Gold-bearing country. 

Gabriel Read made the Otago rushes, and the great majority of supplies was met mainly by the early 1860s as the colony's capital. Out of the growing need for mining equipment Dunedin soon began to ship its produce, but miners rarely got the price they demanded, and the quality of gold and silver was often inferior. Nevertheless, gold was found, and the direct profit in gold-buying was noteworthy.

1863 caused a rapid exodus of gold from the colony, with over 10,000 leaving in 1864 and 1867. Many who remained were farmers, trying to change to farming from the gold rushes. Rural interests generally survived, as they were able to fend for themselves and were not weakened by the custom of miners liking gold. They found new goldfields on the West Coast in 1867. Hokianga enjoyed a leading place of export and as a base for gold from New Zealand gold. By 1867, Otago and Southland had a population of over 1,451, which was a significant part of the Otago's, but these people were still workable on farms after the gold rushes. 

The development of the country in the 1880s was marked by a wide variety of methods, and it was not until 1882 that gold production exceeded those of the Union Bank and the Bank of New South Wales together. Russell quickly gained recognition as the colony's leading financier, although his career was to suffer in the late 1880s.
Economic Tra... nation

More sophisticated farming techniques were improving production, processing and marketing of agricultural goods also required a higher level of organization in order to meet the demands of the market, both at home and abroad. The control and operation of these branches of the industry changed significantly in the first half of the century. In general, large-scale, locally controlled, and relatively inefficient operations gave way to larger, more centralized, and efficiency-conscious enterprises that generally employed overseas capital and expertise.

One of the notable features of New Zealand agriculture is the farmers' co-operative. This form of organization has been employed most extensively within the dairy industry, but there were also numerous attempts, most of them unsuccessful, to set up general farmers' co-operatives during the 1880s. (The two successful general co-operatives were the Timaru-based New Zealand Farmers' Co-operative Association and the Christchurch-based Canterbury Farmers' Co-operative Association.) The work that these general co-operatives tried to do was usually discharged by the stock and station agencies or town-based dairy enterprises, most of which were successful. In contrast, by 1900 local control of the dairy industry rested firmly with the farmer-run co-operatives.

Many of the dairy co-operatives grew from enterprising farmers, with capital resources, such as Chew Chong, the famous pioneer of the Taranaki dairy industry. But individual control was soon replaced by collective control as the industry continued to expand. Many of these enterprises grew and operations became more centralized.

The early twentieth century saw the emergence of a distinct regional pattern of financial control. In Taranaki, where especially in Manawatu, Waikato, and Northland, marketing in the hands of co-operatives which farmers controlled by holding the majority of shares. Divisions within the industry in the 1920s were due to this difference, but such distinctions were rapidly overtaken by the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies. Despite their democratic appearance, the co-operatives were more prone to the growing power of monopolies.
ointments to his company of refrigeration. While the first refrigeration companies were being formed he colony to build freezing works, stole a march by fitting out the Dunedin in Glasgow. Using company stock and capital and the Dunedin's freezing equipment, Davidson himself, with Thomas Brydone, his local superintendent, sent the first shipment from Port Chalmers in February 1869. The Dunedin's cargo struck a very favourable market in London and sold at 6d. to 7.5d. a pound, well above colonial prices. This first triumph was, however, soon offset by some less fortunate voyages.

During the 1880s the frozen meat trade was based largely on supplies of large drafts of sheep of dependable quality which the freezing works and the market required. The standard of carcasses shipped was greatly improved by 'the colonial half-bred', a dual-purpose wool and mutton sheep, which was a cross between Merino ewes and Lincoln rams. Such sheep were the basis of 'prime Canterbury' mutton which had an outstanding reputation in Britain by the 1890s. This breeding process was carried further by James Little and by Davidson, working independently along the same lines from the later 1860s. By inbreeding half-bred sheep, Little produced by 1890 the Corriedale sheep, well suited to New Zealand's drier pastures.

The meat trade required (in depressed times) fairly large amounts of capital, good standards of hygiene and storage, swift cheap transport, controlled marketing - and a growing market. Suffering from previous deficiencies on all these counts (and others), the industry progressed slowly and somewhat uneasily in its first decade. By 1892 there were twenty-five freezing works in New Zealand, but they were not working to capacity. The lower prices of 1885-88 discouraged many producers, and ships sometimes departed half empty. In return, ship-owners for some time refused to lower freight, which were the heaviest charge on profits. The whole system depended on the growing capacity of the British market to afford cheap colonial meat on rising real wages. In 1891 frozen meat ousted gold as the colony's second export and its earnings passed the £1 million mark.

Few economies have been so dependent on mercantile marine for their growth as New Zealand, yet this country has had only a minor voice in the control of these services. A major exception was the Union Steam Ship Company, formed in Dunedin in 1875. This line played a leading part in Australasian inter-colonial trade during the 1880s and 1890s. Trade to the United Kingdom was dominated in the 1860s and early 1870s by two British firms, Shaw Savill and the Albion Line, which amalgamated in 1882. The New Zealand Shipping Company was formed in Christchurch in 1873 to challenge their monopoly. However, all these lines later jointly resisted the lowering of freight rates for many years. The cost of shipping frozen meat did not fall from its 1882 level of 2.5d. per pound to 1d. until 1891, but was down to a 3d. by 1897.

The moderate success of the industry towards 1890 emphasized the difference between the exporting sector and other parts of the New Zealand economy. The colony's principal occupation was small farming at that time, its contribution to economic growth was minimal. In 1891 there were 20,015 holdings of 1-50 acres, a great proportion of which yielded only a bare self-sufficiency in food. Every penny of spare earnings would be needed to keep the family in minimum decency.特殊的" says of 320 acres would yield a better return with the whole family's labour and some cash return on produce. A slight fall in wheat prices might send a wasted season to many such Canterbury farmers. However on the threshold of economic farming in 1891 were the owners of the 2,600 flocks between 500 and 2,000 sheep. Very few of them could produce sheep meat and wool, and their wool probably fetched prices well below the run-of-the-mill average. However, many such farmers with skill and luck might achieve a comfortable living in the better seasons. A major socioeconomic resource of this period was the absorptive capacity of the countryside. As wage-earning declined, subsistence farming took up more and more of the excess labour force. It was a hard life but not a brutalizing one, contrasting markedly with the rural slum existence in Victoria which produced and protected Ned Kelly. The spread of small farming after 1900 and its roots deep in the subsistence farming before 1890, in that many rural families had long since come to terms with their environment without asking how.

The 1880s are traditionally regarded as the decade of runholders and monopoly. Much of the best land was indeed gathered in the hands of a few, by such devices as 'spotting', 'grid-ironing', and 'dummying' in these years, as it was in the formative years of many other new countries. The accumulation of large holdings was worse in Australia, but New Zealand was a smaller country more suitable for close subdivision. Its 'land monopoly' was more visible to the land-hungry, and 'land for the people' a more realistic aim in politics. In 1882, 32 per cent of the area in holdings (consisting of runs above 10,000 acres) was held by less than 1 per cent of registered owners. The latter, including companies, numbered 247. By 1892 the situation was little altered: there were 337 owners in the same category and in about the same proportion. Canterbury, the classic squatter country, was the most tied up in large estates, and therefore the most land-hungry. But Canterbury was not New Zealand, and there was more close settlement in other parts of the country. From the late 1870s there was much private subdivision. Parliament passed a series of Acts designed to open up Crown land (especially in the North Island) to men of small means. These measures varied in success, but they served to keep open a rural frontier in some parts of New Zealand. The general trend was to smaller areas and lower rentals, but even these adjustments were not enough. Many state leaseholders fell into arrears, and revaluation in 1889 was necessary to bring rentals down nearer the realities of subsistence farming on poorer Crown land. Though a drift to North Island bush sections eased some of the 'land hunger' in Otago and Canterbury, the sight of great areas of under-used pasture aroused growing support for 'busting up the big estates' in the south.