country where the railway system has to be used as an aid to settlement and means of development. New Zealand has shown that, without borrowed money, she can pay her way without putting too severe a strain on her people, and the wealth of the Colony, both public and private, is increasing so fast that no reasonable man can have a doubt as to her future.

The accumulated public and private wealth, and public and private indebtedness, may be expressed in a balance-sheet in something like the following form:—

*Assets and Liabilities of New Zealand on March 31, 1889.*

Real property:—	ASSETS.	
	£	£
Crown lands . . . . .	12,205,703	
Native lands . . . . .	5,790,366	
Education, church, municipal and other reserves . . . . .	8,933,415	
Real estate of persons and companies . . . . .	84,208,230	
	<hr/>	111,137,714
Personal property . . . . .		85,530,210
Public works:—		
Railways (cost price) . . . . .	14,875,187	
Telegraphs . . . . .	577,601	
Lighthouses . . . . .	153,255	
Buildings . . . . .	2,250,000	
Harbours . . . . .	3,000,000	
Water supply, goldfields . . . . .	509,996	
	<hr/>	21,366,039
		<hr/>
		218,033,963
		<hr/>
	LIABILITIES.	
Net public debt of the Colony . . . . .	35,680,143	
Debts of local bodies . . . . .	6,668,889	
Mortgages . . . . .	30,502,231	
Indebtedness exclusive of mortgages . . . . .	16,661,466	
	<hr/>	89,512,729
Surplus . . . . .		128,521,234
		<hr/>
		218,033,963
		<hr/>

*Note.*—No later figures than the above, which are taken from the property assessment returns for 1888, are obtainable.

## RECENT LEGISLATION.

This will be a fitting place to offer a few remarks on the recent legislation of the Colony. There should be no more interesting study for any politician or social reformer on this side the world than Colonial politics. Vested interests and old associations are so strong in this country, that it takes many years before a reform which may be almost universally approved can be carried out, whereas in the Colonies there are few impediments preventing the conversion of theories into practice. I am not sure that the rapidity and ease with which changes are effected in the Colonies is good ; but the political student should not quarrel with this ; for whether he regard them as reforms or fads, as a study they are none the less interesting. Then the Colonies, being far in advance of the Mother Country in the matter of the education of the people, and the intelligent interest taken in political and social questions, it may be surmised that the political opinions prevailing to-day in the Colonies provide an index of public opinion here twenty-five years hence. Most of the English papers have recently been loud in their denunciation of the policy pursued in the Colonies by what they term the "Labour Party." I use the term "Labour Party," because that is the term generally applied to men who have been chosen as representatives in Parliament from the ranks of the working men ; but, as far as New Zealand is concerned, it cannot be said that these men have ever tried to form themselves into a separate party, and they have always deprecated the notion that they exclusively represented any particular class. It has been assumed that the working men of the Colonies, under a franchise which is practically equivalent to universal suffrage, have commenced a political warfare against capital, and a reckless demand for the expenditure of large sums of borrowed money on public works. The most extravagant and wild statements have been made, and some papers have gone so far as to lead the public to believe that the New Zealand Government, driven *volens volens* by the Labour Party, is rushing on at galloping speed towards confiscation of private property and repudiation of the public debt. Such words as *confiscation* and *repudiation* do not exist in our Colonial political vocabulary, and I hope they will become obsolete here as applied to the Colonies. There is not a tittle of evidence to prove that the rights of *meum* and *tuum* are less religiously recognised in the Antipodes than here, and the standard of commercial morality is quite as high in the Colonies as in this country. But if Colonists

are not credited with honesty, at least credit them with common sense. The standard of intelligence is not lower in the Colonies than here, and the Colonials know full well that foreign capital is a necessity for the development of the resources of the Colonies and the profitable occupation of labour, and that to drive away capital or tax it unduly would be the most insane act that could possibly be committed.

It is a matter of general interest to note the demands of the so-called Labour Party in New Zealand. So far from the representatives, who are said to specially represent the workers, clamouring for the expenditure of borrowed money on public works, they have in New Zealand adopted quite a different policy. It is only fair to them to point out that they have hitherto been in the vanguard of those who have advocated retrenchment in Government expenditure, and they are generally strong opponents of further borrowing. This, as I said before, is contrary to the prevailing opinions formed here of the policy of the Labour Party, who are erroneously supposed to exert their influence in extravagant demands for public expenditure. The cardinal plank in the programme of these men in New Zealand is a demand that greater facilities shall be offered for enabling men to take up and settle on land. They hold that the public expenditure of the past has resulted in enriching individuals, but has not permanently improved the condition of the working man, and they demand, not public works expenditure, but economical administration with its corollary, reduced taxation and greater facilities for settling the waste lands of the Crown.

#### TAXATION.

The most important Act of the last session of the New Zealand Parliament is the Land and Income Assessment Act. This Act repeals the old Property Tax Act which has been in force in the Colony for many years, and imposes in its stead an Act which alters the incidence of taxation. The Property Tax was an Act which imposed a tax on the capital value of all property, whether productive or not, and irrespective of the return yielded by the property. The new Act imposes in place of the property-tax a land-tax and an income-tax to be levied on professional and other incomes not derived from landed property. The amount of the land-tax and income-tax will have to be fixed annually by an Act of Parliament. In addition to the ordinary land-tax there is a graded tax on the unimproved value of land, the grade commencing on properties over £5,000 in value. The scale of gradation is as follows:—

## Scale of Taxation.

	£	£	Penny in the £ sterling
Where the value is	5,000, and is less than	10,000 . . .	1 8
"	10,000, "	20,000 . . .	2 8
"	20,000, "	30,000 . . .	3 8
"	30,000, "	40,000 . . .	4 8
"	40,000, "	50,000 . . .	5 8
"	50,000, "	70,000 . . .	6 8
"	70,000, "	90,000 . . .	7 8
"	90,000, "	110,000 . . .	1
"	110,000, "	130,000 . . .	1 8
"	130,000, "	150,000 . . .	2 8
"	150,000, "	170,000 . . .	3 8
"	170,000, "	190,000 . . .	4 8
"	190,000, "	210,000 . . .	5 8
"	210,000, or exceeds that sum . . .		6 8

Under the Act, and in the debates in Parliament on the Bill will be found an endeavour to discriminate between capital invested in land, and capital in the form of money which is required to develop the resources of the Colony. An attempt is made to discourage the acquisition of land in large areas and its retention in an unimproved state in the hands of speculators for a rise in value, and to encourage the flow of capital into the Colony for developing the resources of the Colony. Thus the tax on mortgage-money and money invested otherwise than in land is in no case increased, and in most cases decreased, while large areas of unimproved land are taxed more than formerly, and an effort is made to regulate the tax on investments other than land according to the returns they yield to the investor: a more equitable basis than the hard-and-fast principle of the property-tax, which taxed all property on its capital value irrespective of the return it gave. By the exemption of improvements up to a certain value, and by the levying of the graded tax on the unimproved value only, the improved value of the land is less taxed than under the property-tax. Thus the farmer who has cleared, fenced and cultivated his land pays, in proportion to value, less taxation than the speculator who acquires a block of land and allows that land to lie idle, waiting until the improvements effected by his neighbours have increased the value of his property. The object in view, to relieve from taxation the farmer who by his thrift and industry has increased the value of his land, and to demand more from the speculator who does not improve, is justified on the ground that the one man may be compared to a working bee, labouring to add to the store of honey

in the State hive, and the other man to the drone doing no work, but consuming as much honey as the worker. In every case a property of less value than £500 pays no tax, and a further exemption up to the value of £3,000 is allowed on the value of all permanent improvements. It will be seen, therefore, that the small farmer is taxed very lightly indeed; in fact, he practically escapes altogether. When land is owned by permanent absentees, the State insists on their paying 20 per cent. more taxation than if they resided in the country. This may be an impolitic tax in this sense, that it produces very little revenue indeed, and is vexatious to a powerful and influential class, but the people of New Zealand, and I believe of the Colonies generally, regard with some apprehension the increasing number of landowners who leave their property in the hands of an agent, and spend their money on this side of the world instead of in the country where it is made for them. The tendency, in the case of all absentees, is to spend as little as possible on the property and get as much as possible out of it, a condition of things which is generally regarded as unsatisfactory, to say the least of it. It is important to bear in mind, however, that this absentee tax affects land only, and that the graded tax also affects land only, and both these taxes are based on the theory that the land of a country should be worked in the most productive manner, and that, if owners choose to retain land in their hands in an unimproved state, they should not object to make some compensation to the State. In this country the great bulk of taxation is raised by direct taxation on property, whereas in the Colony the bulk of the taxation is raised from Customs duties, and property contributes only a small proportion. New Zealand raises £1,625,000 from the Customs, but only £350,000 from the land- and the income-tax, and yet, remembering that no class of settlers in the Colony has been benefited by the expenditure of loan money more than has the landowner, a plausible argument might be made out that the bulk of the taxation should be contributed by that class of property. No attempt, however, has been made by the new Bill to increase the gross amount of taxation raised from property, but merely to alter the incidence. I readily admit that, in the case of individuals and companies who have become the unwilling owners of large estates by properties falling into their hands, the remedy is somewhat drastic; but the policy pursued by these individuals and companies in holding their land instead of realising has gone far to bring about the change they complain of. In 1890 there was in the hands of 255 companies and individuals 16,895,909 acres of land, and when it is considered that



the area of land in the Colony is limited, it is hardly to be wondered at that the people of the Colony became alarmed and insisted upon these companies and persons contributing a larger proportion of revenue. Even, however, in the case of large properties the exemption of improvements from the operation of the graded tax, and also the entire exemption of live stock and certain personal property, has so "tempered the wind to the shorn lamb," that, except in a few cases, the increased taxation is a mere bagatelle.

The other measures passed last session are a number of legislative enactments which go to prove that the influence of the Labour Party has not led to legislation exclusively in the interest of any particular class. So far from having any apprehension regarding the awakening of the masses of the people to their political power and responsibilities, I am pleased to bear testimony to the intelligence, earnest interest, and patriotic spirit evinced by the working men of the Colony in the public questions of the day.

A well-informed, studious working man is a much better representative than the class of politician too general in all countries—the leather-lunged, plausible demagogue who uses the working man in order to place himself on a pedestal; and any representation which brings the landowner, the commercial man, and the worker into closer contact one with the other cannot fail to effect the elimination of imaginary grievances and the fair consideration of real grievances.

The result of bringing the masses of the people, through workingmen representatives, into contact with men selected from other classes of the community is already producing good fruit in New Zealand. During the last session of Parliament a Bill to settle disputes between employers and employed, by the constitution of boards of conciliation, was introduced, but time for its consideration was not available, and a general desire is now evinced that some arrangement should be come to, to prevent the serious losses caused to all classes by "strikes" and "locks-out," whilst the passing of such Bills as the Factories Act goes to show that reasonable demands for the regulation of factories and improving the condition of the workers will always receive fair consideration. I believe that an amicable *modus vivendi* between the employers and employed will be arrived at in the New World before it is here, for the reasons that there is very little class hatred in the Colony, and both employers and employed are now prepared to approach the consideration of the subject with a recognition that capital and labour owe duties one to the other, and that the rights of each must be settled by justice rather than might. In this way the presence

in our Parliaments of the *bonâ fide* working-man has been productive of great good. The better moral atmosphere and honest toil of Colonial life with a Parliament composed of the representatives of every class is, in my mind, the surest guarantee for wise and well-considered legislation, and the best security for a true recognition of the rights of property. In these days of political unrest the British capitalist should rejoice in having places like the Colonies to turn to, where he can rest assured his property will be respected. There are extreme men, no doubt, in the Colonies, just as there are extreme men here, but these men do not represent the opinions of the Colonies any more than extreme men here represent the opinions of the people of England.

The great future for New Zealand consists in the varied resources of the Colony. As an agricultural and pastoral country she stands second to none, as her yields of wool, sheep, grain, fruit, and dairy produce per acre abundantly testify. When you turn to her mines it is impossible to predict their wealth. We have already exported nearly £50,000,000 of gold, and at the present time more capital and labour are being expended in gold-mining in New Zealand than at any previous period of our history. Our coal-beds are magnificent, and practically inexhaustible. A great trade in timber is in store for us, and our splendid fisheries await development. Our manufactures have grown to an extent which seems to justify the belief that New Zealand will become the manufacturing centre of the Southern Seas.

The table on next page shows the number of the principal industries at the end of 1890, the number of hands employed, the amount of wages paid to them, the estimated value of capital invested in land, buildings, machinery, and plant, and the value of the products or manufactures in that year.

It will be seen, therefore, that the Colony does not keep all her eggs in one basket, but that every branch of industry is receiving its fair share of attention. This variety in the industries and resources of the Colony is one of the strongest evidences of her future greatness. I fear I have dwelt rather too long on this branch of my subject, but I hope I have said enough to show that the colony presents a favourable field for the investment of British capital, and I now turn to consider New Zealand as a place of residence.

Nature of industry	Number of each kind	Number of hands employed	Amount paid in wages	Estimated value of land, buildings, machinery, and plant	Estimated value of produce and manufactures in 1890
			£	£	£
Printing, &c., establishments . . . . .	142	2,569	214,185	341,683	354,559
For machines, tools, and implements . . . . .	43	556	46,887	76,783	148,364
Coach-building and painting . . . . .	108	678	52,601	96,225	139,660
Tanning, fellmongering, and wool scouring . . . . .	104	1,196	92,442	153,592	1,026,349
Ship- and boat-building . . . . .	37	145	10,831	10,172	35,847
Sail and oilskin factories . . . . .	32	124	6,335	16,799	31,083
Furniture factories . . . . .	94	585	42,743	96,543	131,314
Chemical works . . . . .	8	55	5,754	23,766	41,568
Woollen mills . . . . .	8	1,175	79,040	259,955	279,175
Clothing factories . . . . .	19	1,290	52,754	59,735	166,579
Hat and cap factories . . . . .	16	112	6,276	26,005	21,628
Boot and shoe factories . . . . .	47	1,943	124,990	82,137	403,736
Rope- and twine-works . . . . .	24	222	13,658	36,086	76,711
Flax-mills . . . . .	177	3,204	116,168	146,792	234,266
Meat-preserving, freezing, and boiling-down works . . . . .	43	1,568	138,459	476,151	1,464,659
Bacon-curing establishments . . . . .	33	84	6,696	14,180	83,435
Cheese and butter factories . . . . .	74	269	14,928	100,453	150,957
Grain-mills . . . . .	129	499	52,384	391,828	991,812
Biscuit factories . . . . .	22	331	17,199	48,960	127,147
Fruit-preserving and jam-making works . . . . .	15	117	4,742	10,042	27,255
Breweries . . . . .	102	476	54,825	236,825	66,764
Malthouses . . . . .	27	87	7,875	42,442	80,341
Aërated-water factories . . . . .	112	261	17,021	73,147	91,691
Coffee- and spice-works . . . . .	17	81	6,562	30,850	64,024
Soap- and candle-works . . . . .	19	209	21,394	74,443	155,714
Saw-mills . . . . .	243	3,266	271,814	500,272	832,959
Chaff-cutting establishments . . . . .	63	205	7,330	36,300	41,455
Gas-works . . . . .	27	249	31,700	730,490	178,947
Brick-, tile-, and pottery-works . . . . .	106	494	25,190	119,780	56,830
Iron and brass foundries . . . . .	68	1,727	152,687	262,042	390,943
Spouting- and ridging-works . . . . .	12	100	7,981	29,670	33,140
Gold- and quartz-mining-works . . . . .	135	1,971	183,582	241,715	278,893
Hydraulic gold-mining and gold-dredging . . . . .	74	495	32,904	154,270	73,713
Collieries . . . . .	95	1,655	173,538	155,671	279,777
Other industries . . . . .	295	1,881	117,415	671,172	860,851
Totals . . . . .	2,570	29,880	2,209,859	5,826,976	9,422,146

## NEW ZEALAND AS A HOME.

An old-established country must necessarily afford more attractions to the moneyed and leisure classes than any new country can. Men of luxurious tastes and those engaged in scientific, literary, or artistic pursuits naturally flock to centres where luxury can be enjoyed, and where science, literature, and art abound. To such as these a Colony offers fewer attractions as a place of permanent residence. The number of those, however, who can give free scope to the pursuit of pleasure, science, literature or art is necessarily a very small proportion of the total population. Commercial men, again, have their *locale* fixed by circumstances. But there is a large class who have a fixed though moderate income with a growing family, many of whom, finding their income insufficiently elastic in England, go to the Continent, where they can live in a style they would not care to live in in England, and where education for their children is cheap. Such as these might well turn their attention to New Zealand as a place of residence preferable to Europe. There they would find a society congenial to their English ideas, there they would find excellent and cheap schools, and there their sons and daughters would have a much better chance of finding an outlet for their energy. When people like these think of the Colony—if, indeed, they ever think of it at all—they picture it probably as it was forty years ago, when gentlemen wore blue shirts and wideawakes, drove bullocks, and lived on damper and mutton, and when ladies did their own housework and wore antediluvian garments. All is now changed. Fifty years of work and progress have converted the plains into smiling homesteads, and built up towns which have all the modern conveniences and social life of English provincial towns. Let us go in imagination to Christchurch, which I know best, and take a bird's-eye view from the top of the beautiful spire of its cathedral. It is now half-past eight to-morrow morning—a clear, bright, sunny autumnal morning, the most enjoyable season of the year, when slight frosts at night are succeeded by still, warm, sunny days, making the already bronzed leaves of the English oak, sycamore, lime and birch linger on the trees, protesting against nature's mandate for a season of rest. The thoroughfares are full of healthy, well-dressed children on their way to the various schools, where they get at the Board schools a free education of at least as good a standard of excellence as the English Board schools provide. Older boys and girls are going to the various High Schools and Colleges. Busses, trains, and trams, loaded with men going to

business, pass at our feet. The well-made streets show shop windows which would not do discredit to any provincial town in England. Warehouses, business premises, halls, theatres, churches, clubhouses and public buildings pass under review.

Here and there a long chimney tells of a factory. In and out winds the beautiful River Avon, the fine willows on the banks, raised from a branch brought from St. Helena, still clad in their summer shroud of green. There is Hagley Park, with its noted museum, and Christ's College close by. Beyond stretch the suburbs with their comfortable houses and lovely gardens. Pause a moment before some of these gardens and note how exquisite are the autumn roses, all heavy with the morning dew; how gorgeous the chrysanthemums and dahlias; how lovely the geraniums and the masses of many-tinted blooms, scattered so profusely in all directions. Look at the smooth well-kept tennis lawns, the neatly gravelled walks, the shining river with its moored boat waiting quietly for its daily occupants. Then turn and look away over there through the trees—look right across the vast Canterbury plains, where, in days of old, the Maori coursed the moa, but which is now one of the richest agricultural districts in the world. This is where the celebrated Canterbury frozen mutton comes from, and the rivers which traverse this large plain are teeming with the finest trout. Let your eye travel further still, till it falls on one of the grandest sights in nature—the majestic Southern Alps, which even now are wrapt in a white and glistening mantle of snow. Tell me, is not this a fair scene? Is it not as sweet and fresh as any in the dear old land you all love so well? Could you not well imagine you were looking at an English landscape under an Italian sky! Yes! England's life is reproduced under a bluer sky and in a finer climate, and you would be quite at home at once. This is what the Canterbury pilgrims have done!

Behold their work, revere their names,  
 Green pictures set in golden frames,  
 Around the city of the stream  
 Fulfil the pilgrims' brightest dream:  
 With them a fairer England grew  
 'Neath speckless skies of sunny blue.

T. BRACKEN.—*Musings in Maoriland.*

But we will descend from our lofty point of vantage and walk into the public library close by and look through the various daily papers and periodicals kept in the free reading-room. You will see under the head of "Cablegrams," in the morning paper, yesterday's

European news, and quite possibly you will read a few unfavourable comments on the very paper I am reading to you now. You will find an intelligent criticism offered upon the political and social topics of the Old and New World. Turn over the files; you will find records of cricket, tennis, boating, golf, cycling, horse-racing, polo, coursing, bowls, football, hunting, shooting and fishing enough to convince you that the pastimes of the Old World are reproduced. And so, as you turn over the pages of the papers, you will meet with evidence after evidence proving that the people of the Colony are, in every sense, sons and daughters of Britain.

I often hear people in England, Londoners especially, when talking of English life, say: "Oh! here we are in the very midst of the very best the world can produce. Whether it be literature, or art, or scientific pursuits, or music, or refined society, or whatever form of enjoyment we seek, we can get it." This is, of course, very true, and may apply to the men of means and to the comparatively few artists and scientific men; but what share in this select society has the man with a limited income and a family to support?—Very, very little. The fact is, that the great majority of such people lead the most humdrum and isolated lives imaginable, and get very much less enjoyment, even scientific enjoyment, than they would get in a British Colony. A friend of mine possessing a small income, large family, and bronchial tubes which make it necessary for him to spend most of the winter within the four walls of his house in London, said to me the other day, in reply to a query of mine as to why he did not transfer his bronchial tubes and his family to New Zealand: "Why, London is the centre of all that makes life worth living." "Very true," I replied, "but not for you." When I pressed my friend, who always poses as a great lover of art and music, to tell me how much art and music he had enjoyed during the last six months, he replied: "Let me see! Ah well! I have been to the Royal Academy Exhibition, and I have been to a music-hall to hear 'Ta-ra-ra-boom-de-ay.'" That is, I believe, a fair sample of the way very many with artistic tastes, real or imaginary, are prevented by the want of means, by the accident of climate, or by their surroundings from taking advantage of the many good things this country provides.

#### FIXED INCOMES.

I have no hesitation in stating that an income of from £300 to £1,000 a year in New Zealand goes further and produces more enjoyment for its possessor than the same income does here. The

necessaries of life are nearly all much cheaper, house rent no dearer, and although servants' wages are higher, it is not necessary to keep so many, the habits of the people being more simple and less conventional.

Hospitality is met with at every turn, and there is no lack of entertainments and social gatherings. The young people especially, of both sexes, seem to enjoy life. Business and working hours being shorter, there is time left after the duties of the day for recreation. Thus English sport and pastimes are everywhere met with, enjoyed by all classes, and not so frequently spoilt by bad weather as in this country.

New Zealand now offers some of the best trout-fishing in the world, I saw a report the other day of the last season which contained the following record of one fisherman for a season :—

“ One hundred and eighty fish, weighing 553½ lbs. ; average, 3 lbs. 10 oz. ; largest fish, 10½ lbs. ; 6 weighed from 9½ to 10½ lbs. each. Best takes : 12 fish, 41½ lbs. ; 11, 50½ lbs. ; 10, 46 lbs. ; 15, 33½ lbs. ; 5, 25 lbs. ; 3, 20½ lbs. ; 5, 25¼ lbs.”

Another record given is 229 fish, 212 lbs., 17 trips.

Deer are increasing so fast in some of the open mountainous country that we shall soon add good deer-stalking. Wild pigs abound, but they frequent such rough ground that they must be hunted on foot, which seems to damp the ardour of most English sportsmen. Quail shooting is good and plentiful, and duck and pheasant shooting is good in certain parts. There are many districts with their packs of harriers, and in some of the better settled districts, hunting is indulged in with much zest. Horseflesh and horse-keep being cheap, whatever sport there is can be enjoyed at a much less cost than similar recreations in this country. The man of leisure can also, if he is willing, find plenty of useful occupations. There is magisterial work, and, if he be so inclined, there is political work.

With the increase of population, and the growth of a leisured class, musical and artistic talent is being developed, and all the chief towns have now their musical and scientific societies, clubs, and art galleries. New Zealand spends probably more in education in proportion to her population than any country in the world. The Government Primary Schools are all free, and every little country district has its good school. A step above the primary schools are Girls' High Schools and Boys' High Schools, where excellent teaching is given, at a very small annual cost, and after the High Schools come the various University Colleges, established in the

larger towns. Last of all comes the New Zealand University, which is an examining board with an affiliation of the various University colleges. The New Zealand University confers degrees on men and women alike. There is also an excellent Agricultural College, and there are Schools of Mines and Arts. There are many excellent private schools for both boys and girls. No one, in fact, whatever his condition in life, need complain of the means afforded in New Zealand for the education of his children. Is it too much, therefore, to claim for New Zealand that it is a country which demands the consideration of that yearly increasing class of men who, with small fixed incomes or a small capital, find this country too damp or too expensive to live in, and want to marry their daughters and settle their sons, and enjoy the remainder of their lives in a good climate and under enjoyable surroundings?

#### SMALL FARMERS.

The class of people, however, to whom New Zealand offers the most inducements is the small farmer class. The Colony seems in every way cut out by nature for a community of small farmers. There are, and always will be, in certain parts large holdings, for the simple reason that the character and situation of some of the land are such that small areas will not support a family in comfort; but the greater portion of the land is eminently fitted for close farming. The fertile soil, abundant water supply, and the fact that no part of New Zealand is beyond easy reach of a harbour on the coast, are all conditions ensuring the success of the small farmer. Before considering the special advantages offered by New Zealand to this class, it will be well to say a little about—

#### THE LAND LAWS OF THE COLONY.

The chief characteristic of the New Zealand land laws is that they give the selector an option of acquiring land under a variety of tenures. There is the *cash payment*, giving the purchaser the out-and-out freehold; there is the *deferred payment* system, which enables a man to pay for the land and acquire the freehold by half-yearly payments of principal and interest extending over a period of years; and there is the *perpetual lease*, or a lease for a term of years with a perpetual right of renewal.

Until the last few years the greater portion of the lands of the Colony which have been disposed of by the Crown have been sold under the freehold system. Of late years, however, the tenure



known as the "perpetual lease" has been introduced, and that is the tenure which now finds most favour with the persons who take up land. By securing to lessees the value of their improvements under an indefeasible title, with perpetual rights of renewal, they have all the security and permanence of a freehold tenure without being obliged to sink their capital in the purchase of the land. This enables a man with a small capital to take up land and keep his capital intact for improving and stocking his farm. The rental he pays is fixed at 5 per cent. on a low capital value of the land, so that a tenant under this system has all the advantages of enjoying the land at a low rental, and knowing that the improvements he makes will not be for the benefit of any person other than himself. If at the end of the term the tenant does not care to renew, the incoming tenant has to pay to the outgoing tenant the value of all improvements of a permanent character, as fixed by arbitration. If, on the other hand, the original lessee elects to accept a fresh lease he pays a rental of 5 per cent. on the then value of the land after deducting the value of the permanent improvements he has made during his term. The lessee, therefore, and not the Crown or landlord, gets the benefit of all permanent improvements which have been placed on the land during his term. There are certain stipulations under this tenure providing for the improvement of the land, but there is no restriction on the tenant selling his interest so long as the required conditions are complied with. For those intending to take up Crown land this form of tenure seems to present many advantages, especially to the settler with small means.

A very important feature in the New Zealand land laws is the regulations providing for the farm homestead associations and village homesteads. Now that the question of assisting the working classes to obtain small holdings of land is receiving so much attention in England, it may be of interest to state shortly the salient features of these homestead settlements. Every effort has been made in New Zealand to induce the labouring classes to obtain possession of small blocks of land. In every country there is a period of the year when the labour market is slack, and when men, unless they have a piece of land attached to their homes, are idle; and the desirability of providing labourers with a plot of land the cultivation of which enables spare time to be utilised, and at the same time provides so much food for the family, is receiving almost universal recognition.

The Colony of New Zealand has from time to time set apart certain blocks of land which have been cut up into these village

settlements and offered to the working classes. The terms are of a most liberal character. The rent is very small indeed, there are no preliminary expenses to the occupant, and the settler need not pay any rent for the first two years. Married men have a preference over single men, and an advance of £10 is made towards assisting in the erection of a dwelling. There are, of course, very stringent regulations insisting on the land being improved, and no money is advanced towards building a cottage until value for more than the amount of the advance has been placed on the land. These village settlements are, as far as possible, placed in country districts where there is a demand for labour, so that the settler can take advantage of work when it offers. The area of these allotments varies from five to fifty acres, according to the nature of the soil.

These village settlements have been a great success, and the means of providing frugal but comfortable homes for a large number who would otherwise have left the Colony. Three conditions are necessary if success is to be assured: *First*, in the selection of applicants who have some aptitude for rural life; *secondly*, the selection of land of good quality for the settlement; and, *thirdly*, the selection of a locality for the settlement in a neighbourhood where some labour can be obtained. An extension of this system has lately been inaugurated under which farm homesteads can be acquired. The principle is the same, but the area of land is increased, and during the last eighteen months a number of homestead associations on the co-operative principle have been started.

#### CO-OPERATIVE SETTLEMENT.

The advantage of forming co-operative associations is, that a whole block of land—not more than 11,000 or less than 1,000 acres—can be at once taken up, whereas in the case of individual applications, if there is more than one application for any particular lot, the allotment is made by ballot. The number of persons forming an association must not be less than twenty-five. I would here offer the suggestion that these regulations for associated settlement provide a means under which people from this country can take up land most advantageously. Individuals often hesitate to face unaided the uncertainties attaching to a new life, and more often their experience is insufficient to justify the new departure; whereas an aggregation of twenty-five men form a detachment which, if care is taken in their selection, will ensure the presence of experience, judgment, and some capital. Many a father, who would hesitate

to trust his son alone, would give two or three hundred pounds to form one of twenty-five, amongst whom would be found men of sound judgment and experience. A band of twenty-five men would form also quite a colony, and however remote their block of land might be from centres of civilisation, they would be a little community in themselves. If the association were formed of married men with families they would be at once entitled to demand a Government school, at which the children get free education. It is often an advantage that such settlements should be in remote districts, for there is generally work to be done in the neighbourhood in the form of making roads, which provides the settlers with the means of earning a little money during the first two years while the land is being brought into profit. There is always plenty of land in the hands of private owners who are willing to sell and lease, so that if a settler chooses to acquire land from private individuals rather than from the Crown he will have no difficulty in doing so. In many cases it is better for a man with a little capital and experience to take land from private owners rather than from the Crown, as he has a larger field to choose from, and by acquiring an improved farm he gets an immediate return, instead of having to wait until the rough Crown land is rendered productive.

There is a good demand in the Colony for land suitable for varied farming, but there is also an indication that those who hold large properties are anxious to place them in the market.

The price of land offered for sale by private owners varies according to locality and quality. In country districts fair agricultural land can be bought at from 5*l.* to 8*l.* per acre, land of prime quality reaching higher figures. In the neighbourhood of the large towns the price of land is much higher.

Enough has been said, I think, to show that New Zealand is no place for clerks, and soft-handed men unfit for hard manual labour, or for men without capital and training in any walk of life, who are often sent out to the colonies because they have failed at home. Such as these invariably go from bad here to worse in the Colonies. There is a demand for good female domestic servants, and high wages are obtainable, but the Government having ceased to contribute towards the cost of passage money, they must pay their own passage.

#### PRODUCTS AND MARKETS.

Now a little about the products and markets of New Zealand. Nothing requires to be said about wool, grain, flax, or frozen meat.

These are well-established industries. Here is a table of the chief articles of export during the last ten years:—

*Exports of New Zealand Produce.*

Year	Wool	Gold	Frozen meat	Butter and cheese	Agricultural produce	Manufactures	Other N. Z. produce	Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1881	2,909,760	996,867	—	14,608	1,089,739	87,321	663,955	5,762,250
1882	3,118,554	921,664	19,339	62,218	1,169,020	121,447	841,108	6,253,350
1883	3,014,211	892,445	118,328	48,912	1,537,015	121,446	1,122,887	6,855,244
1884	3,267,527	988,953	345,090	91,667	968,517	104,425	1,176,307	6,942,486
1885	3,205,275	890,056	373,857	138,129	688,415	120,539	1,175,640	6,591,911
1886	3,072,971	939,648	427,193	151,194	688,804	109,656	997,216	6,386,682
1887	3,321,074	747,878	455,870	109,483	588,022	124,382	1,204,372	6,551,081
1888	3,115,098	914,309	628,800	197,170	905,907	233,383	1,260,461	7,255,128
1889	3,976,375	785,490	783,374	213,945	1,424,297	569,880	1,288,647	9,042,008
1890	4,150,599	751,360	1,087,617	207,687	1,289,864	547,947	1,393,687	9,428,761

The steady growth of these products has placed New Zealand in the proud position of being a country every member of whose population exports £15 3s. 5d. worth of produce. As I am speaking of New Zealand as a home for small farmers, I shall refer but briefly to some of the products of small farming, viz. dairy produce, fruit growing, bee culture and poultry rearing, as time will not permit me to do more, but a perusal of the table I have supplied of food products imported into the English markets will suggest many other directions in which the farmer's energy might be profitably devoted. The bare mention of such occupations suggests health, happiness and plenty, and this country provides what for all practical purposes is an inexhaustible market. Look at the amount this country paid for importations of these products in the year 1891, and you will then, I think, be satisfied that there is plenty of room for all New Zealand can produce, and if at the same time you realise how favourable are the conditions for the production of most of these articles, you will want nothing more to satisfy you of the glorious future in store for the Colony.

*Values of the following Articles of Food imported into England during 1891.*

	£		£
Live stock . . . . .	9,246,398	Eggs . . . . .	3,520,918
Bacon . . . . .	6,650,324	Lard . . . . .	1,720,051
Beef (fresh) . . . . .	4,038,487	Corn : Wheat . . . . .	29,448,204
Hams . . . . .	2,791,437	Flour . . . . .	10,184,887
Meat (preserved) . . . . .	1,888,067	Barley . . . . .	5,941,833
Mutton (fresh) . . . . .	3,282,001	Oats . . . . .	5,475,734
Pork (salted and fresh) . . . . .	599,657	Peas . . . . .	862,427
Fish (cured or salted) . . . . .	1,993,347	Beans . . . . .	1,206,916
Butter . . . . .	11,591,181	Indian corn . . . . .	8,411,763
Margarine . . . . .	3,558,203	Potatoes . . . . .	1,196,824
Cheese . . . . .	4,815,369		

The following additional articles are taken from the returns of 1890.

		£	£
Fruit: <i>Raw</i> :—			
Nuts . . . . .	600,936	Honey . . . . .	41,321
Almonds . . . . .	352,154	Hops . . . . .	877,704
Apples . . . . .	786,072	Condensed milk . . . . .	847,625
Oranges and lemons	1,756,852	Nuts and kernels for oil . . . . .	603,569
Unenumerated . . . . .	1,806,811	"    "    (not fruit) . . . . .	22,000
<i>Dried or Preserved</i> :—		Onions . . . . .	724,020
Currants . . . . .	1,346,810	Pickles and vegetables in salt or vinegar . . . . .	133,996
Raisins . . . . .	1,006,898	Vegetables, raw, unenu- merated . . . . .	773,590
Plums and Prunes, &c. . . . .	112,155	Poultry and game . . . . .	497,857
Figs and Fig cake . . . . .	231,969	Rabbits . . . . .	398,110
Unenumerated . . . . .	397,289		
<i>Preserved without     sugar (probably     canned and bottled)</i>	269,184	Total . . . . .	£132,010,950

#### DAIRY PRODUCE.

The remote distance of New Zealand from these markets is a matter of less moment than appears at first sight. Refrigerators and cool chambers have put her on an equal footing with places no further off than France and Denmark. The extra freight, also, is not nearly as much of a handicap as one would at first be led to suppose. The conditions for producing are so much more favourable in New Zealand than in Europe that they more than counterbalance these disadvantages. The fact of the seasons in New Zealand being reversed, and the opposite of the seasons in the Northern Hemisphere, enables us to land our produce here at the very time when the conditions for production on this side of the world are most unfavourable, and, in the case of fruit and honey, prohibitive, and when as a consequence prices are high. The old British ideas, however, of dairying and fruit growing are being improved on in New Zealand, and more must be done in the way of improved production before New Zealand can take a large share of the money this country pays for these articles. The Danes have taught us how to make butter, the Americans to grow and preserve fruit, and the French to raise poultry and produce honey. The old practice of the farmer's wife and daughters making up the butter has now to give place to the cream separator, the steam-engine, and the factory. If anyone doubts the wisdom of this, let him compare the prices obtained for the New Zealand butter which has been made by the old system and the price obtained for factory-made butter.

The following extracts from the last annual report of the Chief Government Dairy Inspector of New Zealand show what is being done and can be done in the dairy industry in the Colony :—

While the dairying industry has not yet developed into anything like the importance it is destined to assume, I think we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that during the past two years a considerable forward movement has been made, more especially during the past year. I have myself been repeatedly complimented from various sources for what was perhaps undeserved, benefits received from my instruction, not only from dairy-factory operatives but from merchants dealing in the commodity. Notwithstanding the fact that some of our dairy-factory companies have had to succumb through financial difficulties, and some, through mismanagement, even forced into liquidation, still the future of our outlook is very hopeful. A more practical acquaintance with the nature and the handling of milk and its products on the part of factory-managers, and a better knowledge of commercial principles on the part of the managing committees of the factories, will inevitably secure our desired ends. This can only be brought about by continued steady instruction, combined with experience attained in the actual working of dairy factories. The complete revolution necessary in the industry cannot be effected in a day, but changes must be made by degrees. But that the industry is being founded on a more certain basis there can no longer be any room for further doubt.

From communications received from some of the principal London brokers, I learn that they recognise a marked and sustained improvement in the quality of both cheese and butter shipments of recent manufacture; at the same time, they express the opinion that finality in the matter of improvement has not yet been reached. The chief complaint among the London brokers is the absence of uniformity, and this cannot easily be remedied while there is throughout the Colony such an extensive system of private dairying at work. Uniformity cannot easily be engendered without the establishment of the factory system. It is worthy of note that several of our dairy factories have now earned a desirable distinction in the London market for the quality of their products—both butter and cheese. Brands of butter which were last year quoted at from £1 10s. to £2 under the Danish brands have, during the past season, been quoted at about the highest figures realised on the London market. Cheese from our best factories has successfully competed with the best Canadian brands, which seem to dominate the market. But, unfortunately, this distinction is only earned by a few of our best factories. Towards showing the benefits derived from the factory system as compared with individual dairying, it is satisfactory to note that, out of an even line of three shipments of butter sent home, the factory brands realised from £5 15s. to £6 3s., while that from private dairies brought from £4 15s. to £5 15s. The higher quotations must be considered satisfactory.

It is also pleasing to note the rapid development which the dairy industry has undergone during the last ten years. In 1880 the value of our exports of dairy products was £1,033, while for 1890 the value rose to £207,687, and I am sanguine that the past season's export will show,

from the same amount of produce, a considerable increase in pecuniary value. I hope, by future efforts, to see a still brisker trade established, so that the settlers may derive a benefit, and find some solace for past losses.

It is generally conceded that no country possesses greater natural advantages for dairy pursuits than New Zealand; this, at any rate, is true of Taranaki. Any one acquainted with the large areas of splendid pasture-land in Taranaki must have had the conviction forced upon him that this locality is pre-eminently fitted to become a great centre for manufacturing dairy products. In soil, climate, seasons, and settlement Taranaki has every natural advantage. Winter pasturage is generally abundant, and so the farmer is, to a great extent, relieved of the labour and expense of storing up much winter food. Little or no housing is required for the cattle throughout the winter, and so the farmer can carry on his business under the most favourable circumstances, as very little of the profits of the season are consumed in maintaining the cows from one season to another. At the same time I have endeavoured to impress upon the farmers of this district the desirability of growing a little winter feed, likewise the benefits of some better means of shelter during the cold season.

Like many other zealous advocates for the extension of dairy farming in New Zealand, and reform in dairy practices, I place exclusive reliance upon the establishment of the factory system as being the only means whereby the ultimate success of the industry can be assured. What the refrigerator has done for the grazier, cheese factories and creameries will do for the dairy farmer if properly carried out. What would the frozen-meat trade be to-day if every farmer could refrigerate his own produce and trifle with it according to his own peculiar notions, as he does at the present time with his dairy produce? Were there not such a division of labour in the frozen-meat trade it would, in my opinion, very swiftly come to ruin. The dairying industry, like the frozen-meat trade, has many features peculiar to it which seem to characterise it in a general way from almost any other known industry. The advantages of a well-organised system of co-operative dairying to all the dairy districts of New Zealand would be difficult to estimate. Such a system, if properly governed, would, in my opinion, solve many of the difficulties which now beset the small farmer. Co-operative dairying is a matter fraught with benefit to all.

Towards showing the present extent of the factory system, it is gratifying to be able to show that there are now sixty-two large cheese and butter factories in operation, the buildings and plant showing an aggregate value of upwards of £70,000.

Some of the cheese factories are now turning out from 100 to 160 tons of cheese annually, and the butter factories and creameries 50 to 140 tons of butter annually.

The industry is now assuming dimensions which justify the belief that

we have at last succeeded in establishing it as one of our most important industries. I am of opinion that in a few years hence, if a systematic course of instruction is pursued, New Zealand, taking all things into consideration, will be as eminent in the manufacture of dairy produce as any of the American or European nations. I believe it will yet become a successful rival to the frozen-meat and wool trade, and, as a means of employing labour and maintaining a large population, it will be superior to either.

It is not to be supposed that the change now being made in favour of the factory system is opposed to the interest of the small farmer. He, on the contrary, reaps a greater benefit by selling his cream to the creamery erected in his neighbourhood than by himself converting the cream into butter. The farmers themselves are encouraged to co-operate for the purpose of having an interest in the butter factory. There is already a factory in the Colony for making condensed milk, and the article produced is equal to the best Swiss milk. We have not yet succeeded in making tinned butter, in which the Italians so excel, and do such a large trade, but that will come in time.

#### FRUIT.

The varied climate of the Colony enables fruit to be grown to great advantage. In the Auckland province we have a semi-tropical climate which enables oranges, lemons, figs, olives, grapes, &c., to be easily grown, while the cooler climate of the south is more suitable to the fruit-trees grown in England. All the best sorts of fruit-trees, both for the production of hard and soft fruit, are well established in the Colony, and nothing is being left undone to push this industry forward. Our fruit can be landed here and in America at a time when fruit is not in season in the Northern Hemisphere. The prices obtained for recent shipments of apples from New Zealand prove that it will pay well to grow apples for shipment to this market.

In order to grow fruit to the greatest advantage, the fruit-growers should have means at hand to irrigate during dry seasons, and this question of irrigation is receiving considerable attention at the present time throughout the Australasian Colonies.

If we want to obtain an example of what one country has done by irrigation, let us take California.

The following figures, taken from the report of the Board of Trade, will convey some idea of the progress made in the development of her horticultural exports from lands mostly reclaimed from



desert by means of irrigation during the seven years ending 1889 :—

	1883	1889
Green fruits . . . . .	20,675,730 lbs.	70,864,610 lbs.
Dried fruits . . . . .	3,329,460 „	33,312,050 „
Canned fruits . . . . .	28,488,770 „	39,313,740 „
Raisins . . . . .	344,050 „	17,570,485 „

The Californian orchards pay the growers from £30 to £80 an acre, and there is no reason why, in a few years' time, New Zealand orchards should not do the same. Together with the rapid extension of the area of 27,000 acres now devoted to fruit-culture and market-gardens, the people of the Colony are now erecting manufactories for canning, preserving, and pickle making. It is claimed that the process of extracting the water out of the fruit and vegetables by means of a machine known as the "Evaporator" is destined to work a revolution in the preservation of fruit and vegetables. This process takes out the water contained in the fruit and vegetables, and it is asserted that as soon as they are soaked in cold water they are, after cooking, almost equal in flavour to fresh. The bulk and weight are considerably reduced in the process of evaporation, so that the freight of the preserved article is much less. This process and other processes for preserving fruit and vegetables are being tested in the Colony. I am not able to give you the results arrived at in the Colony, but I have made some extracts from an article by Mr. Dan. Pidgeon in Volume xxiv. of the *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society of England*, showing the growth of the fruit-drying industry in the United States.

Throughout twelve of the most fertile counties of Western New York, the cultivation of fruit, especially of apples, has, within fifteen years, superseded that of every other crop. The orchard products of New York State were valued at nearly \$9,000,000 in 1880, the last census year, and will probably be worth far more in 1890. The greater part of these apples are grown around Rochester, where, within a radius of forty miles, nearly 2,000 fruit-drying establishments are now in operation.

Only by the aid of these "evaporators" could such a condition of cultivation as that now prevailing in the district under review be maintained.

Thousands of tons of apples are prepared annually from grades of fruit formerly wasted or allowed to rot on the ground. The fruit-drier and the extension of fruit-farming have gone hand-in-hand, and following naturally upon their union, the dried-fruit merchant has appeared and flourishes. He does not himself evaporate fruit, but buys both from evaporating establishments and the farmer, packs for export, and exploits the whole world for markets.

Glancing first at general facts indicating the character and extent of

this new industry, 1,500 evaporators were at work in the neighbourhood of Rochester during the year 1887, and some 150 more were started during 1888. These range in capacity from 25 to 1,000 bushels of apples per day. The 1,500 evaporators in question gave employment, during the autumn and winter of 1887, to 30,000 hands, who earned from \$5 to \$12 each per week, according to skill and experience. The total quantity of dried apples produced was about 30,000,000 lbs., and their value \$2,000,000. Five million bushels, or 250,000,000 lbs., of green apples were required for this purpose, from which more than 200,000 tons of water were driven off by the consumption of 15,000 tons of coal.

The product finds a market all over the world, but the chief consuming countries are Germany, England, Belgium, Holland and France. Evaporated apples are packed in cases each containing 50 lbs., and the cost of carriage per case to Liverpool is thirty cents, or 1s. 3d. The same quantity of green fruit sent in barrels would cost \$2.50, or 10s., and canned fruit \$2.10, or 8s. 9d. In the case of evaporated fruit no damage is done, even by the longest transit, while fresh fruit suffers enormously, and canned fruit is always liable to ferment.

The refuse of the apples, consisting of cores and parings, is not lost, for these also are dried, and form the basis of all the cheap jellies now so largely manufactured. Twelve millions of pounds of dried cores and parings were exported from America, during the year in question. Sliced apples, dried without coring or paring, are exported in large quantities to France, where they are used in the production of the cheaper wines, and sometimes by the distiller. Eighteen thousand barrels, containing 4,000,000 lbs. of sliced apples, were sent to France during 1887, and of this quantity more than half was furnished by the Rochester evaporators. The dried apples of Western New York can now be bought in almost every town on the Continent of Europe, while an increasing demand for them is springing up even in such remote parts of the world as Australia and Western Africa.

Passing from the general to the particular, it may, in the first place, be remarked that the practice at Rochester is to dry not only apples, but peaches, plums, and raspberries.

*Green apples* are bought, in average years, at from 15 to 20 cents ( $7\frac{1}{2}d.$  to  $10d.$ ) per bushel of 50 lbs. The actual cost of drying averages from 12 to 15 cents ( $6d.$  to  $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ ) per bushel. The total cost of the dried produce is from 6 to 10 cents ( $3d.$  to  $5d.$ ) per lb., and the average selling price 7 to 12 cents ( $3\frac{1}{2}d.$  to  $6d.$ ) per lb. One bushel of green apples produces about 6 lbs. of dried apples. The best apples are barrelled and exported as fresh fruit, only the second-grade fruit is evaporated, while a third grade goes to the cider-mills at an average price of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  cents ( $3\frac{3}{4}d.$ ) per bushel. Nothing is wasted. The cores and parings are dried and sold for jelly-making at an average price of \$20 (£4) per ton. A bushel of apples yields 30 lbs. of "meat" and 20 lbs. of refuse. The 30 lbs. of

"meat" is reduced to 6 lbs. by evaporation, and the 20 lbs. of refuse to 4 lbs. One pound of coal is consumed in evaporating one pound of fruit.

*Peaches* are dried both in the "pared" and "unpared" state. The cost of a bushel of good peaches, in average years, is 50 cents (2s. 1d.). Each bushel yields 4½ lbs. of dried "pared," and 8 lbs. of "unpared" fruit. The actual cost of drying, in both cases, is 15 cents (7½d.) per bushel, the cost of the dried "pared" product 15 cents (7½d.) per lb., and its selling value 20 to 22 cents (10d. to 11d.) per lb. The cost of "unpared" dried peaches is 8 cents (4d.) per lb., and the selling value from 10 to 12 cents (5d. to 6d.) per lb.

*Raspberries* (black) cost, in average years, 6 cents (3d.) per quart. A quart of fruit yields one-third of a pound of dried product. The actual cost of drying is 2 cents (1d.) per lb., and the total cost of the dried raspberries 20 cents (10d.) per lb. The selling price varies from 25 to 30 cents (1s. 0½d. to 1s. 3d.) per lb.

*Plums* are only evaporated when so abundant as to become unsaleable. One bushel of green plums produces 8 lbs. of dried fruit, whose average selling price is 7 cents (3½d.) per lb.

Fruit evaporation is mainly an independent business. The 1,500 evaporating establishments already mentioned as surrounding Rochester are all of this character. The farmer, indeed, owns a dryer of his own whenever his orchards are large, but he sells for the most part to the nearest "evaporator." Apple orchards in Western New York are commonly from 100 to 300 acres in extent; peach orchards from 50 to 150 acres. The evaporators themselves vary in capacity from 10 bushels to 1,000 bushels a day.

The smaller drying apparatus is of the simplest description. It consists of an iron stove, surmounted by an upright wooden casing, the stove being fixed in the basement, and the wood casing on the floor above. The products of combustion are carried away by a flue, while the hot air rising from the stove passes upwards through the box-like dryer, which terminates in a cowl and vane. The dryer itself is fitted with a number of sliding trays, made of wire netting, upon which the fruit is placed, and these are replenished by hand as the drying proceeds. Evaporators of the greatest capacity do not differ from the smallest in principle, but the former usually employ steam instead of fire heat. The cost of the smaller (farmer's) apparatus is very trifling, and the cost of coal has already been stated as 1 lb. per ton of evaporated fruit.

Mechanical appliances for coring and paring apples are extremely ingenious and very numerous. They are worked by hand, and are continuous in action, *i.e.* one apple is being "chucked" while a second is being pared, and a third cored. Peach-paring machines are also in vogue, and cherries, when these are dried, are stoned by a very pretty special machine. None of these mechanical adjuncts to the system of fruit-evaporation are expensive, although it must be said they are all especially American productions.

Unquestionably the fruit-growing industry in New Zealand has a great future before it, and we may look forward at no very distant date to a very large increase in our export of fresh and preserved fruits.

Time forbids my doing more than refer to those necessary appanages to a small farm—pigs, fowls, and bees. New Zealand already exports a large quantity of bacon, and the Antipodean hen and honey bee are none the less prolific than their English progenitors. The experience of New Zealand in poultry rearing seems much the same as that of most other countries, in that any attempt to breed poultry on a large scale fails, whereas poultry-keeping on a moderate scale is a valuable adjunct to the farmer's income. There is certainly no reason why poultry should not be shipped to this market, as they freeze very well, and although science has not yet educated New Zealand fowls to lay eggs which will open after two months' keeping as fresh as after two days' keeping, there are many ways of preserving eggs without even having recourse to freezing them. I saw the other day the following record of the product of a small apiary in the Colony :—

I have got 84 hives (bar-framed), the return from which last season averaged 1 cwt. each box, thirty of which averaged 200 lbs., and a few of the very best 250 lbs. The total product of the 84 boxes was 4 tons 4 cwt., which realised  $4\frac{1}{2}d.$  per lb., equal to £176 8s.

It is said by experts that New Zealand offers every facility for silk production, and groves of mulberry trees have been planted for the purpose of encouraging the industry. It is somewhat difficult to get English people to undertake industries of this kind, but the climatic conditions and soil point to New Zealand being fitted to produce as much silk, olives, and wine as Italy does. Time is required, however, for the development of industries of this kind. Sugar beet grows well in New Zealand, and yields a high percentage of sugar, and it is a matter of surprise that no English or German company has yet started a factory in the Colony. The same remark applies to paper making, as the native flax and grasses are eminently fitted for its manufacture, and the amount of paper imported is more than sufficient to support a factory. There are now two or three ostrich farms in the Colony.

I am well aware that most of what I have said with regard to small farming applies to almost every country, but I claim that New Zealand offers exceptional conditions for production, and that the accident of reverse seasons and the favourable

markets of this country, together with the scientific investigation which is devoted in the Colony to all discoveries which tend to agricultural and industrial progress, place New Zealand in the foremost rank of countries offering a happy home and prosperous career to all the English-speaking race who have an aptitude for small farming. Hitherto we may have erred somewhat in moulding our system of farming too much on the English model. We could undoubtedly learn much from Continental nations and from our American cousins, whose methods, thrift, and enterprise may well be found worthy of imitation. We have in New Zealand a Minister and Department of Agriculture, with experts in various branches of industry, whose province it is to educate the Colonists to an appreciation of the resources of the Colony and the best means of taking advantage of them; we have an Agricultural College equal to any English institution of the kind, and I hope before long we shall have in the Agent-General's Department in London an Industrial expert, whose chief work will be to educate the people of the Colony to the requirements of the English markets and the best methods of bringing our products into prominent notice.

#### A TOURIST LAND.

New Zealand is already recognised as a land for tourists, and annually an increasing number of people visit the Switzerland of the South. Many of these come from the continent of Australia to avoid the extreme heat of the summer months, but the majority are from this country. The Colony has, no doubt, a most valuable property in her glorious climate and scenery, and when it is borne in mind what a source of wealth to parts of Europe is the tourist traffic, we can justly regard New Zealand's scenic grandeur as one of her best assets. In order to see the chief places of interest in New Zealand, the tourist from this country should allow for six months' absence. Of this, three months are spent at sea, and three months are devoted to travelling throughout the Colony. The trip is not an expensive one, as a return ticket by any of the many first-class lines of steamers is only £100, which includes living for three months; and hotel charges and travelling expenses in New Zealand are certainly no more, and probably rather less, than in other countries. The best time to select is to leave here in September or October, returning in March or April, thus avoiding the English winter. The fear of the sea journey probably deters a few, but proves to most not the least enjoyable part of the holiday, while

for the man or woman with over-wrought brain or delicate health, the enforced rest and fresh sea breezes give a new lease of life.

A man would indeed be composed of queer material if he did not find plenty to interest him in New Zealand for three months. There is a grandeur and variety of scenery possessed by no other country; there is the progress and development of one of the Empire's most important Colonies to study; there is a native race remarkable for its physique and intelligence; there is the social life of a new generation of Englishmen, and there is a clear, bright, and bracing climate in which to see it all.

Some people imagine that now the marvellous pink and white terraces have been destroyed by the terrible eruption of 1886 there is nothing left to see in New Zealand; but although the Colony has suffered an irreparable loss in the destruction of this gorgeous creation of nature, the wonderland of the North Island still remains. There is still left more than enough to make this part of New Zealand one of the most interesting, if not the most beautiful, to visit, and the traces of the dreadful upheaval that annihilated the terraces alone form one of the most interesting sights of its kind to be seen anywhere.

There are still to be seen in this district the many coloured lakes, blue, green, and yellow, active volcanoes, geysers of steam, mud, and water, boiling springs, seething mud caldrons, cliffs and terraces of every tint, and other sights which can only be equalled in Iceland or Yellowstone Park in America. The thermal springs are attaining a well-earned celebrity for their curative properties, and bid fair to rival the German Spas, and baths of the Pyrenees. I here give some extracts descriptive of the therapeutic properties of these baths from a paper on the subject written by Dr. Ginders, M.D., the Medical Superintendent at Rotorua. If further information is sought on the subject, there is a more detailed account given in a chapter of a recent book on New Zealand, written by John Murray Moore, M.D., M.R.C.S., published by Messrs. Sampson Low, of London.

The thermal-springs district of New Zealand comprises an area of upwards of 600,000 acres, or close on 1,000 square miles. The length of the district is some fifty miles, with an average breadth of twenty miles. Its altitude averages from 1,000 ft. to 2,000 ft. above sea-level. The general physical features of this region embrace extensive pumice-plains, intersected in various directions by high ranges of igneous formation, which are relieved here and there by enormous trachytic cones. Extensive forests of extraordinary luxuriance and beauty clothe the mountains

and border the extensive plateaux, while hot lakes, boiling geysers, and thermal springs are dotted far and wide over the country. The thermal-springs district, however, as defined on the maps, by no means embraces the whole volcanic and hydrothermal activity of the island. Although the volcanic slopes of Ruapehu and Tongariro bound this region on the south, hot springs are found here and there for fully 250 miles beyond its western boundary—in fact, as far north as the Bay of Islands. Within the district it is no exaggeration to say that hundreds of hot springs exist, to say nothing of mud-volcanoes, solfataras, and fumeroles. These springs are of the most varied chemical character, and every degree of temperature from 60° to 212°. Not a twentieth part of them have as yet been submitted to analysis. Those which have been examined in the laboratory of the Geological Survey Department in Wellington are divided by Sir James Hector into five classes: (1) *Saline*, containing chiefly chloride of sodium; (2) *alkaline*, containing carbonates and bicarbonates of soda and potash; (3) *alkaline-siliceous*, containing much silicic acid, but changing rapidly on exposure to the atmosphere, and becoming alkaline; (4) *hepatic* or *sulphurous*, characterised by the presence of sulphuretted hydrogen and sulphurous acid; and (5) *acidic waters*, containing an excess of sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, or both. In addition to these we have saline waters, containing iodine, cold acidulous chalybeates, and saline acidulous chalybeates. These, however, are in situations at present inaccessible to the invalid, or, if not out of reach, at least destitute of the conveniences and comforts essential to the sick, but no doubt destined in the near future to attain a high medical reputation.

The Government of New Zealand has very wisely chosen the southern shore of Lake Rotorua as the basis of operations for opening up this wonderful district. Here are grouped together numerous examples of the five classes of springs I have enumerated, and here the Government have fixed their first sanatorium and bathing establishment, to which it is desired specially to direct attention. The sanatorium reserve at Rotorua comprises an area of some 50 acres, bounded on the north and east by the lake, and on the west and south by the Township of Rotorua. Ten years ago this was a howling wilderness, covered with tea-tree scrub, and diversified only by clouds of steam rising from the various hot springs. Now this area of desolation is completely transformed. Walks and drives planted with evergreen trees traverse it from end to end, fountains and flower-gardens delight the eye, and commodious buildings for the accommodation and convenience of invalids are springing up on every side. The principal of these are the Sanatorium hospital, the medical residence, the Priest's pavilion, the Rachael pavilion, the Blue swimming-bath (to which is attached the sulphur-vapour bath and the electrical department), and Brent's boarding-house. The hospital is designed to accommodate twenty-one patients—twelve males and nine females. The Government tariff has not yet been decided on, but it is not likely to exceed £1 or £1 5s. per head per week. A patient will be allowed to

remain three months, but if at the expiration of that time the medical officer is of opinion that a longer period is desirable a second three months will be granted ; but in all cases six months will be the extreme limit.

We have no spring in the district that has obtained a higher reputation, or proved itself more generally useful, than that known as the Priest's Bath. The character of the water is sulphurous, aluminous, and strongly acid. Its temperature varies from  $98^{\circ}$  to  $106^{\circ}$ . This variation is due to the rise and fall of the lake and the direction of the wind. When the lake is high and the wind blowing in the direction of the baths the conditions are favourable to a high temperature, and *vice versá*, the cold water of the lake affording a more efficient barrier to the escape of heat than the open pumice-gravel of which the shore is composed. The solid constituents of the water amount to 96 grains per gallon, consisting of sulphates and silica. Of these the sulphates of alumina and soda are the most abundant ; but the most important constituents are—free sulphuric acid, 22 gr., and free hydrochloric acid, 3 gr. per gallon. A patient emerging from this bath looks like a boiled lobster, and I regard this determination of blood to the skin as a most important therapeutic factor : the vascular and nervous apparatus of the skin are powerfully stimulated by it, and internal congestions relieved. Our alkaline waters, on the other hand, which contain the chlorides and silicates of the alkalis, have a soothing and emollient effect on the skin, and are of great value in eczema and other cutaneous ailments. The water of the Priest's Spring is brilliantly clear when undisturbed, and pale-green in colour. A faint odour of sulphuretted-hydrogen pervades the vicinity, which gas, together with sulphurous acid, is copiously evolved. Since the eruption of Tarawera this offensive odour has been much modified, owing, I believe, to an increased evolution of sulphurous-acid gas at that time. Fortunately for the nasal organs and general comfort of bathers, these gases effect a mutual decomposition. Wherever steam charged with these gases is able to penetrate, sulphur is deposited. This is the origin of all the sulphur in the district. It permeates readily the siliceous-sinter rock, forming beautiful needle-like crystals of sulphur in its interspaces. Sulphur being thus constantly transformed from the gaseous to the solid state in the water of this spring, it is very possible that, coming into contact with the skin in this nascent and impalpable form, its therapeutic power may be considerably enhanced : there can be no doubt about its absorption, for our patients tell us that their underclothing is redolent of sulphur for weeks after returning home. The Priest's bathing-pavilion is a building 74 ft. long by 44 ft. wide, having a superficial area of 3,256 square feet. It is divided into male and female departments. Each department comprises two public *piscinae*, 16 ft. by 12 ft., with two private baths for special cases, lounging-rooms, and comfortable dressing-rooms. Each bath is provided with a cold fresh-water shower, and douches either hot or tepid, thus materially enhancing the hydropathic efficiency of this remarkable water.



Adjoining this structure is the Rachel Bathing-pavilion. Here we have a water diametrically opposite in character to the last described—an alkaline siliceous water, having a temperature at its source of  $180^{\circ}$ . This source is a caldron of enormous depth, situated some 200 yards from the bathing-pavilion, and yielding 50,000 gallons daily. We have a simple system of cooling by which the water may be used at any desired temperature. Here also is a separate department for each sex, each containing a public *piscina* 16 ft. square, four private baths, a lounging or waiting-room kept at a constant temperature of  $70^{\circ}$  by hot-water pipes, and dressing-rooms. The solid constituents of this water amount to 116 gr. per gallon, and consist of the chlorides of sodium and potassium, sulphate and carbonate of soda, silicates of soda, lime, and magnesia, oxides of iron and aluminium, and silica. Its reaction is alkaline, and it contains a small amount of sulphuretted hydrogen. The delicious sense of *bien-être* produced by bathing in this water, with the soft satiny feeling it communicates to the skin, must be felt to be appreciated. It is useful in all forms of skin-disease—indeed, in eczema it may be considered specific if continued long enough in conjunction with a suitable regimen. I frequently recommend the internal use of this water. Its taste is not unpleasant, and its action is mildly antilithic. Waters containing silicates are said to be useful in the uric-acid diathesis, and I certainly have found it suit gouty patients admirably.

The Blue Bath is a warm swimming-bath 62 ft. long by 27 ft. wide. It is built of stone and concrete, with a smooth surface of Portland cement. Its depth is from 4 ft. 6 in. to 3 ft. It contains about 30,000 gallons of water, maintained at a temperature of  $98^{\circ}$ . This is the popular pleasure-bath of the Sanatorium, in which our rheumatic invalids are able to take exercise without undue fatigue. It was completed in 1885, and opened by Mr. George Augustus Sala. During the excavation necessary for its formation the workmen struck upon a remarkable sulphur-cavern, its roof and sides thickly coated with brilliant acicular crystals of sulphur, and at its base a hot spring yielding steam so strongly impregnated with sulphur-gases as to be quite irrespirable. This we have conducted to the surface, and employ as a sulphur-vapour bath, diluting it, as occasion requires, with steam of a milder character. In sciatica and all forms of rheumatism this is one of our most popular and efficacious remedies. In this building we have our electrical room, supplied with faradic and constant-current batteries, and a galvanic bath. No hospital at the present day is without its electrical apparatus, yet few hospital men, and still fewer busy general practitioners, have time to devote to the study it necessitates. It appears destined to become a speciality; and certainly there could be no wider field for its exercise than a Sanatorium like that of Rotorua, where neurotic, rheumatic, and paralytic patients congregate, and where constant bathing modifies so favourably the normal resistance of the skin to the electrical current.

Cases of paraplegia in which the muscles are extensively atrophied, and

there is absolutely no response to either galvanism or faradism, are usually hopeless. In hemiplegia, on the other hand, presumably from cerebral embolism or from small hæmorrhages, as, for example, from rupture of the miliary aneurisms of Charcot, we have had some excellent results.<sup>1</sup>

Rheumatism and skin-diseases form fully 75 per cent. of the cases we are called upon to treat, and these usually in a very chronic form. In rheumatism and rheumatic gout we have much success, especially where arthritic degeneration is not too pronounced. Hot acidic sulphur-baths at a temperature not exceeding 104°, or sulphur-vapour up to 115°, taken twice daily for a carefully-regulated time, according to individual tolerance—which we find to vary greatly—forms our routine treatment. These waters redden the skin, and cause some tingling sensation for an hour or two. Occasionally some irritation of the skin occurs, which is readily allayed by a few warm alkaline showers or douches. In those numerous and well-known cases of chronic hip-rheumatism, initiated frequently by injury, we find nothing so efficacious as the hot douche. The beneficial result is due partly to the quality of the water, and largely to its mechanical action: fortunately, our arrangements are so complete that we are able to vary the temperature and percussive power of the douche at will. We are able to quote several cases of cure even where a considerable amount of fibrous ankylosis has existed. If the rheumatic patient progresses favourably under the bath-treatment alone, neither medicines nor electricity are employed, but if after a few weeks his progress is not satisfactory, we find galvano-faradism a valuable adjunct. Usually thirty cells are put into circuit with a faradic machine, and the double current applied in the labile manner to the parts affected for fifteen minutes daily. We find this answer better than either current alone. In cases of muscular atrophy faradism is had recourse to from the commencement.<sup>2</sup>

Perhaps there is no class of diseases in which we meet with more uniform success than those affecting the skin. The solid and gaseous constituents of the waters are no doubt important, but I have more confidence in the influence of change and all that it implies in its effect on both mind and body, combined with the prolonged maceration of the cuticle, and the constant exposure of the skin to air and light which frequent bathing entails. General eczema, which may have resisted every form of treatment for years, is generally cured in a period varying from six to thirteen weeks if the patient is willing to submit himself to rigorous medical discipline. The same may be said of psoriasis—at least, as far as its disappearance for a longer or shorter period is concerned. It is rare, indeed, to see psoriasis completely eradicated. For ringworm and the impetiginous eczema of children the water of the Priest's Spring is specific. In sycosis epilation is necessary, after which our alkaline waters complete the cure. Neuralgias, as a rule, do remarkably well. Patients suffering from sciatica are a numerous class with us, most of them presenting a very chronic

<sup>1</sup> Details of successful cases of paralysis are then given.

<sup>2</sup> Instances of cures in severe rheumatism are then given.

history. When the disease is not distinctly associated with the gouty or rheumatic diathesis, is not of long standing, and has been caused by exposure to cold, it is very quickly cured. A few baths relieve the pain, and there is rarely any stiffness or weakness remaining. Chronic cases are not so easily dealt with—they require great patience and perseverance on the part of both physician and patient. Our routine treatment consists of hot baths, sulphur-vapour, the douche and galvanism. After six or eight weeks it frequently happens that nothing remains to remind the patient of his old enemy beyond some slight weakness or soreness of the limb, and I usually advise him to try a week's sea-bathing on his way home. In order to accomplish this he should arrive in Rotorua not earlier than September or later than February. We have had some good results in the treatment of cervico-brachial neuralgia. Some time ago a lady who had long suffered from neuralgia of the circumflex nerve came to Rotorua for treatment. She carried her arm in a sling, and dreaded the slightest movement. In spite of her suffering she had attained the terrific weight of 17 st. After two weeks' bathing, and the application of a very mild galvanic battery, she was able to use her arm, and in a month was completely cured.

To enumerate every ailment in which our thermal springs have proved useful would prolong this paper indefinitely. Suffice it to say that in many cases their healing-power has been discovered accidentally. Many ladies bathing for rheumatism have found themselves cured of chronic metritis and leucorrhœa, and as a result of such cures have proved fruitful after years of sterility. Congestion of the liver, biliary catarrh with jaundice and hæmorrhoids, have been cured by the acid sulphur waters, which also prove useful as a topical application in ozæna and ulcerated throat. This class of water also tends to reduce plethora and corpulency without prostration, ensures healthy action of the skin, and relieves torpor of the bowels.

The popularity of Rotorua as a health resort is steadily increasing, and all that is wanting to secure its permanent success is through railway-communication with Auckland. With regard to the hotel and boarding-house accommodation provided for invalids and tourists, we have, at a distance of one mile from the Sanatorium, three hotels, each possessing valuable thermal springs, with comfortable bath-houses, the use of which is free to visitors. The tariff varies from 8s. to 10s. per day, but for visitors who may wish to remain several weeks a lower charge may be arranged for. At present we have only one boarding-house, in close proximity to the Government baths; it is capable of accommodating about twenty visitors. The medical superintendent receives four resident patients in his house. Where privacy and home comfort, combined with constant medical supervision, are to be desired, this provision will be appreciated.

I have been led to make these rather lengthy extracts because I feel that the thermal springs of the Colony are so little known.

When I turn to New Zealand as a land of beauty I confess my utter inability to describe the magnificent mountain, lake, river, and forest scenery of the Colony, and I have therefore made a selection of views which will presently be shown to you. The slides are rather old, and not of the best, but I am sure they will give you a better idea of the beauties of New Zealand than any feeble word-pictures of my own. There is, I believe, no country which contains such a variety of scenery as does New Zealand. If you have visited Norway, Switzerland, Iceland, the Tyrol, and Italy, and seen the best features of those beautiful countries—fiords, snow-peaks, glaciers, lakes, waterfalls, gorges, harbours, rivers, forests, ferns—you have seen some of Nature's grandest and fairest scenes; but if you go to New Zealand you will be bound to admit that she can show you wonders and beauties quite as grand and fair. A visitor should not fail to see the sounds or fiords of the South Island, the southern lakes, Mount Cook and its glaciers, the Otira gorge, the Buller and Wanganui rivers, and the northern lakes. In visiting these places he will be compelled to see many of the harbours, of which Auckland is the most beautiful, so beautiful that it takes a high place in the beautiful harbours of the world. I have seen Rio Janeiro, Naples, and Sydney, and I think, in its way, Auckland is more beautiful than either. "See Naples and die!" is a well-known saying; but if any of you are thinking of going to Naples for that purpose, I would suggest that you go and see Auckland first. Every year the accommodation for tourists improves, and one may now travel along the beaten tracks very comfortably. The enterprising firm of Messrs. Cook & Son have established agencies throughout the whole Colony, and spare no trouble to bring New Zealand under the favourable notice of the travelling public, and to attend to their comfort there. The people of the Colony no doubt under-estimate the scenic grandeur of their country. The Government, I am happy to say, are now paying more attention to the convenience of travellers by improving the communication by rail and road, and hotels worthy of the name are beginning to take the place of the old accommodation houses. The splendid hotels and good roads met with in Switzerland are no small attraction to many of her visitors, and the love of creature comfort is to many a matter of more consideration than the love of nature. These are facts which the New Zealander must not forget.

## FEDERATION.

No paper on a British Colony seems complete without a reference to the great question of Imperial Federation.

A certain amount of practical work has been done during the past few years in setting on foot a system of Imperial Defence, and in determining other matters of common interest, but statesmen having got so far appear timid about going any further, and seem now rather to fight shy of the whole question, and to adopt a *laissez faire* policy. Short of proposing any scheme, it seems to me there is still much to be done in the way of "clearing the decks for action," and embracing every opportunity of effecting arrangements which, although possibly small in themselves, are to the mutual advantage of this country and the Colonies. A not unimportant instance is a Bill which Lord Knutsford has passed through the House of Lords during the present session dealing with the Probate of Wills.

It is now almost an axiom of the subject that Federation must be based on a foundation of practical and reciprocal benefits, and that the sentimental aspect of the question, however attractive it may be, will not prove a bond of union sufficiently strong to last, unless there are material advantages as well. I cannot go into this question further here than enumerate a few matters which seem to me to call for early consideration, and which are *non-committal*. We need not hesitate "to clear the decks," as I call it, so as to be ready for action when time is ripe. How long it may be prudent to wait before we face the whole question is one of the many difficulties surrounding the matter. It must be borne in mind that political thought flows faster in the Colonies than here, and it is by no means certain that the Colonies will, as time goes on, manifest the same dispositions they now entertain. It is most difficult for the various Colonies, separated as they are, to propound a scheme which in the very nature of things should emanate from the Mother Country. The chief reason this country should make the advance, is because the question of Imperial Federation is, it seems to me, of much more importance to this country than it is to the Colonies. It may be that the commercial aspect of the whole question is becoming more prominent than the political aspect, and that the great lever of commercial public opinion must be used to lift politicians from their lethargy. Signs are not wanting to show that the British commercial world is dissatisfied with the future prospects of British trade. Do not understand me to imply that this great question of Imperial Federation must be settled hastily,

I agree with those who think that it will not do to "force the running"; but so far from any precipitate action being likely, it seems as if we are running a risk of going to the opposite extreme and allowing the matter to sleep. The subject is too vast to discuss at the end of a paper already too long. New Zealand can certainly claim to be thoroughly loyal to the British flag, but in the matter of Imperial Federation, although I believe the people of the Colony would hail with pride and pleasure any proposal for more firmly binding together the bonds between the Mother Country and the Colony, those bonds must secure to the people of New Zealand practical benefits. As you know, New Zealand was very shy about committing herself to the scheme of Australasian Federation. She had many reasons for this. I will quote one which was weighty with me, and it is that I was not at all sure that Australasian Federation was a stepping-stone to Imperial Federation. The questions which appear to me to demand Imperial attention at the present moment, leaving on one side the ever important question of defence, are :—

1. The abrogation of the provisions of any treaties with foreign powers imposing limitations upon the full development of trade between the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire.

2. The determining of conditions under which the Colonial Government securities may be recognised in this country, as a proper field for the investment of trust moneys.

3. The holding of an Imperial Postal Conference for the purpose of determining the basis of a penny Imperial post and cheaper cable rates.

4. The adoption throughout the Empire of identical laws on such questions as patents, copyright, marriage, divorce, &c.

5. The fixing of some universal standard under which university degrees and professional qualifications might be mutually recognised.

6. The reduction of the stamp fees charged by the Imperial Government on all Colonial loans and conversions.<sup>1</sup>

These are, I venture to think, all practical proposals which have been made at various times, and are illustrations of what I referred to in speaking of clearing the decks for action.

<sup>1</sup> On the loans of the British Colonies considerably more than £1,000,000 has been paid to the English Treasury in stamp duty; and as many of the loans will shortly have to be paid off, involving re-borrowing for the purpose, the tax on the Colonies during the next few years will be very heavy.

I will conclude with a sentiment of Mr. J. A. Froude :—

The Colonies have shown more clearly than before that they are as much English as we are, and deny our right to part with them. At home the advocates of separation have been forced into silence, and the interest in the subject has grown into practical anxiety. The union which so many of us now hope for may prove an illusion after all. The feeling which exists on both sides may be a warm one, but not warm enough to heat us, as I said, to the welding point.

The event, whatever it is to be, lies already determined, the philosophers tell us, in the chain of causation. What is to be, will be. But it is not more determined than all else which is to happen to us, and the determination does not make us sit still and wait till it comes. Among the causes are included our own exertions, and each of us must do what he can, be it small or great, as this course or that seems good and right to him. If we work on the right side, coral insects as we are, we may contribute something not wholly useless to the general welfare.

Amidst the uncertainties which are gathering round us at home—a future so obscure that the wisest man will least venture a conjecture what that future will be—it is something to have seen with our own eyes that there are other Englands besides the old one, where the race is thriving with all its ancient characteristics. Those who take “leaps in the dark,” as we are doing, may find themselves in unexpected places before they recover the beaten tracks again. But let fate do its worst, the family of Oceana is still growing, and will have a sovereign voice in the coming fortunes of man.

*(A number of lime-light views of New Zealand scenery were shown at the conclusion of the paper.)*

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#### DISCUSSION.

MR. E. BRODIE HOARE, M.P.: I do not know whether three months' travel in New Zealand entitles a man to speak on this subject, but, having been for many years interested in the commerce of New Zealand, and having spent some of the most delightful months in my life in that wonderful Colony, I may be allowed to bear my testimony to the accuracy with which the Agent-General has set before you its claims on your sympathy; and, further, I think we may congratulate ourselves on having an Agent-General who can speak on such subjects with so much force and perspicuity. At the same time the mere reading of a paper does not convey to one's mind anything like the enthusiasm which one feels who has put his foot on the shores of New Zealand. It is a country which

for climate, the beauty of its scenery, and the attractiveness of its people—who are Englishmen to the backbone—offers attractions that cannot be resisted by those who have been brought within the range of these influences. Though I have no criticism to make on the paper, perhaps you will forgive me—and, should it come to their ears, I hope the Government of New Zealand will forgive me—if I venture to question the wisdom of some of the proceedings of the Government. There can be no doubt that the one thing required for the resources of New Zealand as yet undeveloped is the introduction of English capital. I venture, with all humility, to say that the steps that are being taken are directly calculated to interfere with the introduction of English capital, and I will tell you in what way this is being done. There can be no doubt that the credit of the New Zealand Government in the English money market has, during the last four or five years, very materially and justly improved. The Four per cent. Stock stands at a good premium, whereas when I was there this stock stood at something like ninety-six. It is not, however, in my opinion, to the capital borrowed by the New Zealand Government that Colony has to look for its real progress and the sound development of its resources. It must look rather to the introduction of private capital through private enterprise. I will quote words used by the Agent-General to illustrate to you in what way I consider the recent action of the Government has tended to interfere with the introduction of private capital. He says: “I readily admit that, in the case of individuals and companies who have become the unwilling owners of large estates by properties falling into their hands, the remedy is somewhat drastic; but the policy pursued by these individuals and companies in holding their land instead of realising has gone far to bring about the change they complain of.” I ask you to consider what this means; and may I preface my remarks by saying that I am not personally interested in any company which holds any large tract of land in New Zealand? It means that certain companies have in the past lent money unwisely on the mortgage of properties in New Zealand; that they have been obliged to foreclose on those mortgages; that they now hold the properties so foreclosed, and that they are unwilling to sell them at a heavy loss. That is the plain English of it. Now I would ask the Agent-General—and I wish I could ask the Legislature of New Zealand also—to consider this: that their object is to promote the interest and the well-being of their country. That I firmly believe to be their one and genuine aim. They think it is better to do so by the introduction of small settlers and by increasing the



number of small holdings; and I agree with them. I think that is a right and proper line of development for a country like New Zealand. But if you want to bring capital into New Zealand, is it wise—I do not say is it right or just—to so tax English capitalists who have embarked their money in the Colony that they shall be compelled, whether they would or not, to sell their property at a loss in order to escape that which is practically a fine for holding it in the attempt not to make a profit but to escape a loss? That is the real position into which the New Zealand Government are placing many of the large companies connected with the Colony, and I say in their own interest it is a piece of very foolish legislation. One other thing I know, and many of those who have been in New Zealand know—that the cordial co-operation of the Government in great industrial enterprises is almost an essential in a country like New Zealand if those enterprises are to prosper. I do not mean that the Government should take up those enterprises and nurse them—far from it; but when English capitalists are striving to accomplish great works or small works for which the help of the Government is required—I mean help in the way of facilitating arrangements and enabling them to go on with smoothness and ease—I say that that help ought to be granted in no ungrudging manner. At the present time that help is not granted with a free hand at all, and I have reason to believe, from what I saw when I was there, that a good deal of that difficulty arises from something which the Colony ought to be now old enough to get over—that is, a feeling of local jealousy. It is an undoubted fact, or was a few years ago, that that which was considered good in Auckland was considered bad in Dunedin, and that what was thought good in Christchurch was thought bad in Wellington. I do not say that everybody had that feeling, but the feeling was so prevalent as to lead to great friction and great impediments being placed in the way of industrial enterprises that required the co-operation of the whole Colony. It will be understood, I hope, that I make these remarks in no unkindly or unfriendly spirit, because, as I have said, I have the greatest enthusiasm for the Colony, and I have invested my own money there, and that of my friends. I believe that for New Zealand there is a greater future than there is for any other of our Colonies area for area; that there is no country on the face of the globe so fitted for the habitation of Englishmen; and that those of us who live for another twenty years will see New Zealand making rapid strides—such rapid strides that she will be outpacing the older and larger Colonies of the Australasian Continent. But if this

is to be, the Colony must be guided by wisdom, and not run on what the Agent-General—by a slip or purposely—described as “fads.” There is no doubt that a great many people in New Zealand take their political opinions from those whom we here call faddists. I marvel at the progress New Zealand has made. The great city of Christchurch, with its cathedrals, banks, railways, and tramways, was a bare desert when I was a boy at school, and I am disgusted when anybody calls me old. I think you will agree that few countries have made such progress, and I say with all my heart—May she continue to flourish.

Sir JULIUS VOGEL, K.C.M.G.: After the very exhaustive paper which Mr. Perceval has read, there is not very much left to say about the present condition of New Zealand. I rather think Mr. Perceval did himself an injustice when he told us we were going to listen to a prosaic paper, for I am sure you will agree with me that when he took us to the top of Christchurch Cathedral and laid before us the fair and varied scene he disclosed a vein of true poetry. I will ask you to allow me to go back to the past. It is not generally known that the real origin of the immigration and public works policy of New Zealand was not, as has been supposed, a desire to obtain, by the expenditure of borrowed money, a fictitious excitement or a too rapid progress. The true origin of that policy was the native difficulties that then prevailed, and had prevailed since the earliest history of the Colony. Up to 1870 a species of dual control existed by which the Colonial Government and the Home Government jointly managed native affairs. In that year the Home Government finally withdrew. They took away every soldier, and sold everything on which they could lay hands, even to flagposts, and I am not sure they did not sell the flags. They threw on the Colony the whole responsibility for the future. It was then recognised that to go on spending millions as they had been spent on native affairs was a wasteful policy, and that a far better plan was to colonise and settle the northern island and carry out railways and other public works. The other island had long complained of the expenditure on account of the native difficulties, and this policy could not be carried out without extending to the south island the same policy of immigration and public works proposed to be carried out in the north. That policy was pursued on a more extensive scale than was originally proposed, and more railways were made than were, at first contemplated. The time came when the increase of population was not so rapid—when it became desirable to “taper off,” and there was not a small amount of heroism displayed when the process began. I may mention that the Colony

has much more land under cultivation than the whole of the Australasian Colonies put together. The policy of colonisation from its earliest date was based on a twofold supply from the Mother Country to her Colonies of population and of capital. It would be simple folly, as regards the capital, to suppose that there would be any doubt whatever of the safety of the loans to the various Colonial Governments. As regards private loans, they are mostly of the nature of private investments. I believe, as a rule, they are good investments. From a study I have lately made of the subject, I have come to the conclusion that the approximate amount of money invested by the residents of Great Britain in securities of all kinds—foreign, colonial, Indian, and home—is, in round figures, £5,000,000,000. Now, a great financial genius—I am not speaking ironically—Mr. Wilson, has lately published in the *Investor's Review* a scathing article on the subject of Australasian borrowing. He couples, as I think he has no right to do, private loans and Government loans and makes up a total of £280,000,000, of which £40,000,000 belongs to bank deposits. Now, if I am right as to the total amount of British investments, this balance of £240,000,000 represents somewhat less than five per cent. of the whole. It may be a large amount, but it does not seem a very large proportion to invest in the Continent of Australia, to say nothing of New Zealand and Tasmania; and I am decidedly of opinion that there are thousands and tens of thousands whose investments are represented by the remaining 95 per cent. who would be glad to transfer their investments to Australasia's five per cent. Mr. Wilson's article is a strong and able article. It is a curious thing, however, that that article was published on the 1st May and has been greatly spoken of, and yet that ever since then Australasian stocks have gone up from day to day. It reminds one of the jackdaw in "The Ingoldsby Legends." The Archbishop cursed by "bell and by book," and in a variety of other ways—

"Sure never was heard such a terrible curse,  
But what gave rise to no little surprise,  
Nobody seemed one penny the worse."

I do not go so far as to say that there are not questions relating to Australia that are well worth considering. I think you will be amazed to find how the supply of population is falling off, and on this subject I will give you a few figures which I think are rather sensational. I find that in the five years 1882-86, inclusive, the total emigration of persons of British origin from Great Britain and

Ireland to the Australasian Colonies amounted to 235,000 persons, while in the five years 1887-91 the number was 130,000, giving an average in the first five years of 47,000, and in the last of only 26,000. But we ought also to consider the number of persons who have returned from these Colonies to the United Kingdom; and I find this remarkable fact, that during the five years 1882-86 the balance in favour of Australasia was only 194,000, while in 1887-91 the balance of those who remained was only 82,000, being an average for the first five years of 38,000, and of 16,000 for the next five. The last two years are even more remarkable. In 1890 the total number of immigrants was only 21,000, and in 1891, 19,000; while if you deduct the returns, the numbers were 10,000 and 9,600 respectively. Thus you will see that we must go back almost to prehistoric times for a parallel for the small amount of emigration during the past two years to Australasia. I do not say anyone is to blame. I think there are periods in the lives of young communities when quiet must for a time prevail. In the case of Australasia I do not think that period can be a lengthened one; on the contrary, I am persuaded that before a long time has elapsed we shall again see a large steady flow of emigration from the United Kingdom to Australasia; and I may add that I believe there never has been a time when persons possessed of a fair amount of agricultural knowledge and with a moderate amount of means would be likely to do so well in the Australasian Colonies, including New Zealand and Tasmania.

Mr. WALTER BUSBY: I have listened to the address with great pleasure and instruction. It is most gratifying to hear such a favourable account of the immediate past, so much satisfaction at the present, and so well-founded a hope for the future. In all this many of us have a certain amount of personal interest. As investors and by influencing the investments of our friends we have from time to time assisted the Colony by subscribing for the loans it has issued, and it is beyond measure pleasing to learn that the money borrowed has been productive of such good results. I have always entertained a very high opinion of the Colony of New Zealand as a field for investment, and when I hear such a glowing report I am constrained to ask, "Is there no little rift within the lute of so much prosperity?" It may seem ungracious to look at any other than the bright side at a meeting like this; yet, sir, I must claim your indulgence to publicly record the deep feeling of disappointment and regret experienced by holders of the New Plymouth Harbour Board bonds, which are in default, that your Government will afford them no measure of relief. These bondholders advanced their money

on the security of a certain large subsidy of Crown lands in the provincial district of New Plymouth, which was given by the Government in consequence of their expressed opinion that this harbour was of *national* rather than local importance. These lands were estimated to be worth about £1,400,000. Now, sir, within a short time after the loan was raised here, the Government, without any reference whatever to the bondholders, take away from them 200,000 acres of these subsidised lands, valued by the Property Tax Commissioner and the Surveyor-General at about £380,000, and the land laws of the Colony are so altered, as shown by the Agent-General in his address, that the income from the remaining land is brought down to vanishing-point. I might adduce many further facts that prove and advance the claim of the bondholders. I do think it would be a dignified and graceful act on the part of the Government of New Zealand if in their prosperity they would deal generously and justly with those they have injured.

Mr. H. MONCREIFF PAUL: Mr. Perceval stated at the outset of his paper that foreign capital must be invested in the Colonies in order to develop their resources. In that we all agree. Hand in hand with capital must go a proper amount of emigration; and if the Government of New Zealand or any other Colony should so badly arrange matters, fiscal or otherwise, as to preclude this being done, no Colony can, in my opinion, be prosperous. At this late hour I will not speak with any detail on the merits of the paper, but there are one or two points I desire to emphasise. In regard to taxation, I find that taxation in New Zealand represents about 50 per cent. of her revenue. That is quite enough in the way of taxation, and if any attempt be made to increase it, *pro tanto*, the success of the Colony for the time will be endangered. Then in regard to absentee owners. Of course as a matter of policy no man should be for any length of time an absentee owner. The chances are that his property will suffer during his absence. It must be borne in mind, however, that many of them were the pioneers of the Colony, men who bore the burden and heat of the day, and it may be a matter of necessity for them in some cases to absent themselves from the Colony they love, and in which the early and best years of their lives were spent. Therefore I do not think the Government would be well-advised in pressing too hardly on so-called absentee owners. We had in Australia a very remarkable instance of the result of driving good men from a Colony. There were many valuable Colonists who by the policy pursued in Victoria were driven across the Murray into New South Wales. Good, as is often the case, came out

of evil, with the result that the development of Riverina was assured, and this pastoral district will in the future become the honour and glory of New South Wales. It does not do, however, to count on a like repetition of success attending a mistaken initial policy. Mr. Perceval alluded to the great success attending the industrial undertakings of New Zealand, and sought to show that the Colony is destined to be the great manufacturing centre of the Australasian group. I am afraid, however, that the initial stages of those undertakings are largely fostered by the system of Protection, which is a dangerous system to follow, and opposed to the Free Trade under which the Mother Country has prospered. Mr. Perceval has spoken of the products of New Zealand, and on that point too much cannot be said. If his statistics had been carried down to a later date than 1890 they would have been even more striking. *Quá* the exports of these products. We find New Zealand sending to us and the United States various products without which we cannot do; they are, in point of fact, necessities which fill up blanks which occur both here and in America. It is not perhaps generally known in regard to dairy produce—butter and cheese, for example—that we import 50 per cent. of all we consume. Is it not better that we should if possible receive these products from our own Colonies than from foreign nations? Mr. Perceval has pointed out how that by obtaining experts from Europe the manufacture of butter and cheese may be improved and the factory system in making the former be developed. The shipment of fruit from New Zealand to this country is now being fostered, and, although initial mistakes incident to the opening up of a new industry may be made, these will gradually yet surely be overcome. Even now there is good promise that the success which has hitherto attended the importation of frozen meat may follow in the case of fruit, more especially apples, from the orchards of New Zealand. The formation of Boards of Conciliation there for the purpose of settling differences between employers and employed will be fraught with good results. A like course has been successfully followed in this country. The system of federation to which Mr. Perceval has also alluded is one of paramount importance, and will receive consideration at the approaching Congress, to be held here next month, of the Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire, when the commercial relations of the Mother Country with her Colonies will be discussed. As has frequently been pointed out, it seems unfortunate that the Australasian Colonies at least should not find themselves in a position to establish a *zollverein inter se* whereby free exchange of their various

products might be secured. Such fiscal union lies at the base of all negotiations for federation. Mr. Perceval's remarks as to the beauty of New Zealand, and the comparison which he institutes between Auckland, Rio de Janeiro, Naples and Sydney, appear to be somewhat highflown. I can only assume that he has taken a leaf out of the South-country Scotchman's book, who after having visited London and Paris said on his return to Peebles, "I have been to London and been to Paris, but for real pleasure give me Peebles."

Mr. T. A. DIBBS: I wish, sir, to reply to some observations made by Sir Julius Vogel, which, if I understand them correctly, point to the fact that the rate of progress in the increase of population in New Zealand was not as great as formerly. I am not a New Zealander but a native of New South Wales, and I have had occasion lately to look into the question of population, and I find that in that Colony alone it has increased 360,000 in a period of nine years, or over 40 per cent. If this rate of progress continues you can imagine what some of the Australian Colonies will become in a short time. I was very pleased to listen to the address of the evening, and I certainly concur in the very sensible remarks made by Mr. Brodie Hoare on the taxation of capital by the New Zealand Government.

Dr. H. W. MAUNSELL: I think you will all agree we have had a highly instructive lecture, which will go far to dissipate many false impressions concerning the Colony, and, as a New Zealand Colonist of twenty years' standing, I make bold to endorse what Mr. Perceval has said. Mr. Brodie Hoare says we are jealous of one another. Well, we are chips of the old block, and if we grumble a little sometimes we are like other Britishers in that respect.

The CHAIRMAN: It is with great pleasure that I now move a vote of thanks to Mr. Perceval for his very able and interesting lecture. I may venture to say that the importance of the paper he has read can scarcely be overestimated. It cannot be too often repeated that whilst we here regard the British Islands as the British Empire, the real British Empire is Greater Britain, including New Zealand and Australia. The time will come—and may perhaps not be so long in coming—when, subject to the cost of transport, the price of meat, and of produce generally, will be equalised throughout the world. At present we have New Zealand meat at  $4\frac{1}{2}d$  per lb., but many a householder trying to introduce it into his establishment will find his cook against him. The prejudice, however, will soon pass away, and we shall then have Antipodean meat and other

produce in the same way that we have English meat and produce now. At this late hour I will not detain you with further remarks, except to say that I emphatically agree with Mr. Brodie Hoare as to the policy at present being pursued by the Government of New Zealand being unwise in so far as it tends to prevent the inlet of British capital. I say this in no hostility to the Labour Party, as it is called—on the contrary, I believe that the labour members are very capable men, but, owing to circumstances, they have not been able to consider at first the enormous business in which they are engaged. When, however, they do realise this, they will, if I mistake not, change their opinion. The great aim they have in view is undoubtedly the prosperity of New Zealand; but I am sure the prosperity of the Colony will be hindered by an absence of the inlet of British capital. I make this observation without having any personal interest excepting that of long residence and intimate acquaintance with the people of the Colony. I now beg to propose a hearty vote of thanks to Mr. Perceval for his paper.

The motion was carried by acclamation.

Mr. PERCEVAL: I thank you very sincerely for the kind attention you paid to the paper. It was so long that I had to leave a good deal out, and the paper suffered in consequence. It is too late now to reply to the various criticisms, levelled not so much at the paper as at the policy which has lately been adopted in the Colony; but a careful perusal of my paper will show what is really proposed by the new system of taxation. I would very much like to see the man who could propound a system of taxation that would please everybody, for he would be one of the greatest benefactors of mankind possible. While I listened to the fulminations of Mr. Brodie Hoare and his friends against the present system, I wondered what they would have said had I described the old Property Tax as the system of taxation in force in the Colony. They have been vehement enough in regard to the present tax, but they would have been ten times more vehement in denouncing the iniquities of the old one. Gentlemen like these seem to find it their duty to oppose all systems of taxation, for the reason, I suppose, that they have to contribute largely, and very properly so, out of their abundance towards the revenue of the country. They do not seem to know whether they prefer being in the frying-pan of the Property Tax or in the fire of the new tax. There I will leave them. This is hardly the place, I think, nor is there time, to go into political discussions opening up such wide fields as the incidence of taxation and Free Trade *versus* Protection. One word in reply to the gentleman who complained



about some money he had lost in the New Plymouth Harbour Board. I am very sorry for him. He has my entire sympathy. But I am afraid that many of us have lost money, if not in harbour boards in various other undertakings. He complained that the Government had been asked for some relief and no relief had been afforded. I would like to know what the Imperial Government would do if one of you were to complain that you had invested in the bonds of some Corporation in England—say Blackacre—and could get no interest. (A voice: "It is not analogous.") Would the British Government come to your relief? No; and why should the New Zealand Government come to the relief of the bondholders in the New Plymouth Harbour Board because that board has not been able to meet the interest? If the Government has varied the security, as has been asserted, it has committed an illegal act, and there are the courts of law to fall back upon. I thank you for the kind attention you have accorded me. In conclusion, I ask you to join with me in thanking our Chairman for presiding this evening. Sir William Jervois is one of the past Governors of the Colony—a Governor who was much respected, and who rendered valuable service to the Colony in the advice he was able to tender on defence matters, and he was much missed when he left us. We owe him a hearty vote of thanks for his services to-night, which I am sure you will readily extend to him.

The motion was cordially adopted, and the Chairman having briefly acknowledged the compliment, the company separated.

## NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS RELATING TO THE COLONIES AND INDIA.

(By JAMES R. BOOSÉ, Librarian R.C.I.)

### AUSTRALASIA.

*Transactions and Proceedings and Report of the Royal Society of South Australia.* Vol. xiv. Part II. 8vo. Pp. 205. Adelaide. December, 1891. [Presented by the Society.]

The second part of Volume xiv. of this Society's Proceedings opens with a continuation of Mr. E. Meyrick's paper on "Descriptions of New Australian Lepidoptera." This is followed by a Paper dealing with the water-supply of the Broken Hill mines, by Mr. S. Dixon, who submits two estimates of the cost of utilising the water for the mines at Broken Hill, both of which provide for the delivery of one million gallons a day in the mines, the distance being taken at twenty-six miles. The Rev. Louis Schulze contributes an interesting account of the aborigines of the Upper and Middle Finke River, their habits and customs, together with notes on the physical and natural history features of the country; which is followed by a collection of geological notes on the watershed of the Finke River, which takes its rise in the ranges near the centre of Australia, by Mr. C. Chewings. Professor R. Tate is responsible for the following four Papers: "Note on the Silurian Fossils of the Upper Finke River Basin;" "Descriptions of New Species of Australian Mollusca, Recent and Fossil;" "A Second Supplement to a List of the Lamellibranch and Palliobranch Mollusca of South Australia," and a "Bibliography and Revised List of the described Echinoids of the Australian Eocene, with Descriptions of some New Species." The issue is completed by the following papers: "Note on a Volcanic Ash from Tanna," by Professor Rennie and Mr. E. F. Turner; "Further Notes on the Habits and Anatomy of *Notoryctes Typhlops*," by Dr. Stirling; "Further Notes on Australian Coleoptera," by Rev. T. Blackburn; "Description of a New Species of *Fabularia*," by Mr. M. C. Schlumberger; "The Foraminifera of the Older Tertiary, No. 2 Kent Town Bore, Adelaide, and Muddy Creek," by Mr. W. Howchin.

**New South Wales: Department of Lands.**—*Stations determined Astronomically in connection with Trigonometrical Survey.* 8vo. Pp. 16. Sydney. 1892. (Price 1s.) [Presented by the Department of Lands.]

Frequent inquiry having been made for particulars of the stations in New South Wales, the positions of which have been found by astronomical

observation, they have been printed in a handy form for convenience of reference by the Department of Lands. The observations for longitude have all been made by measurement of the difference of longitude between the station and the Sydney Observatory, the method employed being, with one exception, by transmission of electro-telegraphic signals. A considerable amount of useful information is embodied in the work, which has been prepared under the direction of Mr. E. Twynan, Chief Surveyor, and Director of Trigonometrical Surveys, and contains a map of the Colony, upon which the relative positions of the stations are indicated by blue circles with numbers attached, which correspond to those which appear in the letterpress.

*Records of the Geological Survey of New South Wales.* Vol. ii.  
Part IV. Sm. 4to. Pp. 45. Sydney. 1892. (Price 1s. 6d.)  
[Presented by the Department of Mines.]

Five papers form the contents of this issue of the Records of the New South Wales Geological Survey, and comprise (1) "Notes on Experiments with the Munktell Chlorination Process at Bethanga, Victoria," by E. F. Pittman; (2) "On the General Geology of the South Coast, with Petrological Notes on the Intrusive Granites and their Associated Rocks around Moruya, Mount Dromedary, and Coburgo," by William Anderson; (3) "Descriptions of Four Madreporaria Rugosa: Species of the Genera *Philipsastræa*, *Heliophyllum*, and *Cyathophyllum*," by R. Etheridge, Jun.; (4) "The Cave Shelters near Wollombi, in the Hunter River District," by P. T. Hammond; and (5) "Idiographic Rock-Carvings of the Aborigines at Flat Rocks, near Manly," by R. Etheridge, Jun. These papers, which contain a considerable amount of interesting information, are illustrated by nine well-executed plates.

**Dale, Philip, and Haviland, Cyril.**—*Voices from Australia.* 12mo.  
Pp. 288. London. Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. 1892. Price 5s.  
[Presented by the Publishers.]

This is a collection of poems dealing chiefly with pictures of Australian life and scenery, and written by Mr. and Mrs. Cyril Haviland, the latter being better known as Philip Dale. Many of them possess a considerable gift of expression, and the volume is a welcome addition to the poetic literature of Australia.

#### BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

**Roberts, Charles G. D.**—*The Canadian Guide-Book: The Tourist's and Sportsman's Guide to Eastern Canada and Newfoundland.*  
12mo. Pp. viii.—270. London. William Heinemann. 1892.  
(Price 6s.) [Presented by the Publisher.]

With the annually increasing number of tourists to Canada, the want of a reliable handbook has long been felt, and this little work, although

limited to that section of Canada which is designated Eastern Canada, nevertheless gives a large amount of general information regarding Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. Newfoundland, and that part of Labrador belonging to Newfoundland, though not attached to Canada, are touched upon for the convenience of tourists who may wish to visit them. The territory described may most conveniently be covered in a round trip offering abundant choice of routes and opportunity for attractive side-trips from the most important towns along the way. The contents include full descriptions of routes, cities, points of interest, summer-resorts, fishing places, throughout Eastern Canada and the Maritime Provinces; whilst an Appendix contains the fish and game laws, and official lists of trout and salmon rivers, together with their lessees. The plan of the book, its arrangement and classification of matter, and the system of treatment, are based on the famous Baedeker handbooks, and so the work possesses compactness, portability, and facility of consultation. In addition to three maps, it is well illustrated by a series of photographic views, and can be strongly recommended to those who contemplate making a tour in Canada.

**Langtry, Rev. J. (M.A., D.C.L.).**—*History of the Church in Eastern Canada and Newfoundland.* 12mo. Pp. vi.—256. London. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. 1892. (Price 3s.) [Presented by the Publishers.]

As one of the series of Colonial Church Histories which are being published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, that regarding Eastern Canada and Newfoundland contains a considerable amount of information regarding the early work of the Church and the founding of its first Colonial Bishoprics. There is no more interesting topic of colonisation than that of the early history of the Church in the various Colonies, and Mr. Langtry, who is Rector of St. Luke's, Toronto, has been eminently successful in gathering together in so limited a space, where freedom of treatment has necessarily been excluded, so many interesting items of the foundation of the Church in British North America. Each diocese of what may be termed "older Canada" has claimed the attention of the Author, who divides his work into distinct chapters dealing with the dioceses of Quebec, Toronto, Fredericton, Montreal, Huron, Ontario, Algoma, Niagara and Newfoundland. Several interesting biographical notices of those noble men who have toiled in the hard places of the field are embodied, together with a history of the pioneer days of the Church's life in Canada.

**Brymner, Douglas.**—*Report on Canadian Archives.* 8vo. Pp. xlix.—377. Ottawa. 1892. (Price 1s. 6d.) [Presented by the Government of Canada.]

Mr. Brymner continues the publication of the documents regarding the early history of the various provinces of Canada contained in the Public Record Office with the same care and correctness which he has

hitherto exercised in preceding volumes. The portions of the correspondence calendared in this Report include the transactions in the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada during the years immediately succeeding the division of the old province of Quebec. Owing to affairs in the two provinces having been so closely connected, Mr. Brymner, for convenience' sake, gives abstracts of the documents relating to each for the same period, an arrangement which has the advantage of presenting an intelligible and consecutive history of occurrences. Lists of the names of the early settlers referred to in previous reports on the documents, down to the close of the first well-marked period after the Conquest (1760 to 1791), are contained in the present volume, and show to a very considerable extent the gradual settlement of Upper Canada, or, as it is now called, Ontario, besides that of Lower Canada during the same period. The work is one of very great importance regarding the early history of the Dominion, and places on record a collection of facts of an authentic character in a most accessible manner.

#### AFRICA.

**Methven, Cathcart W. (M.Inst.C.E.).**—*Sketches of Durban and its Harbour in 1891.* 4to. Durban. Messrs. P. Davis & Sons. 1891. [Presented by the Publishers.]

This excellent series of sketches of Durban and its harbour has been executed by Mr. Methven, who holds the appointment of Engineer-in-Chief to the Natal Harbour Board, in intervals of leisure, and the subjects selected are, for the most part, familiar to all who have any acquaintance with the town and port, and are exact reproductions of the original signed sketches. The selection is an excellent one, more especially as regards the harbour, as, of the thirty-five views of which the work consists, twenty-three reveal the wonders which have been wrought by enterprise and energy since the Harbour Board took command of the port. It fell to the lot of Mr. Methven to take up the work begun by his lamented predecessor, Mr. Edward Innes, in 1881, and carried on by that able engineer up to the time of his death in 1887. With how much vigour and success those works have been prosecuted, the sketches contained in the work demonstrate. An historical sketch of the Colony, which precedes the views, is contributed by Sir John Robinson, and the work cannot fail to be the means of preserving pleasant recollections of the town and port, not only to the present inhabitants, but also to visitors and former residents living outside the Colony.

*Port Elizabeth Directory and Guide.* 8vo. Pp. 164. Port Elizabeth. James Kemsley & Co. 1892. [Presented by the Publishers.]

The publishers of this handbook deserve credit for having supplied a long-felt want in the shape of a collection of local information regarding

the important town of Port Elizabeth, which of recent years has gained so prominent a position in the Colony as a commercial centre, which may be chiefly attributed to the recent railway extensions, which have brought the port into direct communication, not only with all the principal towns of the Colony, but also with the Orange Free State and British Bechuanaland; in addition to which, it will very soon be possible for the inhabitants of the Transvaal to travel direct to Port Elizabeth by train. In consideration of the difficulty experienced by visitors on arrival at Port Elizabeth in finding their way about the town, and in order to obviate this in future, an account of the principal public institutions of the town, together with other information of a useful character, is embodied in the work. The general directory and notes on local affairs will prove of considerable service to residents, besides being handy for reference to those otherwise interested in the Colony.

**Ritchie, J. Ewing.**—*Brighter South Africa; or, Life at the Cape and Natal.* 12mo. Pp. viii.—232. London. T. Fisher Unwin. 1892. (Price 5s.) [Presented by the Publisher.]

The Author of this work, better known as "Christopher Crayon," has already given an account of his travels in Canada and Australia in two works entitled, "To Canada with Emigrants," and "An Australian Ramble," which describe in a light, sketchy manner his visits to those Colonies. In the same manner he now describes a recent tour in South Africa, his love for travel having tempted him to that part of the Empire, which he states he prefers to either of the other two. Mr. Ritchie, like so many recent authors, devotes forty-six pages to the oft-told tale of the voyage, which contains an account of the usual daily life on board ship and the places visited *en route*. After describing Cape Town, which he states is not much of a place to look at, and which boasts of few fine buildings, he proceeded to Kimberley, Port Elizabeth, East London and Natal, and being a keen observer and possessing a ready pen, the various points of interest in those towns are graphically described. The various questions affecting the position and progress of South Africa, including such topics as the Afrikaner Bund, Republican tendencies, the native question, and politics generally, also claimed the attention of the Author, who does not appear to have gained a very exalted opinion of the great politicians of the Cape, whose politics, he states, chiefly refer to railways. The book, which contains a map and several illustrations of mail-steamer, &c., will no doubt prove of use as a guide to the intending visitor, and the opinions upon various political questions may also interest residents in South Africa.

## WEST INDIES.

**Rain, Thomas.**—*The Life and Labours of John Wray, Pioneer Missionary in British Guiana.* 12mo. Pp. v.—376. London. John Snow & Co. 1892. [Presented by the Publishers.]

Very few particulars regarding the birth and earlier life of John Wray appear to have been available for the compilation of his biography. It is nevertheless known that he was born at South Skirlaugh, near Hull, in 1779, and at the age of twenty-eight proceeded to Demerara, where he soon became fully occupied in the variety of employment which fell to his lot, as it does to the lot specially of a first missionary in a new scene of action, which in Mr. Wray's case was at Plantation Le Resouvenir, where he became the pioneer of mission work, not only on Le Resouvenir and in Demerara, but also, and chiefly, in Berbice. The account of Mr. Wray's mission extends from the year 1808 until 1836, during which period he was actively engaged in promoting the objects of the London Missionary Society in British Guiana; and the long delay in the publication of the journal is accounted for as follows. In 1831 the Society requested Mr. Wray to write a history of the Mission, to which request he assented in part. The attempt was made amid the care and burden of those claims resting upon him—claims increasing rather than diminishing with negro emancipation. His death, however, intervened, and his history, thus only in its first rough draft, was not more than one-fourth accomplished. Papers and diaries were forwarded to the Missionary Society, but for certain reasons were not utilised, and after a time their return was requested by the family, in whose possession they have since remained. With the aid of these documents Mr. Thomas Rain, although not compiling so complete and expansive a work as would at an earlier period have been necessary, has nevertheless produced an interesting record of the chief features of the life, character, and conquest of John Wray. The proceeds from the sale of the work, which contains a map of British Guiana and two portraits, are intended to be devoted to missions in the Colony.

*British Guiana Directory and Almanack for 1892.* 12mo. Pp. xvi.—505. Georgetown. C. K. Jardine. [Presented by the Publisher.]

The present issue of this annual comprises a mass of useful information, so well arranged and indexed that no difficulty is experienced in turning to any particular subject. It is replete with an abundance of general, official, and statistical information regarding British Guiana, in addition to which a concise historical account of the Colony is embodied. Amongst commercial questions, that of the gold industry probably at present occupies the most prominent position, and the latest information bearing

upon the question is contained in the book. The industry, it appears, has rapidly increased, the amount of gold exported in 1884 having been 250 ounces, valued at £1,019, whereas for three quarters of the year 1891 it had risen to 65,657 ounces, valued at £243,000. Particulars of the new Constitution of the Colony are also given, as are the latest statistics based upon the Census of 1891—in fact, it will be found an invaluable companion, not only to those having commercial or official dealings with the Colony, but also to those desiring reliable information regarding its past and present condition.

#### GENERAL.

**Grey, Earl (K.G., G.C.M.G.).**—*The Commercial Policy of the British Colonies and the McKinley Tariff.* 8vo. Pp. 79. London. Macmillan & Co. 1892. [Presented by the Publishers.]

The greater part of this work was originally written with a view to being published in the *Nineteenth Century*, as a sequel to a previous article contributed to that Review by the same author; but, owing to the length to which articles in the Review are necessarily restricted, Earl Grey found it impossible to set forth his ideas in so limited a space; hence their publication in the present form. Although affecting the whole of the British Colonies, the Author more especially addresses his remarks to Canada, a country in whose welfare, he states, he has never ceased to take a deep interest since it was his duty, nearly half a century ago, to take an active part in the management of its affairs as Secretary of State for the Colonies. The chief object Earl Grey has in writing this work is to show that the system of Free Trade adopted in the year 1846 proved beneficial to the whole British Empire, and that the subsequent entire abandonment by some of our principal Colonies of that policy in order to adopt one of Protection has caused much more serious evils than even the mistake made by the British Parliament and Government in 1860. In order to strengthen his arguments, Earl Grey refers to the feelings of animosity which have at different times been excited between the various Colonies by the measures adopted in pursuance of the policy of Protection, more especially as regards the complaints of Tasmania of the conduct of their neighbours in Victoria in imposing duties on the fruits of Tasmania to protect their own growers from their competition. Such action on the part of one Colony to another is, in the opinion of the Author, likely to affect in a manner far from favourable the maintenance of a firm union of all parts of the Empire, a result he would deplore in view of his belief that there exists at the present time a strong feeling for a closer union of the Colonies with the Mother Country. Regarding a complete freedom of trade between British North America and the United States, Earl Grey states that the same duties upon imports must be levied in both territories, since, if they were not so, but higher duties were levied in the one than in the other, goods would be imported into that where



the duties were lowest, for the purpose of being afterwards carried into the one in which they were higher, which would thus lose part both of the trade and of the revenue to which it would be fairly entitled. Canada, therefore, in order to obtain the perfectly free intercourse with the United States which is demanded by one party must, the Author upholds, consent to have its commerce with the rest of the world, including the United Kingdom, regulated by the revenue law of the United States, in settling which it has had no part, and which may at any moment be altered by a Congress in which it has no voice. The important position occupied by the Author, together with his views on the great question of Protection v. Free Trade as affecting the British Empire, cannot fail to ensure for his work a wide circulation.

**Parkin, G. R. (M.A.).**—*Round the Empire.* 12mo. Pp. xii.—263.  
London. 1892. [Presented by the Author.]

The object of this little work is to supply, for the use of elementary schools in the United Kingdom, a simple and connected account of those parts of our great Empire which are outside of the British Islands, and in which so many of the scholars are likely to seek their future homes. Special attention is directed in the work to grouping facts in such a way that their bearing upon the life of the nation may be easily grasped by young minds, and the closeness of the connection which exists between the industries and interests of our people in the Colonies and of those who remain at home is indicated as often as possible by familiar illustrations. Each group of Colonies is briefly dealt with by the Author as regards their physical features, their products and industries and general history, whilst in the concluding chapters such questions as the trade of the Empire, and how the Colonies are governed, are clearly and concisely set forth. A short preface is contributed by the Earl of Rosebery, who is of opinion that the youth of our race will learn from Mr. Parkin's work how great is their inheritance and their responsibility, and states "those outside these Islands may learn the splendour of their source and their home, as well as communion with the other regions under the Crown of Great Britain; and within, English, Scottish, and Irish children may learn, not to be shut in their shires, but that they are the heirs of great responsibilities and a vast inheritance."

## NOTICES TO FELLOWS.

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### MEETING OF JUNE 14.

The next and last Ordinary General Meeting of the present session will be held at the Whitehall Rooms, Hôtel Métropole, on Tuesday, June 14, at 8 P.M., when a paper will be read on "Our West Indian Colonies: their Resources and Means of Defence," by the Right Hon. Lord Brassey, K.C.B.

The chair will be taken by Sir Henry Barkly, G.C.M.G., K.C.B. Tea and coffee will be served at the close of the meeting.

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### ANNUAL CONVERSAZIONE.

The Annual Conversazione will be held at the Natural History Museum, Cromwell Road, on Wednesday, June 22, by permission of the Trustees of the British Museum. Cards will be sent to each Fellow at present in the United Kingdom, one admitting himself (*which will not be transferable*), and one for a lady. Any additional cards may be obtained upon applying to the Secretary and remitting the amount for the number required, together with the names of the persons in whose favour they are to be issued. The price of cards the applications for which are received up to 6 P.M. on Monday, June 20, will be 5s. each. The price of cards the applications for which are received after that hour will be 10s. each. The following arrangements are notified for the information of Fellows:—Carriages will enter the grounds by the East Gate and leave by the West Gate. Cards are to be given up on entering the Museum. *Special arrangements* for Cloak Rooms on both sides of the Main Entrance have been made. The Council will receive the guests in the Central Hall from 9 to 10 o'clock. The bands of the Coldstream Guards, and the 1st Life Guards, and the Ladies' Orchestra have been engaged, and will play in various parts of the building. Light Refreshments will be served from 9 o'clock to midnight.

Visitors travelling by railway to or from the Museum will be allowed the free use of the District Company's Subway, which leads from the South Kensington Railway Station direct into the grounds of the Museum.

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London, June 1, 1892.

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ESTABLISHED 1878.]

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[ESTABLISHED 1878.]

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Paid-up ... ..	£60,000	0	0
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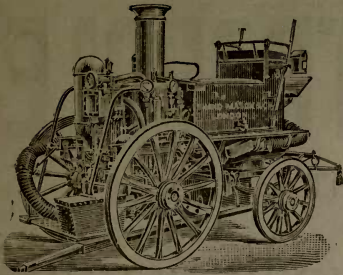
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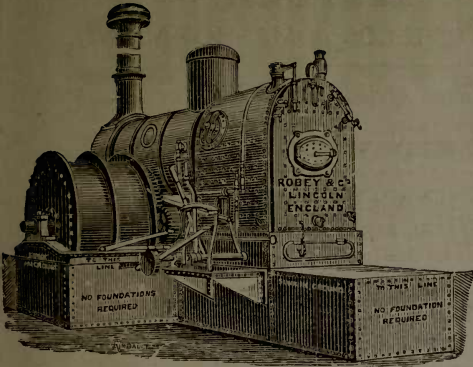
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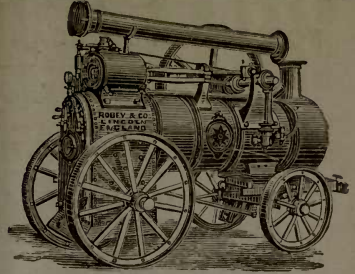
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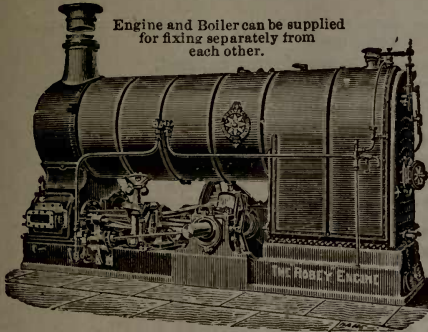
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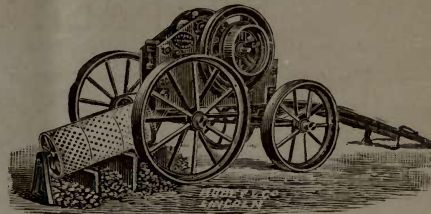


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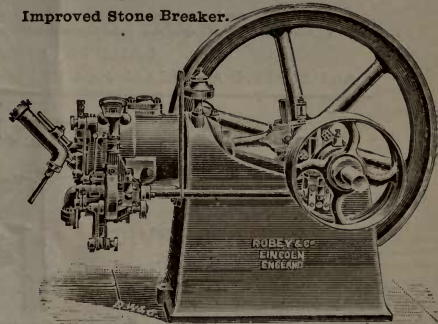


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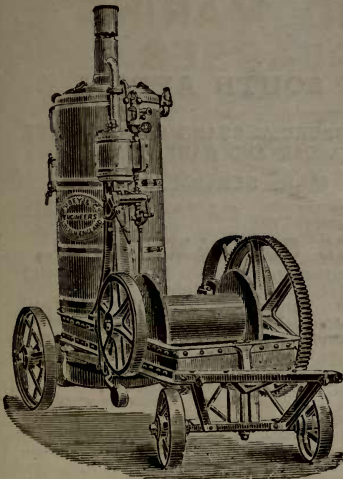
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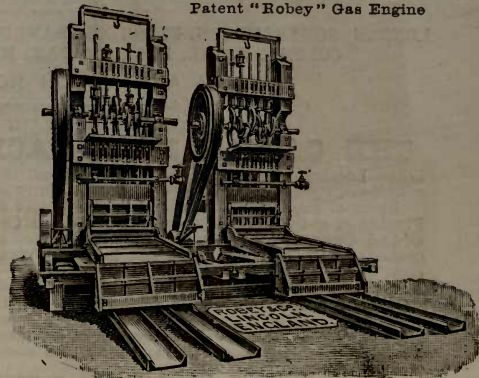
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