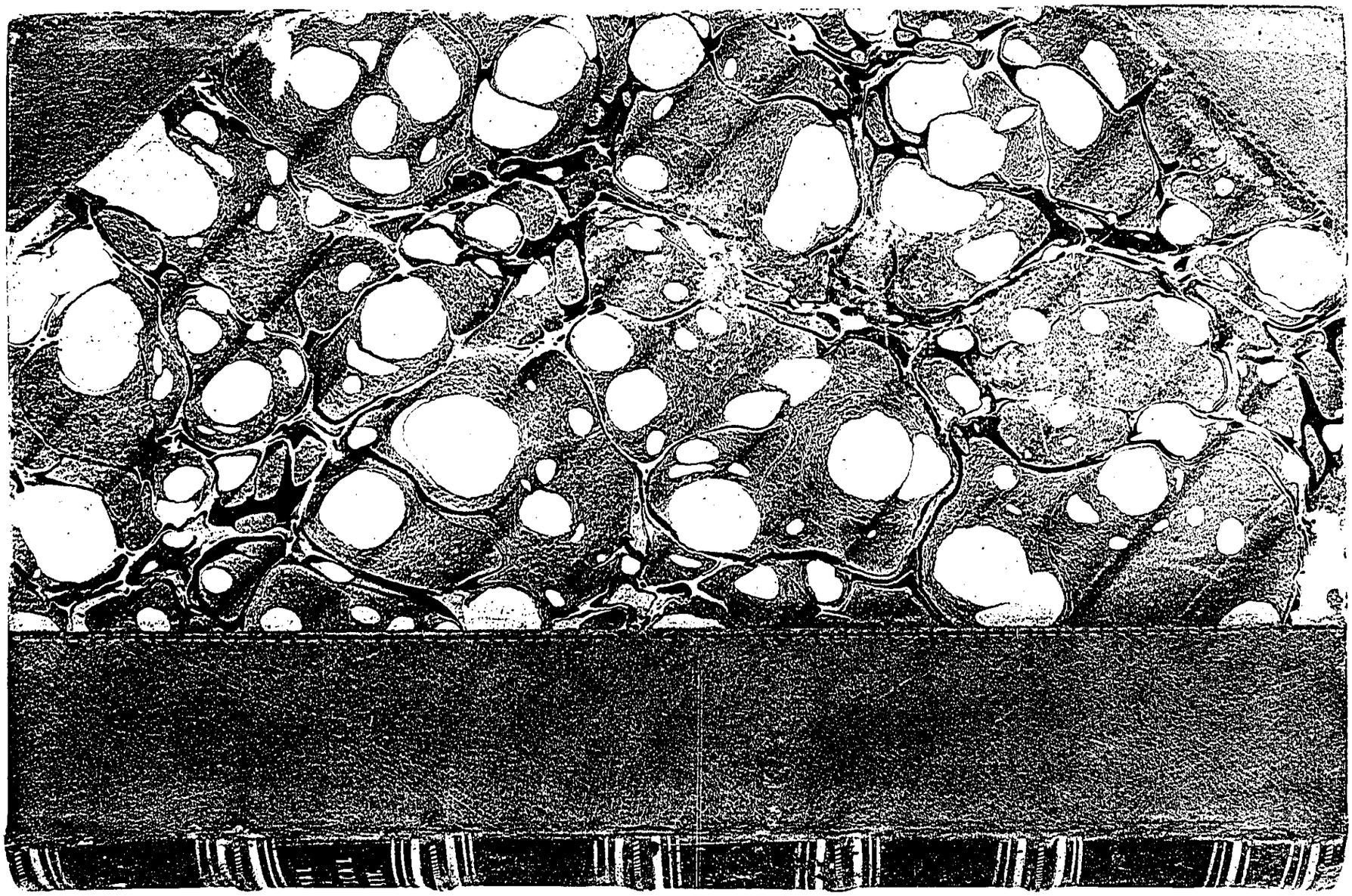

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JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

MARCH, 1862.

EXTRACT from the Minutes of a Special Meeting of the Council of the *Statistical Society*, held at 12, St. James's Square, London, on Friday, the 20th December, 1861.

THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN S. PAKINGTON, BART., M.P., G.C.B., *President, in the Chair.*

After approving the measures taken by the Honorary Secretaries in postponing the Monthly Meeting of Fellows, it was

RESOLVED,—

That the Council of the *Statistical Society* are deeply sensible of the magnitude of the calamity which has suddenly fallen upon our Queen and Country by the death of HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE CONSORT; they feel that in him the Nation has lost a promoter of Science, Art, Literature, and every Social

Improvement, as enlightened as he was zealous, and as judicious as he was persevering.

The Council also feel that by the lamented death of His Royal Highness, Statistical Science, and kindred branches of knowledge, have been deprived of a friend who displayed extensive and exact acquaintance with this particular class of study; and who, as the active Patron of this Society for twenty years, afforded it the support of his exalted position and distinguished talents.

John S. Pakington, *President.*

Wm. Newmarch, F.R.S.,
William A. Guy, M.B.,
William Golden Lumley, LL.M.,
} *Honorary Secretaries.*

Notes *on the* Progress *of the* Trade *of* England *with* China *since* 1833, *and on its* Present Condition *and* Prospects. *By* Colonel Sykes, M.P., F.R.S.

[Read before Section (F) at Manchester, September, 1861.]

Our present and prospective relations with China, both commercial and political, are so highly important, and involve such serious consequences, that a few brief observations on these subjects may neither be inopportune nor uninteresting; and the kindness of friends, by the transmission to me of a series of newspapers, chiefly "The Friend of China," printed at Canton, and the "North China "Herald," printed at Shanghae, has enabled me to extract and arrange data which, though incomplete, assist our judgment in forming a tolerably just estimate of the state of affairs. Whether our past policy towards China is justifiable or not, the extension of our commercial relations with the Chinese is sufficiently remarkable. In the year 1814 the total amount of imports and exports on British account was under three millions and three-quarters sterling. In 1827 the value was under five millions; and for the last five years of the East India Company's monopoly the average value of the Company's, and the private trade in which they permitted their servants to engage, was still under five millions sterling. Since the Act of 1833, which deprived the East India Company of their monopoly, as might be expected, a rush of competing interests has increased the trade since 1814 nearly sixfold. In 1856, according to statements which appeared in different numbers of the "Hong Kong "Government Gazette," the value of the trade, independently of the opium imported from India, amounted to 17,526,198*l.*, viz.:—

Periods.	Ports.	Imports.	Exports.
		£	£
Gazette, 1857, No. 95, April 25	Amoy	221,500	211,292
,, ,, 98, May 16	Canton	2,171,239	1,951,599
,, ,, 89, March 14	Foochow	97,916	814,033
,, ,, 90, March 21	Ningpoo	136,359	734,161
,, ,, 97, May 9	Shanghae	2,156,829	9,031,270
		4,783,843	12,742,355
Value of Opium	—	4,000,000	
		8,783,843	

It would thus appear that the exports exceeded the value in imports by nearly four millions, which must have been paid to China in silver; but as the balance of trade between India and China has always been in favour of India, most of the silver from Europe found its way to India through China in payment for Opium; and this fact assists to account for the silver which pours into India annually, and does not leave the country again; from the year 1834-35 to 1858-59 India imported 123,143,696*l.* sterling of bullion, of which only 19,752,659*l.* left the country again. If we pass from the above comprehensive view of the trade of the five treaty ports in 1857 to an examination of the enormous increase of the exports from Shanghae for a succession of years, without a commensurate increase of Imports, facts presents themselves which militate against probabilities.

I annex reports which have been published in the Chinese newspapers. The first (A) is a comparative statement of the export of tea and silk from Shanghae from the years 1844-45 to 1859-60, both inclusive. The second (B) appeared in "The Friend of China," printed at Canton, and gives statements of the export of tea and raw silk to Great Britain, commencing with 1843-44, and ending with 1857-58, giving the number of vessels annually which conveyed the tea and silk; but the exports from Ningpo are not included. The third statement (C) is from the "Hong Kong Overland Trade "Report" of the 31st March last, and comprises a statement of the Exports of Tea and Silk from the 1st July to 28th February annually for the last six years. The three statements, therefore, are from three different locations, and a comparison of them indicates discrepancies which could not have been published had they originated in a central office. Before commenting on these returns, it may be right to say that the area of trade by the treaty of Tien Tsin, or rather Pekin, extends from north latitude 39° (Tien Tsin) and 35° (New Chwang) to 20° south (Kung Chaw, Hainan), and from east longitude 120° (Taiwan Formosa) to Hankow on the west, on the Yang tse Kiang.

The return of the *Exports* from Shanghae appeared in the "North China Herald" of the 10th November, 1860, and commences with the year 1844-45, and terminates with the year 1860 to the 30th June. The qualities of the tea exported, black or green, are only distinguished from the years 1854-55, and only in the last year are the different countries enumerated to which the exports are destined. In 1844-45 the export of tea was only 3,800,627 lbs., and bales of silk 6,433. The very next year the quantity of tea was quadrupled, and the bales of silk rose to 15,192; and an increased export in both tea and silk took place annually, and the year the rebels took possession of Nankin, the export of tea rose to 69,431,000 lbs., and the bales of silk to 28,076. The next year

1853-54, as might have been expected from the confusion consequent upon the subversion of the Tartar authorities at Nankin, the export of tea fell to 50,343,847 lbs., but singularly the bales of silk rose to 58,319; but much more singularly the export of tea in the following year rose to the greatest amount it has ever exhibited from Shanghae, namely, 80,221,215 lbs., and the silk amounted to 53,965 bales. From this year the export of tea fluctuated from 39,135,939 lbs. in 1858-59 to 53,463,771 lbs. in 1859-60. The silk, nevertheless, maintained very high figures; in 1856-57 it rose to 92,160 bales, the greatest amount exported in one year, and in 1860 the export had not fallen below 67,874 bales. If we contrast the first and the last of the sixteen years in the report, a marvellous progress had been made in the export trade. Tea had increased more than 1,300 per cent., and the silk more than 950 per cent. Looking to the destination of the exports in 1860, it is found that Great Britain took more than one-half of the tea, 31,621,204 lbs., but only 19,084 bales of silk; the United States took the next greatest amount of tea, 18,299,388 lbs.; so that the Anglo-Saxon race, including our American brethren, would seem to be the greatest tea drinkers, for the rest of the world would appear to have taken from Shanghae only about 3,500,000 lbs. America took only 1,554 bales of silk, but 47,099 bales went to the continent of Europe and coastwise.

A review of this remarkable progress in the Export trade of Shanghae presents some anomalous and conflicting considerations. Since the year 1853 the rebels or Taepings have been in possession of Nankin, the ancient capital of China, and of several great tea and silk producing provinces on the Yang tse Kiang, or Great River, and Shanghae had to be supplied either from these provinces, or from provinces beyond the rebel territories and still under the Tartar authorities, but whose products would mostly have to pass through the rebel territory to reach Shanghae. Now a portion of the Europeans in China have exhausted damnifying epithets in depicting the rebel character and proceedings—they were bloodthirsty brigands and incendiaries, carrying desolation with them—were flocks of locusts, who, wherever they alighted, left a fertile land a howling waste, and were incapable of establishing regular government, or engaging in commercial relations. These accusations were even sanctioned in print by high authorities in China. I am not the advocate nor the apologist of the rebels, but I cannot refrain from asking myself how the trade of Shanghae could have flourished in the way it has done if the accusations be literally true. Annually increasing quantities of tea and silk could not be produced from howling wastes, and those products, if for the most part coming from provinces under Tartar rule, must have passed unmolested through Taeping territories, though as brigands they should have

plundered them. The Taepings profess to have a divine mission to extirpate the Tartars, their foreign rulers, and to destroy idolatry; and in prosecuting these objects, in combat, in the field, and in storming cities and towns, great atrocities must have been perpetrated; but in respect to the rural population, as contra-distinguished from the Tartars, a fact is patent, that when unexpectedly repulsed in their attacks upon Shanghae in August, 1860, by French and English troops, although exasperated by a sense of betrayal, in their retreat they left uninjured the standing crops around Shanghae, and they did not molest Europeans.

The second (B) trade report appeared in the "Friend of China," and comprises the Export trade in tea and silk from the Treaty ports of China, except Ningpo, from the year 1843-44 to 1857-58 to Great Britain, and it gives the number of vessels which annually sailed from China. The greatest amount of tea in any one of those years sent to Great Britain, was 91,931,800 lbs., and 50,489 bales of silk, in 130 vessels, in 1855-56, chiefly from Canton and Shanghae, although Foochow contributed 26,764,700 lbs. of Tea. The next year 61,468,600 lbs. of tea were sent from the same ports, but silk rose to 74,215 bales, in 113 vessels; but in neither year did Foochow contribute a bale of silk; in 1857-58, 149 vessels were engaged in the trade, and they took 76,744,400 lbs. of tea, and 60,736 bales of silk, Foochow not exporting any silk.

The third trade report gives the export for nine months of the season 1860-61 of Teas to Great Britain and the United States, and of raw Silk to Great Britain and France. From these incomplete returns, it would appear that the export of tea has diminished, as compared with the nine months of three preceding years, but that the export of silk has increased from 56,076 bales to 70,805, France taking only 6,586 of the number.

(A.)—*Comparative Statement of the* EXPORT *of* TEA *and* SILK *from* SHANGHAE.

Year ending 30th June.	Total Black.	Total Green.	Tea, Total Pounds.	Silk, Total Bales.
1844–45	—	—	3,800,627	6,433
'45–46	—	—	12,459,988	15,192
'46–47	—	—	12,494,140	15,972
'47–48	—	—	15,711,142	21,176
'48–49	—	—	18,303,074	18,134
1849–50	—	—	22,363,370	15,237
'50–51	—	—	36,722,540	17,243
'51–52	—	—	57,675,000	20,631
'52–53	—	—	69,431,000	28,076
'53–54	—	—	50,343,847	58,319
1854–55	45,385,816	34,835,429	80,221,245	53,965
'55–56	29,115,273	30,184,693	59,299,966	57,463
'56–57	12,470,686	28,443,704	40,914,390	92,160
'57–58	23,978,114	25,988,527	51,317,003	66,391
'58–59	—	—	39,135,939	85,970
'59–60	25,663,666	27,800,105	53,463,771	67,874

EXPORT *of* TEA *and* SILK *from* SHANGHAE, *from 1st July*, 1859, *to 30th June*, 1860.

Destination.	Black Tea, lbs.	Green Tea, lbs.	Tea, Total lbs.	Total Bales. Silk.
To Great Britain, *direct*	23,098,813	8,522,391	31,621,204	19,084
,, United States	659,401	17,639,987	18,299,388	1,554
,, Australian Colonies	534,006	380,805	914,811	—
,, North American Colonies	48,533	386,330	434,863	—
,, The Continent of Europe	1,105,398	66,964	1,172,362	47,099
,, Coastwise	217,275	803,628	1,020,903	
,, Manila	240	—	240	137
Total	25,663,666	27,800,105	53,463,771	67,874

(B.)—EXPORT *of* TEA *and* RAW SILK *to Great Britain from "Treaty Ports."*

(0,000's at *unit* end omitted. Thus 41,63 = 41,630,000 lbs.)

Exports in Previous Years.	Total Black.	Total Green.	Total Pounds.	Raw Silk, Bales.
	Mln. lbs.	Mln. lbs.	Mln. lbs.	No.
Year 1843–44, in 97 vessels	41,63	8,97	50,61	—
,, '44–45, ,, 105 ,, ...	41,37	12,19	53,57	10,727
,, '45–46, ,, 117 ,, ...	44,97	12,60	57,58	18,600
,, '46–47, ,, 106 ,, ...	45,50	7,86	53,36	19,000
,, '47–48, ,, 92 ,, ...	40,73	6,96	47,69	21,377
,, '48–49, ,, 86 ,, ...	38,76	8,47	47,24	17,228
,, '49–50, ,, 98 ,, ...	45,84	8,12	53,96	16,134
Year 1850–51, Canton.....	36,01	6,19	42,20	5,260
,, Shanghae.....	19,85	1,96	21,81	16,883
Total in 115 vessels	55,86	8,15	64,02	22,143
Year 1851–52, Canton.....	—	—	35,61	2,012
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	29,52	21,028
Total in 117 vessels	—	—	65,13	23,040
Year 1852–53, Canton.....	—	—	32,32	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	40,57	—
Total in 113 vessels	—	—	72,90	25,571
Year 1853–54, Canton.....	—	—	45,13	6,799
,, Fuhchau	—	—	6,14	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	25,94	55,185
Total in 134 vessels	—	—	77,21	61,984
Year 1854–55, Canton.....	—	—	16,12	7,178
,, Fuhchau	—	—	19,51	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	50,87	44,308
Total in 133 vessels	—	—	86,50	51,486
Year 1855–56, Canton.....	—	—	30,10	8,435
,, Fuhchau	—	—	26,76	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	34,76	42,054
Total in 130 vessels	—	—	91,93	50,489
Year 1856–57, Canton.....	—	—	19,63	18,706
,, Fuhchau	—	—	20,83	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	20,99	55,509
Total in 113 vessels	—	—	61,46	74,215
Year 1857–58, Canton.....	—	—	24,39	29,066
,, Fuhchau	—	—	23,30	—
,, Shanghae.....	—	—	29,04	31,670
Total in 149 vessels	—	—	76,74	60,736

(C.)—*Export of* TEA *to Great Britain and United States, and of* RAW SILK *to Great Britain and France.—Season* 1860-61.

TO GREAT BRITAIN.

Date.	Ships' Name.	From Amoy.	From Shanghae.	From Foochow.	From the Canton Waters.	Total Pounds.
	Total from 1st July, 1860, to 28th Feb., 1861.....	250,000	7,602,369	27,812,900	34,156,742	69,822,011
	As compared with corresponding period 1859-60	—	25,869,370	48,295,466	21,044,480	95,209,336
	,, ,, 1858-59	—	11,767,864	11,478,800	20,575,564	43,822,228
	,, ,, 1857-58	560,000	21,609,331	18,374,634	5,568,400	46,112,365
	Sailed since.					
Mar. 2	Columbian (mail str.)...	—	—	—	—	—
,, 2	Humphrey Nelson	—	—	546,800	—	546,800
,, 3	Bacchant.....	—	548,932	—	—	548,932
,, 5	Merchantman	—	—	—	987,200	987,200
,, 12	Corea	—	—	—	759,200	759,200
,, 16	Pekin (mail str.).....	—	—	—	—	—

Date.	Ships' Name.	To London.	To Liverpool.	To Out-Ports.	Total Export.	Silk, Bales and Cases.		
						England.	Marseilles.	Total.
	Total from 1st July, 1860, to 28th Feb., 1861.....	62,821,723	5,396,388	1,603,900	69,822,011	64,219	6,586	70,805
	As compared with corresponding period 1859-60	58,951,108	3,847,333	2,410,875	95,209,336	49,586	4,115	53,701
	,, ,, 1858-59	39,680,313	2,218,415	1,923,500	43,822,228	55,329	6,571	61,900
	,, ,, 1857-58	38,072,608	6,107,277	1,932,480	46,112,365	50,617	5,461	56,076
	Sailed since.							
Mar. 2	Columbian (mail str.)....	—	—	—	—	1,234	212	1,446
,, 2	Humphrey Nelson	546,800	—	—	546,800	—	—	—
,, 3	Bacchant.....	548,942	—	—	548,932	1,383	—	1,383
,, 5	Merchantman	987,200	—	—	987,200	—	—	—
,, 12	Corea	759,200	—	—	759,200	—	—	—
,, 16	Pekin (mail str.).....	—	—	—	—	1,833	488	2,321

(D.)—*Exports from England to China.*

Articles.	Company's Trade.		Privilege Trade.	
	1833.			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	120,000	7,024	packages 65	1,490
,, manufactures.....*pieces*	15,500	13,174	cases 209 bales 128	13,067
Broadcloth.....*pieces*	11,136	104,011	,, 1,243	43,498
Other descriptions..... ,,	92,337	251,253	cases 6	
Hardware and cutlery .....*tons*	602	3,641	,, 1 packages 6 tons 85	581
Total	—	384,015	—	71,124

Articles.	1844.		1845.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	3,399,074	117,853	2,609,850	99,958
	yards.		yards.	
,, manufactures.....*pieces*	98,798,097	1,457,177	108,449,089	1,633,069
Woollens, entered by the piece	209,985	558,567	183,447	527,266
,, ,, yard	68,786	6,192	107,956	10,940
	cwts.		cwts.	
Hardware and cutlery.....*tons*	2,294	16,281	2,877	20,668
Glass	13,431	12,956	6,706	7,539
Total	—	2,305,617	—	2,394,827

Articles.	1846.		1847.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	5,367,828	221,856	4,104,040	164,264
,, manufactures .....*yards*	78,693,057	1,024,130	60,515,124	846,842
Woollens, entered by the piece	149,301	433,353	141,645	387,667
,, ,, yard	51,182	5,247	20,177	1,983
Hardware and cutlery ....*cwts.*	1,461	13,793	664	5,294
Glass ..... ,,	6,583	5,929	8,775	7,109
Total	—	1,791,439	—	1,503,969

(D.)—*Exports from England to China—Contd.*

Articles.	1848.		1849.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn ..... *lbs.*	4,572,276	142,423	3,352,994	118,094
,, manufactures ..... *yards*	67,507,519	807,012	78,301,138	879,662
Woollens, entered by the piece	154,700	376,315	158,445	376,220
,, ,, yard	72,967	2,870	32,184	2,190
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	745	4,444	1,053	7,583
Glass ..... ,,	6,181	5,482	6,397	6,299
Total	—	1,445,959	—	1,537,109

Articles.	1850.		1851.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	3,116,176	126,569	4,319,330	189,047
,, manufactures.....*yards*	73,209,187	891,691	114,975,270	1,406,816
Woollens, entered by the piece	161,771	398,485	147,578	368,417
,, ,, yard	66,242	5,413	49,561	4,982
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	510	5,561	915	7,017
Glass ..... ,,	7,083	6,167	8,432	6,906
Total	—	1,574,145	—	2,161,268

Articles.	1852.		1853.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	3,170,992	118,648	5,234,617	198,485
,, manufactures.....*yards*	119,168,851	1,388,456	98,611,643	1,205,995
Woollens, entered by the piece	117,909	308,782	81,297	198,604
,, ,, yard	25,986	2,170	53,114	4,201
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	578	9,357	511	6,930
Glass ..... ,,	4,648	3,791	4,954	2,859
Total	—	1,918,244	—	1,749,597

Articles.	1855.		1854.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	3,614,709	139,293	2,864,500	95,511
,, manufactures.....*yards*	41,672,293	498,833	74,033,436	785,922
Woollens, entered by the piece	58,772	147,710	44,636	130,396
,, ,, yard	73,184	7,576	17,793	2,711
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	240	2,431	643	5,609
Glass ..... *super. ft.*	—	—	4,070	420
cwts.	3,094	1,949	7,488	6,580
Total	—	1,000,716	—	1,277,944

(D.)—*Exports from England to China—Contd.*

Articles.	1856.		1857.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	5,775,620	210,294	3,462,611	158,081
,, manufactures.....*yards*	112,665,202	1,330,839	121,587,515	1,572,397
Woollens, entered by the piece	92,109	263,181	94,181	276,057
,, ,, yard	46,466	4,238	121,888	8,801
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	1,355	8,500	1,515	11,720
Glass .....*super. ft.*	—	—	—	—
cwts.	1,507	3,393	15,627	14,019
Total	—	2,216,123	—	2,449,982

Articles.	1858.		1859.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		£
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	6,231,991	26,336	9,198,629	430,964
,, manufactures.....*yards*	138,488,957	1,821,640	193,935,633	2,755,092
Woollens, entered by the piece	127,450	383,190	222,100	672,045
,, ,, yard	63,249	6,475	265,264	28,659
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	1,842	12,318	2,287	21,589
Glass .....*super. ft.*	1,087	126	—	—
cwts.	14,493	15,638	11,360	12,057
Total	—	2,876,447	—	4,457,573

Articles.	1860.		1861.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£		
Cotton twist and yarn .....*lbs.*	8,764,036	410,416	—	—
,, manufactures.....*yards*	222,963,780	3,157,359	—	—
Woollens, entered by the piece	280,386	826,465	—	—
,, ,, yard	663,215	41,638	—	—
Hardware and cutlery.....*cwts.*	3,790	25,735	—	—
Glass .....*super. ft.* / *cwts.*	not stated	29,864	—	—
Total	—	5,318,036	—	—

(E.)—EXPORTS *to China* (*including Hong-Kong*), *Years* 1856 *to* 1860.

PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Principal and Other Articles.	Declared Real Value.				
	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	£	£	£	£	£
Apparel, slops, & haberdashery	15,676	14,253	17,628	22,200	32,814
Beer and ale	12,620	35,769	25,760	46,482	99,493
Coals, cinders, and culm	20,758	45,523	28,939	46,068	68,655
Copper, wrought & unwrought	36,940	24,929	21,224	36,722	58,984
Cottons, entered by the yard	1,330,839	1,572,397	1,821,640	2,755,092	3,157,359
,, at value	3,102	1,431	2,182	3,586	2,746
Cotton yarn	210,294	158,081	266,336	430,964	410,416
Earthenware and porcelain	2,375	4,126	4,359	4,167	6,903
Glass manufactures	7,447	14,844	17,070	20,958	29,864
Hardwares and cutlery	8,500	11,720	12,318	21,589	25,735
Iron, wrought and unwrought, including unwrought steel	66,638	74,413	63,572	114,746	145,313
Lead and shot	80,109	92,623	48,211	65,670	114,035
Linens, entered by the yard	51,703	18,041	15,332	25,735	30,855
Stationery	5,836	4,927	7,510	7,670	11,066
Tin plates	6,879	4,298	10,193	12,776	4,167
Woollens, entered by the piece	263,181	276,057	383,190	672,045	826,465
,, by the yard	4,238	8,801	6,475	28,659	41,638
,, at value	1,223	1,994	1,048	2,029	2,568
All other articles	87,765	85,755	123,460	140,415	248,960
Total	2,216,123	2,449,982	2,876,447	4,457,573	5,318,036

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Principal and Other Articles.	Computed Real Value.				
	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	£	£	£	£	£
Cochineal	6,635	2,229	1,749	4,717	4,396
Glass, window and shades and cylinders	421	6,153	11,216	15,670	2,764
Indigo	—	—	3,878	—	131
Iron, steel, unwrought	—	—	570	1,659	2,854
Lead, pig and sheet	7,784	1,861	648	724	—
Opium	—	—	20,856	—	—
Quicksilver	15,295	2,238	5,502	37,924	26,013
Spelter	4,455	—	4,979	11,056	8,806
Spirits, brandy	4,651	8,210	3,808	7,582	12,986
Wine	19,142	24,156	17,440	30,199	45,030
All other articles	12,228	10,345	19,359	19,132	30,541
Total	70,611	55,192	90,005	128,663	133,521
Total of British and Foreign produce	2,286,734	2,505,174	2,966,452	4,586,236	5,451,557

(F.)—IMPORTS *from China (including Hong-Kong), Years* 1856 *to* 1860.

Principal and Other Articles.	Computed Real Value.				
	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	£	£	£	£	£
Camphor, unrefined	3,196	471	296	—	5,451
Cassia lignea	19,747	5,425	21,472	6,413	20,399
China or porcelain ware and earthenware	3,318	1,611	3,106	6,616	8,476
Cotton piece goods	1,766	10,695	857	256	903
Ginger preserved	4,393	4,330	6,119	8,099	11,340
Japanned and lacquered ware	923	799	1,088	2,170	4,574
Mats and matting	6,063	1,088	1,786	12,354	18,227
Oil, chemical, Essential and perfumed; cassia	1,182	2,224	3,876	7,621	10,419
Oil, chemical, not particularly enumerated	8,667	4,990	12,128	15,757	43,087
Rhubarb	30,644	46,017	28,797	31,203	22,216
Silk, raw	3,646,116	6,568,910	1,638,152	3,055,262	2,185,742
,, waste	6,540	43,073	35,579	50,556	38,940
,, thrown	453,552	298,647	162,918	123,979	110,486
Silk manufactures:—					
Crape shawls, scarfs, & handkerchiefs, and crape in pieces	27,681	11,297	11,574	31,328	31,205
China damask	1,518	1,278	1,967	849	376
Pongees and pongee handkerchiefs	12,383	11,381	7,569	21,537	21,118
Silk manufactures, not particularly enumerated	8,964	5,630	2,749	5,078	3,270
Sugar unrefined	27,698	79,725	17,337	1,173	47,388
Tea	5,123,080	4,310,265	5,036,293	5,528	6,601,894
Tin	—	—	7,261	—	—
Wax, vegetable	—	—	—	20,023	9,389
Wool, sheep and lambs'	6,425	11,933	3,212	7,266	2,265
All other articles	27,792	28,919	70,273	78,109	126,596
Total	9,421,648	11,448,639	7,073,509	9,014,310	9,323,764

The first returns relate exclusively to the exports from China, and, as before stated, are derived from the newspaper press in China; but, owing to the obliging courtesy of the Board of Trade in London, I am enabled to annex the exports from England to China corresponding to the years I have quoted of exports from the treaty ports to England, and to add also the quantities and value of the exports and imports to and from China for the years 1856 to 1860, both inclusive.

It will be observed that the value of the exports of the East India Company in 1833 amounted to only 384,015*l.* and of the privileged trade of the captains of their ships to 71,124*l.*—a marvellous contrast to the value of the exports in 1860, which amounted to 5,318,036*l.*

A glance over the returns shows that the balance of trade has been annually against England, varying from 4,000,000*l.* to 7,000,000*l.* sterling. In 1856 the computed real value of the imports from China was 9,421,648*l.*, and the value of the exports to China 2,216,123*l.*—difference, 7,205,525*l.*; but in 1860 the value of the exports had risen to 5,318,036*l.*, and the imports stood at 9,323,764*l.*—difference, 4,005,728*l.*

Our trade with the Chinese resolves itself almost exclusively into our taking from them teas and raw silks, and their taking from us cottons, cotton yarn, woollens.

Although one important item in the trade with China could not appear in the official trade reports, in consequence of its having been contraband; I must, nevertheless, give it prominent notice, from the great value it bore to the whole trade between India and China, without reference to the political, military, and social results which the persistent efforts to force it into China have effected—I mean opium. Volumes have been written upon the subject, with which the *religious* and *mercantile* public must be familiar, although probably not so well known to the rest of the community. The Tartar government, with extraordinary resolution, long resisted the introduction of opium into China; imposing even the penalty of death upon parties engaged in smuggling; and this is the more remarkable as the Tartar authorities were quite alive to the very great revenue they might have derived from its legal introduction. They, nevertheless, chose to forego this advantage, and even risk hostile collision with us—as the Emperor did by ordering the seizure of 20,000 chests in the several depôts at the mouth of the Canton river—rather than profit by its introduction; in truth, whatever the pretexts for our wars with China, they really originated in opium complications and our smuggling transactions. Unhappily, it was to our interest to stimulate a taste for a luxury which, once indulged in, became, in fact, a constitutional necessity. A gradually increasing portion of the middle and better classes on the coasts of China, including many of the Tartar and Chinese Mandarins, acquired the habit of smoking opium, and as well for the luxury as for the bribes they received, the smuggling trade was winked at, and the export of chests of opium from India to China increased from 33,674 in the year 1836-7 to 75,822 chests in the year 1858-9.* Nevertheless, even when the prestige of the Tartar government was almost paralyzed by the capture of Nankin, Sir Henry Pottinger could not get a clause inserted in the Treaty of Nankin legalizing the traffic in opium, and

* The net receipts from opium sold in Bengal in 1836-37 was 1,334,096*l.*, and from pass duty in Bombay 200,871*l.*, total 1,489,038*l.*

In 1858-59 the net receipts by Bengal sales was 3,898,114, and from Bombay passes 1,448,277*l.*, total 5,346,397*l.*

it was only by the recent capture of Pekin and the complete prostration of the Tartar government that the object was effected. But now that it is effected as far as the legal sanction goes, our Consul at Shanghae has been engaged in remonstrances with the Tartar Governor, for arbitrarily subjecting Chinese dealers in opium to what are called "squeezes;" that is, heavy contributions, under the pretext of giving aid to the government against the rebels, but really as a punishment for purchasing and facilitating the introduction of opium into the interior of the country. Two Chinese merchants at Shanghae had contributions levied from them amounting to several thousand pounds sterling. I believe similar obstructions to the operations of the opium clause act of the treaty, have occurred at the other consulates. But an unexpected and more formidable impediment to the operation of the opium clause comes from parties with whom we had not previously been in contact, and it may result that we shall again be involved in wasting our blood and treasure to effect that object with the rebels or Taepings which it has cost England so dearly to effect with the Tartars. As we may be involved hostilely with the Taepings or rebels, on the same commercial questions which unhappily involved us with the Tartars, a few words on their origin and present status will not be inconsistent with this paper. Subsequent to 1833, a stimulus to Protestant missionary labours in China was given, and England, America, and Germany contributed to assist in the promulgation of Christianity in China; but for a great length of time very little progress appeared upon the surface; nevertheless, it would seem, from recent events, that a silent and gradual progress was making. Mr. Roberts, an American missionary, at present residing at Nankin under the protection of the rebel government, has been in China, it is understood, for fully thirty years, but he himself states that he has yet to learn the Mandarin or polished dialect. Gutzlaff, a German, must have been a contemporary of Mr. Roberts. I had the pleasure of a personal acquaintance with Gutzlaff, and corresponded with him on his second return to China, and was indebted to him for a valuable catalogue of books on Buddhist ethics, in the Pali language but in the Chinese character, which catalogue I published in the "Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society." Gutzlaff was a scholar, and was carrying out his Christian mission with great practical zeal, when he died. He originated a Christian union of Chinese converts, with a view to the instruction of preachers, who, as natives, might penetrate into the provinces of the Empire, and return occasionally to head-quarters to report progress. In 1844 the union numbered only 37; in 1845 the numbers were 88, and in 1848 they were 1,799, and are now, it is said, between 2,000 and 3,000.

The editor of "The Friend of China" says:—That Gutzlaff's "system was eminently successful in its results, even the head of the

"Anglo-Malacca College, its bitter antagonist when Gutzlaff was "alive, must now admit; and it is part of our present essay to point "to the fact that the religious element in the great rebellion has all "to be attributed to the operations of Gutzlaff's Christian Union."

"The following particulars of the Union were received by us* "from Dr. Gutzlaff himself in 1849, the year before Hung-tsieu-"chen aroused his countrymen to revolt:"—

"During the past two years upwards of two thousand persons have enrolled themselves as members of the Union, and have been baptized.

"At the close of 1844 the Union numbered thirty-seven. This was the year of its formation, by a few natives of the eastern part of the province of Kwang Tung, who had been converted from idolatry through the exertions of several praiseworthy missionaries.

At the close of	1845	the numbers were	.....	88
,,	'46	,,	.....	246
,,	'47	,,	.....	657
,,	'48	,,	.....	1,799

"And at the present time between two and three thousand.

"The system pursued by the Society is as follows:—

"The head quarters are in Hong Kong. The senior preacher, during the time of his stay here, is the president.

"Any Chinese of good character, and if approved of by the general body, may become an associate. After having given proofs of the interest which he takes in the study of religion, and having made a declaration of faith, he is admitted a member, *but he is not baptized until he has given the most convincing proofs of his sincerity.*

"The elder members of the different congregations instruct the younger in all points of doctrine.

"The Old and New Testaments are diligently studied, and every member is required to prepare essays in writing, which are afterwards read or recited extemporaneously.

"Those members who determine on becoming preachers, come to Hong Kong, and undergo a probation of two years, and are sent out in the interim as co-adjutors of preachers of standing.

"The stay of the preachers from head quarters is limited, varying from two to eight months, according to the distance of the province to which they belong and are sent.

"The preachers, on return here, diligently pursue their studies in conjunction with the other members; and so they go on continually increasing in knowledge; and there is reason to believe that some of them are indeed good and faithful servants.

"On the evening when I visited the Union, the following was the order of the exercises:—

"From the first body of men who spoke the Hak-ka and Pun-ti dialects, companies of one preacher and three members or associates recited each a chapter from the New Testament, and then went out together to visit bodies of workmen in different parts of the town, and who, at the close of their daily labours, would be at liberty to listen to instruction.

"I could not catch the names of all who recited the Scriptures, but I understood them to be from the different provinces which I have marked with an asterisk in the list annexed."

* The Editor of "The Friend of China."

Provinces.	Preachers.
Pe-che-le	2
*Shan-tung	2
*Shan-se	4
*Gnan-whuy	3
Kiang-su	2
*Che-kiang	2
*Kiang-si	12
*Hun-an	5
*Hu-quang	3
Houpeh	3
*Fokien	8
*Kwang-tung	44
Quang-se	8
Yunnan	2
Hoonan	3
*Kwei-chii	2
*Sze-chuen	3
*Kan-suh	1
Shen-si	2
*Borders of Tonquin	2
Isle of Hainan	3
Mantchouria	3
	119

22 Provinces.

Reprinted from "State and Progress of the Work of Native Evangelists."

"Few people, even among the present body of missionaries in China, have an idea of the extent to which Gutzlaff carried his semi-political, semi-religious schemes in regard to the Celestial Empire; and equally few know of the opposition which he received; principally from those who should have helped him to carry out plans which, in the main, were intrinsically good. With Gutzlaff's death the whole Union may be said to have fallen through so far as European management went;—the funds which he had intended for the Union's maintenance being, by his imbecility on his death bed, diverted to other channels."

From the above list, which was published in "The Friend of "China," of the 22nd June, 1861, it would appear that there had been fourty-four native preachers of Christianity in the province of Kwang Tung, where the rebellion originated. The leader of it, Hung-tsien-chuen, had been a pupil of the missionaries at Hong-Kong. It does not seem at first that the Christian movement in Kwang Tung had any political object; but the Tartar authorities endeavoured to suppress it by beheading the converts as promulgators of "depraved doctrines," and self-preservation led them to combine and resist. In 1848-9 Hung-tsien-chuen set up his standard, and, pretending to have been taken up into heaven, and to have been charged with a divine mission to extirpate idolatry and the Tartars, and to promulgate Christianity,—he took the generic title of Taeping, or Great Peace. The masses of the native Chinese population knew and cared little about Christianity, nor were they disposed to fight for idolatry, but the expulsion of their foreign conquerors, the Tartars, was a popular object, and they thronged to the standard of Hung-tsein-chein in such multitudes that he was soon in the possession of the province of Kwang Tung, except the capital, "Canton," which he also would have taken but for the interference of British ships of war, and he subsequently made steady progress towards Nankin, the ancient capital of the empire, which, in 1853, he took possession of, and has held ever since, notwithstanding a siege of some duration by an imperial army, but which was totally routed in May, 1860. Since then the military strength of the rebels has been gradually increasing. Mr. Roberts states that they have several armies in the field, one of them even threatening Pekin; and there is a very strong impression that, but for the British having

interdicted the approach of the rebels to the treaty ports, they would speedily fall into their hands; thus depriving the Tartar government of the pecuniary aid which it now derives from the very large customs collections made at the treaty ports, under the superintendence of European agents, who had been in the British service; thus exhibiting a practical illustration of our professed neutrality between the belligerent parties. The nature of this paper would not sanction the discussion of the conflicting opinions promulgated respecting the character and conduct equally of the rebels and of the Tartars. There can be no doubt they practise towards each other the most revolting atrocities, such as are the usual and melancholy accompaniments of civil war, exasperated and embittered by religious fanaticism. I can only consider the question in relation to the prospects of British trade with China. The expenditure of British blood and British treasure in three successful wars have extorted from the Tartars all the facilities for commerce that the British trader desired to have; leaving, however, in Tartar breasts a burning resentment at the degradation of the Imperial Government, and in Tartar officials a manifest disposition to obstructive subterfuges in carrying out the treaty of Tien-Tsin. The Taepings, or rebels, on their part, issue proclamations professing amity for foreigners, calling them Christian brethren, and inviting them, with one exception, to enter into commercial relations, but the traffic in opium they denounce in a religious ordinance, and threaten the penalty of death to those who engage in it. The tax-payers of England, therefore, will have to determine whether the British Government is to tread in its former steps, and, for one article of commerce, waste life and money to force upon a reluctant people, for selfish gain, a deleterious product, while at the same time we intervene to crush a national movement to throw off a foreign oppression, which, under analogous circumstances in Italy, has had our warmest sympathy, and at the success of which all free men rejoice.

Statistical Observations *relative to the* Growth *of the* Human Body (*Males*) *in* Height *and* Weight, *from* Eighteen *to* Thirty Years *of* Age, *as illustrated by the Records of the Borough Gaol of Liverpool. By* J. T. Danson.

Very little is yet known, with any degree of certainty, of the average height, or weight, of either men or women, in this country, when at maturity. Still less is known as to the precise age at which, as a rule, maturity, so far as it is indicated by a cessation of increase in height, or weight, or both, is attained, by either sex. Yet there is some value, undoubtedly, in this knowledge. It is a very long time since, by a rule purely empirical, we fixed upon twenty-one years complete as the age at which a man shall, in this country, be deemed fit to take care of himself, and be deemed fully responsible for his actions. This rule assumes something more than mere physical maturity. But this description of maturity is so obviously the basis of every other, and any inquiry touching intellectual or moral maturity is attended with so much more difficulty, that our science, while gradually supplying a scientific basis for rules thus empirically founded, is clearly called upon to deal first with physical maturity. Of this, height and weight are the most obvious, if not the best indications. Physical maturity has also considerable importance with reference to the military strength of a nation; and in this point of view it is desirable that we should be able to compare our male population with that of other nations.

M. Quetelet, in his work "Sur l'Homme," has given some information on the subject, as regards his own country (Belgium). But that country cannot be taken as indicating the condition of any other; and, if it could, the number of individuals measured and weighed by M. Quetelet, or by those whose figures he adopts, seems too small to warrant much reliance on the conclusions to which they have conducted him. For instance, for ascertaining the relative height of the two sexes, at birth, he relies upon the measurement of fifty individuals of each sex, taken at the Foundling Hospital at Brussels. I cannot but regard this number as insufficient to found any conclusion, even as to the Belgian population. It is hardly sufficient to indicate the average of a single year, in one city, and in one class of the population. Nor in this, as in many other instances which might be cited from the work in question, can I suppose that M. Quetelet intended to do more than barely commence, and give examples, and that rather of

the direction than the method, of such inquiries. That an average of height or weight, applicable to any considerable number, cannot be safely deduced from so few as fifty individuals, I shall presently be able to show.

In afterwards tracing the progressive increase of height, for each sex, at each year of age, M. Quetelet omits to state from how many individuals of each age his figures were obtained. And when we reflect how much easier it must be to examine a large number of infants at a foundling hospital, with a precise knowledge of the age of each, and the fullest opportunity of applying an uniform mode of measurement, than to examine, with anything like equal accuracy, the same number of persons at each year of age, subsequently, up to twenty years, I think we are justified in inferring, in the absence of all information on the subject, that the number so examined by M. Quetelet, at each subsequent age, was less than fifty, and was, in all probability, not uniform at successive ages.

Again, in comparing, as to height, the inhabitants of the towns of Brussels, Louvain, and Nivelles, with the inhabitants of the surrounding country, it appears that the figures were obtained by extracting from the militia register, taken at the age of 19, for Brussels, the heights of 400 individuals, and for the rural parishes near that city, the same number. For each of the other two towns, 150 were taken from the urban, and the same number from the suburban register. Here, however, we are met by the suggestion that the men measured, being marked for military service, were to some extent of a select class, and did not fairly represent the entire male population of the same locality.

The largest basis of induction used by M. Quetelet, as to the height of the human body, appears to be one obtained by extracting from "the registers of a great levy" made in Brussels "about eighteen "years ago, the recorded heights of 300 individuals (we may presume "all males) at 19 years, 300 at 25 years, and 300 at 30 years of age." The work in which these figures appear having been published in 1835, the data of the registry ("eighteen years ago") would run back to 1826 or 1827. The purpose of the levy is not stated. Nor are we told what, in point of precision, or of uniformity, were the methods used to obtain the heights of those measured. Nothing is said of their weight.

Holding the opinions I have just expressed, I was struck, some time ago, when visiting the New Borough Gaol of Liverpool, with the fulness, the uniformity, and the apparent precision of the record there made, from day to day, and preserved, of certain particulars touching each prisoner entering and leaving the gaol, who is committed to it under sentence of imprisonment for one month or more. With the permission of the Governor, I carefully examined these

records, and also the means used for obtaining the height and weight of the prisoners, and thus became convinced that we have there materials adapted for extending, in some degree, and on a safe basis, the knowledge we yet possess of this subject. I then obtained the requisite authority, and with the obliging aid of the Governor, and of the clerk in charge of the books, I had drawn up an account of each male prisoner who had entered the gaol in the two years extending from the 1st of April, 1857, to the 31st of March, 1859, inclusive. This account states, as to each—

1. The date of entry.
2. The age.
3. The height.
4. The term of imprisonment.
5. The weight on entering.
6. The weight on leaving, and
7. The degree of instruction.

Prisoners committed for less than a month are not measured or weighed.

The height and the weight are taken with apparatus constructed for the purpose, by well-known makers, and which appears to answer the purpose well: giving the height to a quarter of an inch, and the weight to a pound. The height and weight are taken at the same time, in the same place, and by the same person; and they are always taken in the same way; and, with few exceptions, the figures recorded during the two years in question were obtained and recorded by the same officer, whose character, intelligence, and long practice, afford a strong guarantee for the general accuracy of his work.

The only particular, among those thus recorded, as to which any material doubt of its accuracy can exist, is the *age* of the prisoners. In obtaining this, the officer relies upon three distinct sources of information, no one of which is conclusive, but which taken together afford the best indication attainable. These are, (1) The statement of the prisoner; (2) His appearance; and (3) Any previous acquaintance the officer may have had with the prisoner. This previous acquaintance is, in many instances, considerable. A large proportion of the prisoners belonging to a so-called "criminal class," the members of which are very generally known to the police, and usually continue so for some years. The appearance affords but a rough guide, but it is worthy of some reliance at the ages to which I am about to ask your attention, seeing that at these ages the lapse of a given time is generally attended with a greater change of appearance than at any subsequent age. The statement of the prisoner can be relied upon only so far as his knowledge may extend; and there are, undoubtedly, many men in the class from which chiefly these prisoners are taken who do not know exactly their own age. On

the other hand, there is, with one exception, which I will notice presently, no apparent inducement on the part of the prisoner, to misstate this fact. The exception arises thus: when boys pass 16 years of age they are allowed the increased diet awarded to "men," as distinguished from "boys." Attempts to obtain this increase, by overstating the age, have been detected; and it is not improbable that they have sometimes passed without detection. But the earliest age as to which I now use these records being 18, this is not likely to have affected them materially for the present purpose. In other respects I am disposed to infer that the ages, as here stated, are quite as worthy of reliance, on the whole, as the ages of males obtained by the census of the population at large.

The total number of prisoners as to whom these particulars were obtained was upwards of 4,800.

The number entering in the first of the two years was 2,526; and of this number 1,563 were of the ages from 18 to 30 inclusive.

Observing that the highest uniform number I could take at each of the thirteen ages, from 18 to 30 inclusive, from the returns of the two years, would be 100—indeed the whole number at one age (29) being only 95—I began, with that number to construct the following table. At the ages 23, 24, and 25, I found the results not progressive—the first 100 taken at each age giving the average heights thus—

At 23	5	6·38
,, 24	5	5·92
,, 25	5	6·6

These being ages at which the prisoners were more numerous than at others, I increased the number from which the average was taken. The whole number at 24, was 185; and I took the average on this number. At the age of 27 also, I took 138, being the whole number at that age.

The table then stands thus:—

Height.

Age.	Number taken for Average.	Average.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum over Average.	*Minimum under Average.*	Maximum over Minimum.
		ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	in.	in.	in.
18.....	100	5 4·34	5 11	4 10½	6·66	5·84	12½
19.....	100	5 4·94	5 11½	4 11	6·56	5·94	12½
20	100	5 5·11	5 11	5 1	5·89	4·11	10
21.....	100	5 5·57	5 11¼	5 –½	5·68	5·07	10¾
22.....	100	5 6·17	6 1	5 –¼	6·83	5·92	12¾
23.....	200	5 6·17	6 1	4 11	6·83	7·17	14
24.....	185	5 5·94	6 1	4 9	7·06	8·94	16
25.	200	5 6·30	6 –	4 11	5·77	7·30	13
26.....	100	5 6·28	6 1¾	4 9½	7·07	8·78	16¼
27.....	138	5 6·38	5 11¾	5 1	5·37	5·38	10¾
28.....	100	5 6·65	6 1	5 1	6·35	5·65	12
29.....	95	5 7·02	6 –½	5 1¼	5·48	5·52	11¼
30.....	100	5 6·36	6 1	5 –¾	6·64	5·51	12¼

Here it is obvious that the results do not indicate a progressive increase in height. For instance, the average height of 185 men at 24, is less than that of 200 men at 23; and 100 at 26 give a lower average than 200 at 25; while 100 at 30 give a lower average than 95 at 29. Yet these are the best results attainable from two years of such observation as is afforded by the records of one of the largest gaols in the kingdom, and where the basis of induction for the average height at each age is much larger, and, I venture to think, far more trustworthy than any hitherto employed.

Here we have to remember that we proceed on the assumption that in the same locality the men attaining (say) 25 in a given year cannot have a less height than the men who shall attain 25 in the year preceding or following. But this may not be so. We learn from the records of the French conscription, that, in that country, of every 1,000 men examined annually at 20 years of age as to their fitness for military service, a considerable number are found to be below the height fixed as a minimum. But this number is not always the same, nor even nearly the same; and there is good reason for supposing that if the whole number of young men who annually reach the age of 20 years in that country, and thus become liable to the conscription, were measured, and their average height ascertained, it also would be found to vary from year to year. An attempt was made some years ago by M. Millot, a French statist, to show that the years of remarkable deficiency in the height and other military requisites of the conscripts coincided with birth-years in which the cost of food had been unusually high. But, whatever the causes of these variations, it is all but certain that they exist, and that, consequently, the most extensive and perfect measurement of individuals of different ages, at

the same time may be expected to yield results partaking more or less of the irregularity exhibited in the above table. I need scarcely add that the data relied upon by M. Quetelet become, in this point of view, so much the more open to objection.

I may observe that the Belgian observations of M. Quetelet give an average height, for men at 18 years of age, of 1·658 metres, or 5 feet 5·27 inches, or about $\frac{4}{5}$ths of an inch more than the above table. But at 30 years of age M. Quetelet gives 1·684 metres, or 5 feet 6·29 inches, while the above table gives 5 feet 6·36 inches. So that the Englishman would appear to be, at 18, considerably shorter, and at 30 somewhat taller, than the Belgian. Also, the Belgian would appear to want at 18 only about 1 inch of his full height, while the Englishman wants fully 2 inches.

I may here observe, that the minimum height of recruits for the French army, taken at 20 years of age, is 1·560 metres, or a little less than 5 feet 1⅓ inches; and that of every 1,000 conscripts examined in the five years from 1836 to 1840, no less than 97, or nearly 10 per cent., were rejected for not reaching this height. Of the first 200 of the Liverpool prisoners taken at this age only three were found short of this height. Again, the average height of the whole French army, which is computed annually, is said to have varied during nine years (1835-43) between a maximum of 1·664 metres and a minimum of 1·659 metres. The common average may be taken at 5 feet 5½ inches, which is about 1 inch shorter than the average of the 1,418 Liverpool prisoners comprised in the above table, from 20 to 30 years of age inclusive.

The following table of average weights at the same ages, 18 to 30, shows a similar irregularity. At the age 25 the weight seems excessive; and at ages 24, 26, 28, and 30, it seems deficient.

Weight.

Age.	Number taken for Average.	Average.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum over Average.	*Minimum under Average.*	Maximum over Minimum.
		st. lbs.	st. lbs.	st. lbs.	st. lbs.	st. lbs.	st. lbs.
18.....	100	8 10·79	10 13	6 6	2 2·21	2 4·79	4 7
19.....	100	9 4·11	12 8	7 4	3 3·89	2 0·11	5 4
20.....	100	9 5·58	12 8	7 13	3 2·42	1 6·58	4 9
21.....	100	9 5·02	12 0	7 3	2 9	2 2	4 11
22.....	100	9 12·41	13 2	7 –	3 2·59	2 12·41	6 1
23.....	100	10 2·95	12 12	7 12	2 9·05	2 4·95	5 0
24.....	100	10 2	12 12	7 12	2 10	2 4	5 0
25.....	100	10 5·65	13 8	8 2	3 2·35	2 3·65	5 6
26.....	100	10 1·06	13 8	6 12	3 6·94	3 3·06	6 10
27.....	100	10 4·75	13 10	7 12	3 5·25	2 6·75	5 12
28.....	100	10 2·62	13 2	7 7	2 13·28	2 9·62	5 9
29.....	95	10 5·53	13 12	8 4	3 6·47	2 1·53	5 8
30.....	100	10 1·55	14 1	8 1	3 13·45	2 0·55	6 0

The conclusions I have arrived at, and which I submit to the Society are:—

1. That the inquiry apparently made by M. Quetelet was insufficient to ascertain the average height of men, at any age, in the localities he refers to, inasmuch as the numbers measured were too small.

2. That the number measured to ascertain the average height or weight of men should include a much larger proportion of the class whose height or weight is sought, than has been used in framing the above table, or than is commonly supposed to be necessary. And

3. That there is good reason for supposing that even among men of the same class, and the same habits, in the same locality, those who attain a given age in one year have not the same, or very nearly the same, average height or weight, as those who attain the same age in years preceding or following.

The RELATIVE PAUPERISM *of* ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, *and* IRELAND, 1851 *to* 1860.

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[Read before Section (F) of the British Association, Manchester, 6th September, 1861.]

CONTENTS:

I.—*Diversities of Relief in the Three Kingdoms.*

THE present, being the year of the General Census of the population, appears to be an appropriate season for calling the attention of the Section to the subject of the Pauperism of the United Kingdom. We have recently counted the people of all ranks; let us now consider that unfortunate grade, who subsist upon the forced charity of the industrious—the pauper class; and, contrast the development and pressure of pauperism, which severally obtain, in the three kingdoms.

With the aid of official reports and statistical returns, the relative pauperism of England, Scotland, and Ireland, may be investigated during a decennium, which is nearly coincident with the interval falling between the census of 1851, and that of 1861.

Each country has its own poor laws; and its own executive for their administration. The object of these laws is one. *To afford relief to the destitute poor under such conditions, as may be the least injurious to themselves, and to the community at large.* But, circumstances have impressed so much diversity on the matter and form of

the facts recorded in the Annual Reports of the three Commissions, that it is essential to a valid comparison of either country with the others, to employ the most general as the only congruent data.

England has had an efficient Poor Law, though grossly perverted at one time from its proper object, for more than two centuries—Scotland had not, until 1845, any organized plan of relief comparable with the English system; and in Ireland, no poor law whatever was established before the year 1838. This element of time is to be remembered, when we consider the relative pauperism of the three countries.

Before using the figures of the tables appended, it is necessary to observe that the parochial years for fiscal purposes; and the days of the year on which the paupers are enumerated, differ in the three Kingdoms. In England the parochial year ends on the 25th March; and the paupers are counted on the 1st July and the 1st January in each year. In Scotland the year ends with the 14th May, when the pauper census takes place; the Commissioners considering that a fair average is obtainable on that day. In Ireland the year ends on the 29th September; the pauper census is deduced from the numbers relieved in each of the fifty-two weeks. The statistics here submitted to the section have, where not otherwise noted, reference to the ten years ending in 1860.

It will be also necessary to define the difference between the meaning of the words "pauper," and "poor person," as used in the Reports. In England all those who receive any assistance whatever from the Poor Rates, whether it be as food, clothing, lodging, or money, or simply medical relief, are paupers; but, poor persons, vaccinated at the charge of the rates, are not pauperised thereby. There is also, a small class, chargeable indirectly to the poor rates, or directly to some rate on the same basis, as county or borough pauper lunatics.

In Scotland the word "pauper" will bear the same meaning as in England; but, there appears to be no provision for public vaccination at the charge of the poor rates in that country.

In Ireland the recipient of relief from the poor rates, is pauperised under the same conditions that obtain in England; but, the poor are assisted by the Medical Charities Act, under which a considerable sum is annually disbursed in affording them medical aid. Medical relief given under this Act does not pauperize the recipient. There is, moreover, a class of pauper lunatics in asylums, maintained at the expense of the county cess.

II.—*Census of Paupers*—1851 *to* 1860.

The average population of the United Kingdom, during the ten years terminating in 1860, was 28,104,000; the average of the annual enumerations of paupers was 1,109,275 or 3·9 per cent. In England the population was 18,901,000; the paupers 892,671 or 4·7 per cent.; in Scotland the population was 3,009,000;* the paupers 120,624 or 4·0 per cent; and in Ireland the population being 6,193,000; the paupers were 95,880 or 1·5 per cent. Thus the relative proportion on the population, was in England 47; Scotland 40; and, in Ireland 15.

English pauperism is a time-honoured institution, the growth of nearly three centuries; and Scotland, under its amended Poor Law, appears emulous of attaining to a scale of relief, which may pass unrebuked, by the side of the English expenditure. Ireland has been disburthened of its superfluous population, by emigration. At the same time, it has been the good fortune of that country, to have had its poor laws inaugurated and supervised by public servants, who were familiar with the English machinery; and, who were well acquainted with the evils of a deep-rooted pauperism; and, with the practical benefits, which the amendment of the Poor Laws in 1834, had conferred upon English rate-payers, and English labourers. The decline of Irish pauperism is still more remarkable, when we collate the numbers relieved in 1851 with those of 1860. In the former year the total was 226,452; and in the latter, 43,272. But, the pressure in Ireland, though great in 1851, was far below that experienced in the three previous years. The *maximum* of pauperism was attained in July, 1849, when 1,005,800, or 221,583 in-door, and 784,307 out-door, paupers were relieved.†

In the practical management of the Poor Laws, the economists and the reformers have, with reason, regarded the system of "out-door relief" with great disfavour. This arises from two causes; one is the difficulty of testing the applicant's destitution; and the other, the fear that the rates may be diverted, in the hands of the employers of labour, to the depression of wages. A large ratio of out-door relief, is regarded as the surest index of a badly managed Union, or Parish. In respect of Scotland the reports do not usually discriminate the in-door from the out-door paupers; this information, however, is given for 1859.‡ The following comparison is therefore limited to that year; but, in respect of the other parts of the kingdom, the figures for the ten years are given in the Appendix (Table A).

* This estimate of the average of the Scotch population for the decennium, was made before the census of 1861 was published; it gives a higher figure than that enumeration warrants—consequently, the ratio of pauperism, and the rate per head for relief, as represented in this paper, are somewhat *lower* for Scotland than they should be.

† Select Committee on Poor Relief (Ireland), No. 408, Sess. 1861, Q. 72.

‡ "Fourteenth Annual Report of the Board of Supervision for Relief of the "Poor (Scotland)," p. 21.

	Census of Paupers, 1859.		
	In-door.	Out-door.	Total.
England and Wales....	121,232	744,214	865,446
Scotland	8,678	113,335	122,013
Ireland.....	40,369	1,248	41,617

Thus it appears that for one in-door pauper, England relieved 6·1 out-door; Scotland 13·1 and Ireland 0·03. Out-door relief was nearly extinct in the latter country.

As regards able-bodied pauperism, a comparison can only be made between England and Ireland, because, the "able-bodied," as such, have no legal claim to relief in Scotland. According to the latest returns* there were in England, 132,120 adult able-bodied paupers; and in Ireland, of the same class, 7,927 only. These figures give a percentage on the population of ·66 for the former, and ·13 for the latter country; that is, as *five* to *one*. In this class the women are, in both countries, three times as numerous as the men. England, which has workhouse room for 218,000† inmates, does not use *one-thirteenth* part of it for the reception of adult able-bodied paupers; on the other hand, Ireland relieves *all* of that class in the workhouse; England gives out-door relief to *seven* adult able-bodied paupers, in respect of *one* in-door.

The remarkable contrast which Ireland offers to Scotland, has been commented upon in the Scotch Poor Law Reports, where the Scotch pauperism has been collated with that of Ulster and Connaught. The Scotch expenditure for relief, has been also compared, by the Scotch Board, with the corresponding outlay in the northern, and north-western divisions of England.‡ Those districts of Ireland and of England, were selected for comparison with Scotland, as affording great similarity, in their respective circumstances, apart from the existence of pauperism.

"In Scotland," observe the Commissioners, "out-door relief is "the rule — relief in the poorhouse the exception — of 119,453 "persons receiving relief in Scotland on the 14th May (1857), only "about 6,000 or little more than 1 in 20 of their number were in "poorhouses. Of 53,331 persons receiving relief at the same time

* "Thirteenth Report of the Poor Law Board," and "Fourteenth of the Irish "Poor Law Board."

† "Union Almanac, 1861" (C. Knight and Co.), p. 19, *et. seq.*

‡ "Thirteenth and Fourteenth Annual Reports of the Scotch Poor Law "Board."

"in Ireland only 944 received out-door relief, 52,387 were inmates "of the workhouses. In Ireland relief in the workhouse, and only in "the workhouse, is the rule—out-door relief the rare and special excep-"tion. To this broad difference in the conditions upon which relief "can be obtained it is probable that the vast disparity in the ratio of "pauperism to population ought mainly to be attributed."* The Commissioners further remark, that of the Irish population resident in Scotland, 1 in 13 *is a pauper;* but, that in Ireland, exclusive of the able bodied, this class having no claim to relief in Scotland, the ratio is 1 in 274. It is unfortunate that a similar comparison cannot be made between the Irish at home, and the Irish in England.

The Scotch Commissioners return to the subject of this startling disparity, in their subsequent report. Their observations are so important, and bear so immediately upon the facts, that I cannot refrain from quoting the passage. "There are thus," they state, "in any given "number of the population, more than 12 paupers in the Highland "counties for every 1 pauper in Ulster and Connaught. For so vast "a disparity there must be causes that are intelligible. * * * * "Ten years ago it did not exist, and we must seek its causes in the "changes that have taken place since that time. In the years from "1846 to 1849, the avidity to obtain eleemosynary aid was at least as "great as general, and led to quite as many and as ingenious devices "to secure it in Ireland as in the Highlands. The tendency to "rely upon that description of assistance, though attempts were "made to guard it by careful scrutiny, and the labour test, was not "checked in Ireland until the workhouse was available. The cruelty "of resorting to that mode of relief was then denounced in terms of "unmeasured severity; but those who looked not to present popu-"larity, but to the permanent welfare of the people, persevered; and "it may be doubted whether there is now to be found one sincere "friend of the labouring classes in Ireland who has intelligently "considered the subject, and who believes that the industry, the self-"reliance, and the power of self-maintenance now exhibited by the "people of Ireland could have been developed as it has been in the "last ten years if out-door relief had then been as easily obtained as "it now is in the Highlands of Scotland; or who doubts that the "people of Ireland have gained far more by this development than "they could have gained by a system of out-door relief, which "repressed the growth of those qualities and habits."†

Those who are unacquainted with the subject of Scotch pauperism, will be surprised to find the degradation to which the population of the Highlands has sunk, in the course of a few years, under the blighting influence of an indiscriminate system of out-door relief.

* "Thirteenth Annual Report of the Scotch Poor Law Board," p. 7.

† "Fourteenth Report of Scotch Poor Law Board," p. 21.

Strong evidence of the demoralizing effects of untested relief in that district, was given by Mr. Briscoe to the Irish Poor Relief Committee of last session.

Mr. Briscoe is officially connected with the Scotch Board, as General Superintendent of the Poor; and in that capacity has visited 10,000 registered poor (paupers), or heads of families, at their own houses. He gave the committee a very long list of persons, who were improperly relieved; forcibly suggesting the abuses of the unreformed English poor laws; and, subsequently, to the question—"Then, the "effect of this out-door relief has been very demoralizing, and has "broken down the spirit of independence?" made this remarkable answer: "Not the least doubt about it; it has deteriorated to a "considerable extent truth, industry, morality, self-respect, self-"reliance, the natural affections, and independence of character; it "appears as if the whole of the humbler classes had completely "changed character; there is no shame whatever now in demanding "relief, even among some of higher station. The state of things in "the Highlands of Scotland is perfectly deplorable, and every person "admits it."*

The rapid increase in the pauperism of Scotland is clearly due to the insufficient workhouse test of that country. It vividly recalls to mind a passage in Mr. Twistleton's dissent from the Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed in 1843 to inquire "into the "administration and practical operation of the Poor Laws of Scotland." Mr. Twistleton was one of the Commissioners; and he brought to the consideration of the subject great knowledge of the actual working of the English Poor Laws. Mr. Twistleton's "Reasons of Dissent" are drawn up in eight paragraphs. The following words form part of the sixth:—"But while I admit that "the arrangement of various details may be safely vested in the "managers of the poor in each particular town, it is my opinion "that the *principles* of dealing with a subject so difficult as that of "administering relief, should be settled by the more enlarged wisdom "of Parliament. And a matter of such importance as the erection "of poorhouses ought not to be dependent either on the honest "judgment, or possible caprice, partial knowledge, or narrow views "of accidental majorities in particular localities."†

After seventeen years' administration of their amended Poor Laws, the Scotch authorities have left four-fifths of their parishes unprovided with poorhouses. But, it is necessary to add, that the Commissioners anticipate a considerable increase in the number, as seventy-seven parishes are taking steps to build new poorhouses.

* "Report on Poor Relief (Ireland)," House of Commons, 1861, p. 369.

† "Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners on Scotch Poor Laws," p. 66, 1844.

III.—*Pauper Lunatics—1st January.*

No class of the poor have a greater claim upon our care than the insane. For some years returns of the number of pauper lunatics and idiots, who were chargeable on the 1st January, to the unions and parishes in England and Wales, have been made to Parliament; and the same information has been more recently published for Scotland. With regard to Ireland there is a similar Return for 1857 only. Taking this, with the average numbers of the two last years for England and Scotland, we arrive at the following results:—

The numbers embrace all descriptions of insane paupers; whether designated as lunatic, idiot, imbecile, or fatuous. (Table B, Appendix.)

England and Wales	33,068
Scotland	5,103
Ireland	5,639
	43,810

Comparing these numbers with the population of the respective countries, we obtain the following figures:—

In England and Wales	·168	per cent.	of the	population are pauper lunatics.
,, Scotland	·165	,,	,,	,,
,, Ireland	·093	,,	,,	,,

It is difficult to explain the low ratio of pauper insanity in Ireland as compared with England and Scotland. The Commissioners who reported in 1858 on Irish Lunatic Asylums, stated that there were 3,352 "insane poor at large and unprovided for." Assuming that this class, in England or Scotland, would have received relief; and, therefore should have been included for the purpose of the comparison, the ratio above, would have been ·150 per cent. It should also be remembered that the general pauperism of Ireland is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the population; but that in Great Britain it is 4 per cent. This would account for the difference, if the insane pauper invariably belonged to the pauper ranks, previous to his calamity, and not in consequence of it. Many fall to pauperism through the terrible affliction of mental imbecility, or mental alienation, whom no misfortune, short of it, would bring upon the rates.

On the other hand, it is known that in England, from several causes, the cases of pauper lunacy have, of late years, been more fully recorded than formerly; and to this circumstance the Commissioners in Lunacy, refer in combating the common impression, that lunacy is on the increase in this country. "There can be very little doubt," they state, "that the system of observation and inquiry adopted of "late years, however imperfect it still may be, has led to the detec-

" tion and classification as insane of many persons formerly looked " upon as ordinary paupers."*

It appears, from official reports, that the large increase recorded in the number of pauper lunatics in Scotland, is ascribable to analogous causes; besides, in that country, the definition of the term " lunatic " appears to have been employed in a more comprehensive sense, latterly, than the corresponding term, " insane," or " fatuous," was, formerly.†

IV.—*Poor Rates Levied in the United Kingdom.*

In England a considerable portion of the sum raised as poor rates, is applied to local purposes quite irrespective of the object for which this tax was originally imposed; in Scotland the rate is applied wholly to relief; and in Ireland in addition to relief, the expenses under the Medical Charities Act are defrayed from the rates. Besides the poor rates there is an aggregate sum varying from 300,000*l.* to 400,000*l.* yearly received from various sources in aid of rates. The total sum levied and received during the ten years 1859-60 was 92,285,965*l.* (Table C, Appendix.) The amount raised in each country was as follows—

	£
England and Wales	77,960,190
Scotland	6,182,526
Ireland	8,143,249

Of the English amount, upwards of 18,000,000*l.* were disbursed for purposes wholly beside the relief to the poor. The table in the Appendix exhibits the levy, and the receipts in aid, for each year, and for each country, separately.

A large part of the receipts in aid of the English rates, arises from the sums annually voted in Parliament to pay Workhouse Schoolmasters' and Schoolmistress' salaries in full; and for the medical officer's salaries; to the extent of one-half of their amount. In Scotland a vote of 10,000*l.* is applied in aid of medical relief, yearly.

During ten years the total sums voted by Parliament were these; namely, for—

	£
England and Wales	1,246,000
Scotland	100,000
Ireland	11,000

(Table D, Appendix.)

V.—*Relief to the Poor.*

This charge consists of the cost of food, clothing, and lodging, to the paupers in workhouses; the cost of maintenance of pauper

* " Fifteenth Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy," p. 78.
† " Thirteenth Report of the Board of Supervision," p. xvii, *et seq.*

lunatics in asylums; except in Ireland, where that item is paid out of the county cess; and, of the value of the food and money given to out-door paupers; to these items must be added the cost of erecting and furnishing workhouses; the union and parochial officers' salaries, and other establishment charges, immediately connected with the local administration of relief. The total expenditure of the United Kingdom during the ten years was 67,341,921*l.*, which is equivalent to an annual charge of 4*s.* 9½*d.* per head, on the average population of the period. Discriminating the amounts we have the following statement. (Table E, Appendix.)

	£		*s.*	*d.*	
England and Wales	54,767,542	=	5	9½	per head on Population.
Scotland	5,917,634	=	3	11¼	,, ,,
Ireland	6,656,745	=	2	1¾	,, ,,

From this it appears that during the last ten years the ratio of relief, as measured on the population, was nearly *double* in Scotland, and *treble* in England, the proportion attained in Ireland.

Tracing the expenditure through the consecutive years, we find that in England the amount rose considerably in the middle of the period, but that it has been declining since; in Scotland the sum has *increased* every year; while in Ireland it has *decreased* every year, but the last, when it rose slightly. (Table E, Appendix.)

These contrasts are rendered more remarkable, on comparing the first with the last year of the series. Thus, in England, the sum expended in 1851, was 4,962,704*l.*; and 5,454,964*l.* in 1860—*increase* 492,260*l.*; in Scotland the similar items were 524,033*l.* and 654,527*l.* —*increase* 130,494*l.*; in Ireland, on the contrary, the earliest amount was 1,141,647*l.*, and the latest 454,531*l.*,—*decrease* 687,116*l.*

The character and rate of difference was therefore—

An *increase* in	England and Wales, of	10 per cent.
	Scotland	,, 25 ,,
A *decrease* in	Ireland	,, 60 ,,

It will be of interest to compare the annual cost per pauper, taking the average of the ten years, in each country. The aggregate cost is the sum which in Table E, Appendix, is designated " relief " of the poor," it consists of (1) The expense of *individual relief*, that is, the cost of the food, clothing and necessaries, of the in-door and asylum paupers; and the value of the relief given in money or in kind to the out-door paupers; (2) The expense of *relief in common*, that is, the cost of building and maintaining workhouses and their establishments; the salaries of the union officers; and other local expenses consequent upon relief. The returns do not enable us to discriminate these two species of relief; but, the results computed on the total are these:—

	Annual Cost per Pauper. £	s.	d.
England and Wales	6	2	8
Scotland	4	18	–
Ireland	6	18	10

Here Ireland is highest, and Scotland lowest. In the former country most of the relief is given in the workhouse; this is the most costly form, individually; but, the *least costly* in the ultimate issue. In the latter country the largest portion of the relief is out-door; here, it is the least costly, individually; but the *most costly* in the ultimate result.

The Scotch Poor Law Board have, in their fourteenth report,* shown that already Scotland exceeds the least pauperized divisions of England, in the amount of relief given. It is obvious, that if Scotland maintains, for a few years, its present rate of increase, it will soon equal, if not surpass, the most pauperized districts of the south.

One of the greatest evils of a mal-administered poor law, is the the depression of the wages of labour, by the agency of relief,—a result which may be produced designedly, or ignorantly. But, where relief is administered, as in Ireland, wholly in well-regulated workhouses, it appears hardly possible that any baneful disturbance of the labour market can follow, as a consequence. Is the English system equally free from this mischief? England spends 3,000,000*l.* a-year upon *out-door* paupers; exclusive of the charge for pauper lunatics in asylums, which in 1860, amounted to 420,000*l.* Can it be supposed, that so large a sum disbursed among the labouring population, and for the most part by guardians, who in their own districts are employers of labour, does not depress wages?

The English returns alone distinguish the sums expended for in-door, from those disbursed for out-door relief. These are the amounts for 1851 to 1860.†

Years.	In-door Relief. £	Out-door Relief. £	Years.	In-door Relief. £	Out-door Relief. £
1851	789,914	2,873,588	1856	1,139,902	3,239,534
'52	763,399	2,808,298	'57	1,088,558	3,152,278
'53	762,718	2,775,556	'58	1,067,803	3,117,274
'54	924,938	2,887,630	'59	954,509	2,923,199
'55	1,093,711	3,192,909	'60	912,360	2,862,753

The year 1856 was the highest of the ten. It is worthy of remark, that in contrasting 1860 with the maximum year, there was a decrease of 20 per cent. in the in-door relief; but that the decrease

* P. 22, *et seq.*
† Annual Poor Rate Returns, in the Reports for those years.

in the out-door relief was only 12 per cent. The paupers appear to have left the workhouses quicker than they withdrew from the out-door relief lists.

In addition to the "relief to the poor," officially so called, there are disbursements made from the local taxes for objects of public charity. In England we have the cost of maintaining borough and county lunatic paupers out of the county or borough rate; in 1860, this is estimated to have been 42,000*l.*; and the cost of public vaccination defrayed out of the poor rates, which was 46,000*l.* in that year.* In Scotland there are no similar charges. In Ireland there is a large outlay under the Medical Charities Act; this amounted, in 1860, to 104,000*l.*† Further, as part of the cost of administering the poor laws, there are the expenses of the central Boards, and the district auditors' salaries, both items being paid by Parliament. The sums voted were these, namely,—

		£	£
for England and Wales			
	Central office	37,349	
	Auditors' salaries	16,500	
			53,849
for Scotland			
	Central office	—	5,580
for Ireland			
	Central office	26,192	
	Auditors	2,750	
			28,942
	United Kingdom		88,371

The other votes for England and Scotland are not included here, as they are repayments to the local authorities for certain disbursements, already charged in the relief to the poor.

The total disbursements for 1860, in respect of *public charity*, including under that term the expense of (1) Relief to the poor; (2) Lunatics supported by the county or borough rate, or by the county cess; (3) Irish medical charities; and (4) Central offices; were for—

	£
England and Wales	5,597,269
Scotland	660,107
Ireland	666,360
United Kingdom	6,923,736‡

* See Table H, Appendix. † Table I, Appendix.
‡ Table F, Appendix.

The rate per head on the population, in regard to the sums collected under the head of *public charity*, is for—

	s.	*d.*
England and Wales	5	7¾
Scotland	4	2½
Ireland	2	3¼
United Kingdom	4	9¾

We may say, that the public charity of the United Kingdom entails a tax upon the community of 5*s.* per head per annum, in round numbers; but, that in respect of Ireland, the tax is not half of that rate; even inclusive of the expenditure under the Medical Charities Act, and for the maintenance of the lunatic paupers out of the county cess.

Taking the Irish rate per head as unity, the relative proportions of the public charity expenditure are represented by the following figures:—

England and Wales	2·5
Scotland	1·9
Ireland	1·0

There is one item of Poor Law Expenditure not yet noticed; and which, though contingent on the administration of the poor laws, is not included in any of the foregoing accounts,—the "legal "expenses." In England, previous to 1834, the law costs were very heavy; ranging from 200,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* a-year. But during the last ten years they have only averaged 58,000*l.* In Scotland, the mean amount has been 10,000*l.* a-year, during the same term; while Ireland does not appear to have incurred any similar expense.

VI.—*Rate in the Pound, for Relief to the Poor, on Real Property.*

If the mode of assessing property, liable to the poor rates in the three divisions of the United Kingdom, were uniform, we should possess the immediate, and natural means of ascertaining the pressure of the tax, upon the rated property of each country.

But in England the assessment made by the overseers is well known to be worthless, for any purpose of comparison. It is greatly, but not uniformly, below the actual rental. In Scotland there are *five* different modes of assessment employed in the assessed parishes; the unassessed parishes supplying the necessary funds for relief by voluntary contributions. The estimated annual value of land and heritages in Scotland is not much below the property tax assessment of real property, under Schedule A. In Ireland the poor rate and the property tax are levied upon the very same assessment. By taking the property tax assessment of the United Kingdom, as a basis of comparison, we have, therefore, the best standard obtainable

under the circumstances, for exhibiting the relative pressure of the rates in the three kingdoms.

The calculation through which this is effected, is limited to the seven years 1854 to 1860; because, previous to 1854 there was no real property assessment in Ireland, under Schedule A. The following are the results of a computation of the rate in the pound for the "relief of the poor," upon the data given in Tables E and G (Appendix), namely:—

	s.	*d.*	
England and Wales	1	1	in the £
Scotland	–	11½	,,
Ireland	–	10¾	,,

An average annual tax, at those rates, if laid upon the assessments under Schedule A, would have defrayed the whole of the *relief to the poor* in the three countries, during the seven years. It is worthy of remark that, however diverse may be the other aspects of pauperism in the three kingdoms, there is a nearer approach to equality in this view of the subject; England only exceeding Scotland by 1½*d.*, and Ireland by 2¼*d.* in the pound.

If the aggregate sums assessed to the income tax, under Schedules A (real property), B (farmers' profits), and D (profits of trades and professions), may be taken, when considered in relation to the amount of population, as a sufficient exponent of the wealth of the United Kingdom, it will be found that the pauperism is *inversely* as the poverty. This is shown in respect of 1860 by the following figures:—

	Assessment in Millions. £		Value per Head. £ *s.*
England and Wales	237·0	=	11 17
Scotland	29·0	=	9 13
Ireland	20·5	=	3 5

England, which ranks highest in wealth, is deepest in pauperism; Ireland, lowest in wealth, is the least burdened with paupers; and Scotland stands between the two countries, both in respect of wealth and pauperism; but not at mid-distance—coming under each category, much nearer to England, than to Ireland.

VII.—*Conclusion.*

It may be urged in view of these facts, that the pauperism of the three Kingdoms, has arisen under conditions, and exists in media so dissimilar, that no useful conclusions can be drawn from the statistics alone. It is probable, no doubt, that when all the circumstances are considered, the figures may appear in a modified light. Yet, when it is found that the same anomalies emerge upon a comparison of districts similar in respect of "the material condition,

" the habits, and modes of life,"* we cannot suppose the significance of these figures will be much changed, when the facts are weighed with all their qualifications.

In addition to the instructive comparisons already quoted from the Scotch reports; there is, in the twelfth volume, a parallel drawn between the pauperism of the Scotch Highlands and that of Ulster and Connaught. The Scotch and Irish districts were selected as analogous. In the Highlands it was found that 1 in 18 of the population were receiving relief; but that in the Irish provinces the proportion was only 1 in 218. The Highlands were *twelve* times more pauperized than Ulster and Connaught; but in the one district, the relief was nearly all *out-door;* and in the other, nearly all *in-door*.

There is no place south of the Tweed in which the workhouse is so little employed in testing applications for relief, as Wales; there, the out-door pauperism is *twelve* times as much as the in-door. Now, the expenditure of England alone, has, subsequent to the passing of the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, greatly *decreased;* while that of Wales has *increased*. In 1834, the relief in Wales, as measured by the population, was 2*s*. 1*d*. per head *below* England; at present (1860), it is 8*d*. per head *above* it. In other words, Wales is now 11 per cent. *more* burthened than England, instead of 22 per cent. *less*. But, in England the in-door pauperism is to the out-door, as 1 to 5; instead of 1 to 12, as in the principality.

The Commissioners who were appointed in 1832, to inquire into the operation of the English poor laws, enunciated the great principle for keeping the stream of public charity within safe bounds, in these words:

" It may be assumed, that in the administration of relief, the " public is warranted in imposing such conditions on the individual " relieved, as are conducive to the benefit either of the individual " himself, or of the country at large, at whose expense he is to be " relieved.

" The first and most essential of all conditions, a principle " which we find universally admitted, even by those whose practice " is at variance with it, is, that his situation on the whole shall not " be made really or apparently so eligible as the situation of the " independent labourer of the lowest class. Throughout the evidence " it is shown, that in proportion as the condition of any pauper " class is elevated above the condition of independent labourers, the " condition of the independent class is depressed; their industry is " impaired, their employment becomes unsteady, and its remunera- " tion in wages is diminished. Such persons, therefore are under " the strongest inducements to quit the less eligible class of labourers

* " Thirteenth Report of the Scotch Poor Law Board."

" and enter the more eligible class of paupers. The converse is " the effect when the pauper class is placed in its proper position, " below the condition of the independent labourer. Every penny " bestowed, that tends to render the condition of the pauper more " eligible than that of the independent labourer, is a bounty on " indolence and vice."*

More than a quarter of a century has elapsed since these words were published. It would appear to be a practical and important public question to ascertain how far the neglect of the rule they embody, has been the cause of the remarkable contrasts, which the statistics of pauperism in the United Kingdom reveal. Further, we may reasonably ask, if Ireland has, under the judicious administration of her poor laws, reduced pauperism to a quantity which, at the present time, is less than *one* per cent. of the population, under what conditions can we hope that similar results may be achieved for England and Scotland?

Examples of the judicious employment of the workhouse, in the reduction of pauperism, are not confined to Ireland. There are, in various parts of England, unions, where the guiding principle of the amended Poor Law has been, for many years, consistently applied, by the local authorities. In those unions, pauperism has been reduced to a point, so far below that, which, at all times, prevails in the circumjacent districts, as to afford irrefragable proof of the efficiency of the workhouse system, when it is used, with discretion and firmness, to its proper end—discriminating real, from simulated destitution. It is no exaggeration to describe the excessive pauper-rate, fostered by the mal-administration of negligent unions, as a public scandal, and a social wrong.

Whatever light additional statistics may shed upon the interesting questions which are suggested by the scope of this paper, information must also be sought beyond its technical domain, for their satisfactory solution.

* " Report of Commissioners for Inquiry into the Poor Laws," 1834, p. 228.

APPENDIX.

TABLE A.—*Statement of the* Average Number *of* Paupers *Relieved, in the* United Kingdom, *on* One Day, *in each of the Ten Years,* 1851 *to* 1860, *with the* Ratio *of* Pauperism *to the Estimated Population.*

Years.	England and Wales.				Scotland.	
	In-door Paupers.	Out-door Paupers.	Total.*	Paupers.	Paupers In-door and Out-door.	Paupers.
				Per cnt.		Per cnt.
1851	114,367	826,948	941,315	5·3	122,416	4·2
'52	111,323	804,352	915,675	5·0	117,693	4·0
'53	110,148	776,214	886,362	4·8	117,535	4·0
'54	111,635	752,982	864,617	4·6	120,626	4·1
'55	121,400	776,286	897,686	4·8	121,770	4·1
1856	124,879	792,205	917,084	4·8	121,522	4·0
'57	122,845	762,165	885,010	4·6	119,569	3·9
'58	122,613	786,237	908,886	4·7	123,191	4·0
'59	121,232	744,214	865,446	4·4	122,013	3·9
'60	113,507	731,126	844,633	4·3	120,906	4·0
10 Years average	117,395	775,276	892,671	4·7	120,724	4·0

Years.	Ireland.				United Kingdom.	
	In-door Paupers.	Out-door Paupers.	Total.†	Paupers.	Paupers In-door and Out-door.	Paupers.
				Per cnt.		Per cnt.
1851	217,949	8,503	226,452	3·5	1,290,183	4·7
'52	167,372	3,225	170,597	2·6	1,203,965	4·4
'53	130,047	3,003	133,050	2·1	1,136,947	4·1
'54	95,922	1,622	97,544	1·5	1,082,787	3·9
'55	79,747	3,273	83,020	1·3	1,102,476	3·9
1856	63,477	876	64,353	1·0	1,102,959	3·9
'57	50,877	967	51,844	0·9	1,056,423	3·7
'58	45,781	1,271	47,052	0·8	1,079.129	3·8
'59	40,369	1,248	41,617	0·7	1,029,076	3·6
'60	41,271	2,001	43,272	0.7	1,008,811	3·5
10 Years average	93,281	2,599	95,880	1·5	1,109,275	3·9

* England and Wales, exclusive of county and borough pauper lunatics; this class has averaged latterly about 1,700.

† Ireland, exclusive of pauper lunatics maintained by the county cess; in 1857 this class was returned as 3,824.

TABLE B.—Number *of* Pauper Lunatics, *&c.,* Relieved *in* One Day *in Great Britain, in* 1859-60; *and in Ireland, in* 1857.

England and Wales.	Number of Pauper Lunatics.
Average number on the 1st January, 1859 and 1860	30,930
Estimate for parishes not returned	440
Borough and county pauper lunatics (18 19 Vict., c. 105)	1,698
Total	33,068

Scotland.	Number of Pauper Lunatics.
Average number on the 1st January, 1859 and 1860	5,103
Total	5,103

Ireland.	Number of Pauper Lunatics.
Number on 1st January, 1857, in district asylums	3,824
In workhouses	1,707
,, houses of industry	108
Total	5,639
Grand Total of the United Kingdom	43,810

Note.—Every description of insane pauper, besides lunatic paupers, is included in this table.

TABLE C.—*Statement of the* Sums Raised *as* Poor Rates *in the* United Kingdom *and of* Sums Received *in aid of the Poor Rates; Ten Years,* 1851-60.

Years.	England and Wales.			Scotland.		
	Poor Rates Collected.	Other Receipts.	Total.	Poor Rates Collected.	Other Receipts.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1851	6,778,914	181,408	6,960,322	492,098	63,947	556,045
'52	6,552,298	318,070	6,870,368	479,499	62,390	541,889
'53	6,552,412	282,971	6,805,383	491,394	63,306	554,700
'54	6,973,220	278,061	7,251,281	504,082	66,631	570,713
'55	7,864,149	310,805	8,174,954	549,463	64,960	614,423
1856	8,201,348	295,110	8,496,458	588,067	62,934	651,001
'57	8,139,003	301,987	8,440,990	612,485	57,368	669,853
'58	8,188,880	303,240	8,492,120	606,671	61,802	668,473
'59	8,108,222	326,566	8,434,788	622,101	61,812	683,913
'60	7,715,948	317,578	8,033,526	615,469	56,107	671,516
10 Years	75,044,394	2,915,716	*77,960,190	5,561,269	621,259	6,182,526

Years.	Ireland.			The United Kingdom.		
	Poor Rates Collected.	Other Receipts.	Total.	Poor Rates Collected.	Other Receipts.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1851	1,039,173	66,703	1,105,876	8,310,185	312,058	8,622,243
'52	1,109,630	107,548	1,217,178	8,141,427	488,008	8,629,435
'53	1,009,493	44,316	1,053,809	8,023,299	390,593	8,413,892
'54	925,154	98,078	1,023,232	8,402,456	442,770	8,845,226
'55	835,894	12,151	848,045	9,249,506	387,916	9,637,422
1856	723,204	4,935	728,139	9,512,619	362,979	9,875,598
'57	585,583	7,078	592,661	9,337,071	366,433	9,703,504
'58	525,595	6,942	532,537	9,321,146	371,984	9,693,130
'59	523,065	4,859	527,924	9,253,388	393,237	9,646,625
'60	509,380	4,468	513,848	8,840,737	378,153	9,218,890
10 Years	7,786,171	357,078	8,143,249	88,391,834	3,894,131	*92,285,965

* 18,239,512*l.* was spent in England and Wales, out of this amount, for local purposes quite unconnected with relief to the poor.

TABLE D.—*Statement of the* Sums Voted *by Parliament to defray the* Expenses *of the English, Scotch, and Irish Poor Law Boards; and of Sums Voted* in Aid *of Poor Rates; Ten Years,* 1851-60.

Years.	England and Wales.			Scotland.		
	Central Expenses.	Local Expenses.	Total.	Central Expenses.	Local Expenses.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1851	34,136	128,500	162,636	3,800	10,000	13,800
'52	32,754	113,500	146,254	3,800	10,000	13,800
'53	33,604	115,500	149,104	3,770	10,000	13,770
'54	34,073	115,500	149,573	3,790	10,000	13,790
'55	35,728	117,500	153,228	3,880	10,000	13,880
1856	36,410	117,500	153,910	3,930	10,000	13,930
'57	36,628	126,500	163,128	3,900	10,000	13,900
'58	37,221	133,500	170,721	5,759	10,000	15,759
'59	37,643	136,500	174,143	5,452	10,000	15,452
'60	37,349	141,500	178,849	5,580	10,000	15,580
Total 10 Years	355,546	1,246,000	1,601,546	43,661	100,000	143,661

Years.	Ireland.			Total of the United Kingdom.
	Central Expenses.	Local Expenses.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£
1851	46,182	—	46,182	222,618
'52	46,465	—	46,465	206,519
'53	55,487	—	55,487	218,361
'54	48,131	—	48,131	211,494
'55	40,794	—	40,794	207,902
1856	34,543	—	34,543	202,383
'57	29,215	2,750	31,965	208,993
'58	28,010	2,750	30,760	217,240
'59	23,715	2,750	26,465	216,060
'60	26,192	2,750	28,942	223,371
Total 10 Years	378,734	11,000	389,734	2,134,941

TABLE E.—*Statement of* Sums Expended *in* Relief *to the* Poor *in the* United Kingdom, *in the Ten Years from* 1851-60; *and of the* Rate per Head *of Expenditure.*

Years.	England and Wales.			Scotland.*		
	Population.†	Relief to the Poor.	Rate per Head.	Population.‡	Relief to the Poor.	Rate per Head.
		£	s. d.		£	s. d.
1851.....	17,927,609	4,962,704	5 6½	2,888,742	524,033	3 7½
'52.....	18,205,000	4,897,685	5 4½	2,916,000	522,209	3 7
'53.....	18,402,000	4,939,064	5 4½	2,942,000	530,984	3 7¼
'54.....	18,617,000	5,282,853	5 8	2,969,000	562,888	3 9½
'55.....	18,840,000	5,890,041	6 3	2,996,000	595,140	4 0
1856.....	19,043,000	6,004,244	6 3¾	3,023,000	619,196	4 1
'57.....	19,207,000	5,898,756	6 1¾	3,050,000	627,512	4 1¼
'58.....	19,361,000	5,878,542	6 –¾	3,077,000	633,533	4 1½
'59.....	19,578,000	5,558,689	5 8¼	3,103,000	647,612	4 2
'60.....	19,837,000	5,454,964	5 6	3,130,000	654,527	4 2
	18,901,761 (*Average.*)	54,767,542	5 9½	3,009,474 (*Average.*)	5,917,634	3 11¼

Years.	Ireland.			United Kingdom.		
	Population.†	Relief to the Poor.	Rate per Head.	Population.	Relief to the Poor.	Rate per Head.
		£	s. d.		£	s. d.
1851.....	6,552,386	1,141,647	3 5¾	27,368,737	6,628,384	4 10
'52.....	6,474,000	883,268	2 8¾	27,595,000	6,303,162	4 5
'53.....	6,396,000	785,718	2 5½	27,740,000	6,255,766	4 6
'54.....	6,318,000	760,153	2 4¾	27,904,000	6,605,894	4 8½
'55.....	6,240,000	685,259	2 2¼	28,076,000	7,170,440	5 1
1856.....	6,162,000	576,390	1 10½	28,228,000	7,199,830	5 –¾
'57.....	6,084,000	498,889	1 7½	28,341,000	7,025,157	4 11½
'58.....	6,006,000	457,178	1 6¼	28,444,000	6,969,253	4 10½
'59.....	5,928,000	413,712	1 4¾	28,609,000	6,620,013	4 7½
'60.....	5,850,000	454,531	1 6½	28,817,000	6,564,022	4 6½
	6,193,038 (*Average.*)	6,656,745	2 1¾	28,104,273 (*Average.*)	67,341,921	4 9½

* The expenditure in Scotland as here given, is less by the "law expenses" and the cost of "general sanitary measures;" the corresponding items are excluded from the English returns.

† The decrease in the population of Ireland has been assumed to follow at the same rate for each year.

‡ Estimated for 1852 to 1860, by the Board of Supervision; it is in excess of the truth, for the actual census of 1861 gives 3,061,251 as the number at the present time.

TABLE F.—*Statement of the* Total Sum Expended *in respect of* Public Charity *in the* United Kingdom *in the Parochial Year* 1860; *distinguishing the Pauperizing from the Non-Pauperizing Charity; and the portion which is defrayed by the* Local *from the portion paid by* Parliamentary *Votes.*

United Kingdom.	Cost of Public Charity in 1860.			
	(*a*) Pauperizing.		(*b*) Non-pauperizing.	
	Relief to the Poor.	Lunatic Poor Supported by County or Borough Rate, or by County Cess.	Public Vaccination: Fees to Vaccinators.	Medical Aid to the Poor under the Medical Charities Act (Ireland).
	£	£	£	£
England and Wales ...	5,454,964	42,450*	46,006	—
Scotland	654,527	—	—	—
Ireland	454,531	78,640†	Included in the Medical Charities.	104,247
Totals.....	6,564,022	121,090	46,006	104,247

United Kingdom.	Cost of Public Charity in 1860.		Rate per Head, of Total Cost on the Population.
	Salaries of District Auditors, and the Expense of the Central Boards Paid by Parliament.	Total Cost Defrayed by Local Taxation and Parliamentary Votes.	
	£	£	s. d.
England and Wales	53,849‡	5,597,269	5 7¾
Scotland	5,580	660,107	4 2½
Ireland	28,942§	666,360	2 3½
Totals.....	88,371	6,923,736	4 9¾

* Estimated at 25*l.* per head on 1,698 pauper lunatics.
† „ 20*l.* „ 3,932 „
‡ 16,500*l.* of this is the auditor's share.
§ 2,750*l.* „ „

TABLE G.—*Statement of the* Annual Value *of* Real Property *in the* United Kingdom *in each of the Seven Years from* 1854 *to* 1860. (*Schedule* A., *Income and Property Tax.*)

Years.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	£	£	£	£
1851	—	—	—	—
'52	—	—	—	—
'53	—	—	—	—
'54	99,274,309	11,947,791	11,767,810	122,989,910
'55	100,835,328	12,144,437	11,892,120	124,871,885
'56	101,938,175	12,428,781	11,873,545	126,245,501
'57	103,603,068	12,543,811	11,952,285	128,099,164
'58	109,978,265	13,809,321	12,826,739	136,614,325
'59	110,923,084	13,885,457	12,858,701	137,667,242
'60	112,082,749	13,974,080	12,893,829	138,950,658
7 Years' (average)	105,519,283	12,961,954	12,259,718	130,776,955

Note.—Abstracted from Parliamentary Paper, No. 592, Sess. 1860.

TABLE H.—*Statement of the* Annual Expenditure *under the* Medical Charities Act *of* Ireland; *and of the Number of Poor Persons who have received Medical Aid; and of the Number Vaccinated under it.*

Years ended 30th September.	Expenses under the Medical Charities Acts.	Number of Poor Persons attended to,			Number of cases of Vaccination.
		At Dispensaries.	At Home.	Total.	
	£				
1853	88,440	557,033	133,378	690,411	43,332
'54	89,707	557,325	137,700	695,025	52,844
'55	89,388	583,547	149,016	732,563	46,711
'56	90,236	594,673	146,564	741,237	84,131
1857	90,460	600,022	154,621	754,643	47,855
'58	92,725	601,749	153,829	755,578	54,984
'59	99,336	616,131	160,260	776,391	140,411
'60	104,247	596,325	165,308	761,633	107,305
Totals	744,539	4,706,805	1,200,676	5,907,481	577,573

Note.—In addition to the workhouse infirmaries and workhouse fever hospitals, "there are 717 dispensary districts in Ireland, with 775 medical officers appointed "and paid from the poor rate to attend gratuitously on poor persons needing "medical aid and medicine, either at the patient's home or at the dispensary "station."—"Fourteenth Annual Report," p. 72.

TABLE I.—*Statement of the* Cost *of* Public Vaccination, *and of the Number of Poor Persons Successfully Treated by the Public Vaccinators in England and Wales.*

Years.	1 Cost of Public Vaccination paid out of the Poor Rates.	2 Number of Poor Persons successfully Vaccinated.	3 Number of Births Registered in the Kingdom.	4 Ratio per Cent. of (2) to (3).
	£			Per cnt.
1851	25,248	338,947	592,347	57·2
'52	25,895	397,128	601,839	66·0
'53	27,576	366,593	601,223	61·0
'54	45,729	677,886	623,699	108·7
'55	54,727	448,519	623,181	72·0
1856	44,503	422,281	640,840	65·9
'57	41,256	411,268	649,963	63·3
'58	40,761	455,004	654,914	69·5
'59	46,472	445,020	669,834	66·4
'60	46,006	485,927	689,060	70·5
Totals ...	398,173	4,448,573	6,346,900	70·1

Note.—In regard to the cost, this return relates to the year ended at Lady-day; but in regard to the numbers born and vaccinated, to that ended at Michaelmas; therefore the sum for any year in the first column, does not exactly represent the payments for the cases of vaccination in the second.

The Resources *of* Popular Education *in* England *and* Wales: Present *and* Future. *By* Horace Mann, Esq.

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It is not my purpose, in this paper, to discuss the "revised code," but to present facts which must needs be of considerable service to all who may wish to consider comprehensively the larger questions which the discussion of that measure cannot fail to raise. For it is now, I think, evident that the prevailing controversy cannot be confined to the operation of the code itself; but must range over the whole subject of popular education. A crisis has clearly been reached in the educational policy of the country; and the code is a consequence of this crisis rather than the occasion of it. The same may be said of the Report of the recent Education Commission; which rather gives sanction and prominence to facts and opinions already formed and ascertained than makes any new discoveries or suggestions. The vastness, and the increasing magnitude, of the drain upon the public purse, have forced upon us a review of our entire position; and the object of this paper will be to present, in a condensed form, the most important statistics relating to the present position and future policy of the country with respect to the provision for popular education.

With this view I propose to consider chiefly the following points: designedly omitting others, of perhaps equal interest, which cannot be comprised within the limits of a paper suitable for this Society.

I. *Our existing provision;* more especially its relation to that of former periods and of other countries—its nature and value—its cost—and the sources from which it is supplied.

II. *Our future provision;* with especial reference to possible changes and additional resources.

I.

According to the census of education in 1851, there were at that time 2,144,378 children in the *day* schools of *England and Wales.* When, in the Report on that census, it was stated as an inevitable inference from this fact that "very few children are *completely* unin-"structed," and that "nearly all, at some time or other of their "childhood, see the inside of a schoolroom, although some do little "more," this result appeared so incredible to one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools that he at once pronounced the census itself to be inaccurate, and the numbers mentioned a gross exaggeration. We

now learn from the Report of the Education Commissioners that, according to the best information they could obtain, the number of day scholars in 1858 in England and Wales was 2,535,462. This latter number is obtained, to some extent, by estimates liable to error; but there does not seem to be room for any very important miscalculation. One mistake, however, which requires correction, has been acknowledged by the Commissioners with respect to the Congregational Schools, from some of which no returns were received. It seems best, therefore, to substitute in this case the figures of the census of 1851; the effect of which will be to cause an addition of 17,023 to the above number—making the total 2,552,485. The proportion, therefore, of scholars to population, which was 1 in 8·36 according to the census of 1851, had improved to 1 in 7·65, according to the more recent inquiry; and the Commissioners infer that "the name of almost every child is, at some time or other, on the "books of some school, at which it attends with more or less "regularity."

With our numerical standard, therefore, we may be very well satisfied. Both as to rate of progress and actual attainment the figures are eminently encouraging. The increasing proportions since 1818 have been from—

1 in 17·25 in 1818;
1 „ 11·27 „ 1832;
1 „ 8·36 „ 1851; and
1 „ 7·65 „ 1858.

And, compared with other principal European countries, our proportion of 1 in 7·65 is exceeded only by that of Prussia, under a compulsory system, where it is 1 in 6·27. The proportion in France is 1 in 9·0, and that in Holland 1 in 8·11. Unless, therefore, a wider range of age has been taken in this country than in the others, the comparison is by no means to our discredit.

Of the 2,552,000 *day scholars*, about 1,692,000 were (in 1858) in *public*, and 860,000 in *private* schools. Probably about 50,000 of the former and 500,000 of the latter may have belonged to the middle and upper classes of society; leaving in round numbers 2,000,000 belonging to the rest of the community, viz.:—

In public schools	1,640,000
„ private „	360,000*
	2,000,000

* The Royal Commissioners (from observations made in the selected districts), compute the number of children "in private schools of the class for which annual

The whole of my further remarks will apply exclusively to this residue, which constitutes the section of society referred to when the phrase "*popular* education" is employed.

In the *public popular day schools*, about 30 per cent. of the children remain beyond *ten* years of age; about 20 per cent. beyond 11 years; and about 11 per cent. beyond 12 years. In the private popular day schools the percentage is probably somewhat higher, as they are frequented by the children of the more thriving artisans, &c. Still, nearly 70 per cent. of the entire number of children of the working class leave school before attaining the age of 10.

The period during which a child is under tuition is about four years, on the average; some, of course, spending a longer time than this in school, and some a shorter. The attendance, however, during the period over which the tuition extends, is not regular; and it seems that the irregularity is increasing. In the specimen districts of the Education Commissioners it was found that the number of children who attended 176 days per annum was only 47·4 per cent. in 1853, and had since then constantly diminished till it was only 39·4 per cent. in 1857.

If we endeavour to discriminate between different kinds of public elementary day schools, we find that out of about 24,000 there are 10,435 containing 1,154,050 scholars, which are or have been assisted by the Government grant, and are liable to inspection. To these must be added 999 schools, with 47,748 scholars, which are almost entirely supported by taxation. The number of schools at present receiving annual grants is, however, less than this, viz., 6,897, containing 917,225 children. The result is, that there are 16,107 schools with 675,185 scholars, which do not at present receive aid; though some of them are liable to inspection on account of past assistance.

We should also find that most of the schools, both inspected and uninspected, are connected with some religious communion; viz., in the following proportions:—

"grants are intended," at two-thirds of the whole, viz., 573,536., I have ventured to prefer an estimate based upon facts ascertained at the Census of 1851, which appears more consistent with the numbers and school-time of the children of the middle and upper classes, even assuming these classes to constitute no more than a fifth of the population.

Religious Communion, &c.	Inspected Schools.	Uninspected Schools.	Total. Schools.	Total. Scholars.
Established Church	5,583	13,966	19,549	1,187,086
Roman Catholics	253	490	743	85,866
Wesleyans	263	182	445	59,873
Congregationalists*	—	453	453	50,186
Baptists	—	144	144	9,388
Miscellaneous	—	247	247	22,931
British†	687	444	1,131	151,005
	6,786	15,926	22,712	1,566,335

* The numbers given by the Royal Commissioners (388 schools and 33,163 scholars) are confessedly inaccurate I have, therefore, adopted the figures of the census of 1851, as supplying a better, though still, in all probability, an inadequate account.

† Most of the British schools are connected with religious communions, but the instruction, though religious, is not sectarian.

About 43,000 scholars were found in ragged schools, orphan schools, Birkbeck schools, and factory schools.

Others belong almost exclusively to the State, viz.:—

Schools.	Schools.	Scholars.
Pauper schools	869	35,303
Prison ,,	47	2,683
Naval and military schools	83	9,762
	999	47,748

Turning, now, to the question of *Cost*, we learn that (apart from the sums spent upon administration, inspection, and school-buildings), the amount requisite to maintain the 24,000 public popular day schools in their present state is about 2,000,000*l.*; the calculation being, that each child costs, in inspected schools, 30*s.* a-year, and in uninspected schools perhaps a third less. To this must be added, probably, about 350,000*l.*, on account of the popular private schools.

The sources from which the annual income necessary to defray this cost is obtained are chiefly three, viz.:—

1. Payments by the parents.
2. Private benevolence.
3. Public taxation.

The great mass of the provision is supplied by the combination of

all three; but a certain proportion of it is due to one or another exclusively. Thus, the self-supporting private schools contain (according to the preceding estimate), 360,000 scholars; and the public schools which are wholly supported by the State contain 47,748 scholars; leaving about 1,592,000 children, the cost of whose education is defrayed from some, or all, of the various sources in conjunction. Of the total cost of the entire number of public popular day schools, viz., 2,000,000*l.*, as above mentioned, 26 per cent. seems to be furnished by the parents; 46 per cent. by subscription, endowment, or other form of private assistance; and 28 per cent. by taxation.

The amount of the Parliamentary grant for the year 1859 was 836,920*l.*, the chief portion of which was divided between 32 training institutions and 6,897 day schools, with 917,255 scholars. Consequently, the number of public popular day schools which participated in the grant was less than the number which derived no benefit from it; the unassisted public day schools numbering 16,067. But the number of scholars in the aided schools was more by 245,862 than in the unaided schools.

It may be useful now to pass from these general statistics in order to advert to those which bear upon some of the questions which are likely to assume prominence in the wide review, which seems inevitable, of our educational policy.

1. Of these questions, obviously the most important is that of the practical results of the present system. Are these results such as prove that a fair equivalent is rendered for the expenditure incurred? The statistics upon this point contributed by the Educational Commissioners are, that only about 1 in 4 of the scholars in the best schools is successfully educated in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Mr. Norris, one of the Inspectors of Schools, puts the proportion of the successfully educated at 1 in 8 of those who attend; and other official reports mention, that in many cases the knowledge acquired is forgotten in a short time after removal from school. Perhaps these statements are not altogether of the nature of statistical facts; as their value is partly dependent on the impressions of the observers; but the results receive some corroboration from other facts of a more positive character. Thus, it appears that "out of 12,402 scholars in "317 evening schools in the ten specimen districts, no less than "10,706, or 83·37 per cent., had attended day schools for various "periods; yet almost all of them were learning to read, write, and "cypher."*—Again, the Civil Service Examinations supply some facts which bear upon this point. For example, the examination of letter carriers, under the Post Office, has never extended beyond the most

* "Report of the Education Commission," p. 42.

simple exercises in the elementary acquirements of reading, writing, and the first four rules of arithmetic; yet rejections were formerly numerous, and the Postmaster-General has recently reduced the test for these officers to the mere exercise of writing their own names and addresses, reading the directions of twenty letters, and adding a few figures together. As most of the persons who apply for these situations must have passed some years at school, it seems evident that if they are really unable to comply with the meagre demands of the abrogated test, and if they are fair representatives of their class, a very great deal of money must have been wasted upon their instruction, so far as secular knowledge is concerned. These statistics, therefore, appear to confirm, to some extent, the accuracy of the opinions founded on the personal observations of inspectors,—that whatever may be the permanent good effected by the daily moral training which the children undergo, the knowledge of the elementary and most essential subjects is either very imperfectly acquired at school or very rapidly and completely forgotten when attendance at school has ceased.—Other evidence on the point in question is to be found in the Registrar-General's Returns of the number of persons who sign the marriage register with marks. These returns throw some light on the state of elementary education ten or twelve years ago; and though not supplying an exact measure of the positive amount of ignorance, are very valuable as showing comparative results at different periods. The following table exhibits rather a cheering rate of progress,—the proportion of marks having declined from 40·8 per cent. in 1841, to 30·9 per cent. in 1860; though it may still, of course, be held that the positive extent of failure is too great considering the magnitude of the efforts made some ten or twelve years back.

Signatures in Marriage Registers, 1841-60.

Years ended 31st December.	To 100 Married, the Proportion who Signed the Marriage Register with Marks.		
	Males.	Females.	Mean.
1841	32·7	48·8	40·8
'42	32·0	47·9	40·0
'43	32·7	49·0	40·9
'44	32·4	49·2	40·8
'45	33·2	49·6	41·4
1846	32·6	48·2	40·4
'47	31·2	45·5	38·4
'48	31·2	45·4	38·3
'49	31·0	45·9	38·5
'50	31·1	46·2	38·7
1851	30·8	45·3	38·1
'52	30·5	44·6	37·6
'53	30·4	43·9	37·2
'54	30·0	42·7	36·4
'55	29·5	41·2	35·4
1856	28·8	40·2	34·5
'57	27·7	38·8	32·3
'58	27·0	37·6	32·3
'59	26·7	37·6	32·2
'60	25·2	36·2	30·9

2. Another highly important question relates to the distribution of the Government grant according to the necessities of the people. Is the assistance rendered by the public given to those by whom it is really required? It is said, for example, that the State's contributions afford aid, to a considerable extent, to localities which could and would do without it, or with less of it; and are withheld from the small poor parishes in which it is really required. In illustration, an account is given by the Royal Commissioners (from facts ascertained by the Rev. N. Stephenson), of 655 parishes, having each less than 600 population, in Herefordshire, Devonshire, and Somersetshire, from which it appears that the number of such parishes receiving aid from the Privy Council is—

In Herefordshire	5	out of	130
„ Devonshire	2	„	245
„ Somersetshire	1	„	280
	8		655

And, as a general result, it is stated that while the average of aided parishes is 1 in 2·97 of those containing more than 600 inhabitants, it is only 1 in 26·44 of those containing less than 600.

It must be borne in mind, however, in endeavouring to appreciate correctly the force of these facts, that, as is pointed out by the Royal Commissioners, the very smallness of these parishes must, of necessity, place them at a disadvantage; from which it seems to be possible that the fault may rest upon the parochial system rather than upon the plan with which it is, in these cases, incompatible.

3. A third point, of some interest if not of quite so much importance as the previous two, is whether the principle of proportioning the aid supplied from the public taxes to the amount raised by voluntary contributions secures an equitable distribution of the grant amongst the various religious communions. Such a principle, it is evident, will not bear universal application. The mere fact that a wealthy man is willing to give 1,000*l.* to build a schoolroom does not suffice to give him a claim upon the rest of the community for the remainder of the needful funds. An opulent Jew, for instance, could not thus be assisted in the establishment of schools to teach his faith to the children of Christian parents, even though attendance at the synagogue were not made compulsory. The operation of the principle, therefore, must clearly be, to some extent, limited; and accordingly the administrators of the present system have imposed such a limitation by exacting, as a condition of public aid, "that the "religious denomination of the new school shall be suitable to the "families relied upon for supplying scholars." The question, therefore, is—how the principle, thus restricted in its application, has worked; and the statistics upon this point show that the proportion of the Government grant obtained by the various religious communions in England and Wales was as follows, down to the end of the year 1860:—

	Amount Received.	Proportion per Cent. of the Entire Grant to Religious Bodies.
	£	Per Cnt.
Established Church	3,070,432	78·6
Wesleyan Methodists	232,222	5·9
Congregationalists	—	—
Roman Catholics	166,332	4·3
Other communions.....	—	—
British schools	436,657	11·2
Total amount distributed amongst the religious communions	3,905,643	100·0

The Established Church, therefore, has obtained nearly 80 per cent. of the amount raised by taxation; while all other religious bodies (credit being given them for the amount awarded to British

schools), have obtained rather more than 20 per cent.; a result which might have been anticipated from the vastly superior wealth possessed by the members of the church. These proportions, however, by no means express the relative positions of the various communions with respect to the number of adherents; and the question may still remain, whether the assistance of the State should be given according to the wealth of a religious body or according to the numbers requiring instruction. I say this may be one of the questions raised by a general revision of the present system; and the following figures may help in the discussion of it.

Dividing the population into three classes,—(1) Those who attend the services of the Established Church; (2) Those who attend the services of other religious communions; and (3) The non-attendants —the proportions per cent., in 1851, of the population able to attend, were estimated as follows:*—

Established church	30·1 per cent.
Other communions	27·8 ,,
Non-attendants	42·1 ,,
	100·

This, however, refers to the whole population, rich and poor together. The proportions in the class for which popular day schools are designed would very likely be different; probably (as the strength of dissent lies principally in the poorer classes), showing a diminution in the percentage of attendants at the Established Church, and an increase in that of the attendants belonging to other communions. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the proportion of non-attendants given above refers to a particular Sunday—that many of this number attend occasionally, and some habitually, at the services of one or another of the religious communions,—and that probably the number of such occasional attendants is greater in the case of the Established Church than in that of the other communions. It will be obvious, however, that, notwithstanding this last-mentioned circumstance, the distribution of public money is not proportionate to the numerical position of the different bodies,—the Established Church obtaining 80 per cent. of the grant, and the other communions 20 per cent. If attention were confined to Wales, the difference

* I reproduce these figures without any hesitation, though I am aware that the data upon which they are founded have been subjected to cavil by some to whom the results are offensive. The objections referred to were entirely hypothetical; and the returns have received ample corroboration from subsequent investigations. It is only to be regretted that a similar inquiry, pursued by the same method, was not undertaken (as recommended by this Society) in connection with the Census of last year.

would probably appear still more remarkable; as there the services of the Church are attended by only 12 or 13 per cent. of the population, against 40 per cent. who attend other services; while the number of church schools is 878 (with 52,000 scholars), against 228 belonging to other communions (containing 22,000 scholars). I have not been able to ascertain the comparative amount of assistance given by the Privy Council; but there can scarcely be any doubt that the church schools have received the larger share.

It is to be noticed, however, that church schools, established under these circumstances, are evidently regarded by dissenting parents more as national than as denominational institutions, and are attended by their children for the sake of the secular instruction; their religious education being derived from the Sunday schools. As these can be established without the severe pecuniary outlay requisite for day schools, we find, as might be expected, that the number of attendants in them represents more accurately the respective numerical positions of the various churches; the Established Church throughout the country having 1,092,822 scholars in 1858, against 1,318,732 belonging to other bodies; and the numbers in Wales being about 42,576 belonging to the former, against 190,480 belonging to the latter.

II.

Turning, now, from this view of the existing provision for popular education to the question of the future supply, it will, I think, be most instructive to consider chiefly the nature and capacity of the sources from which that supply must be drawn. These, as already mentioned, are mainly three, viz.:—

1. The people themselves; both parents and children.
2. Benevolent persons, of the classes above them.
3. The public taxes.

What proportion each of these should in future contribute, will be, I imagine, the point of future controversy. I have placed them, in what I take to be the order of their responsibility; assuming—(1) That no claim for assistance, either from private or public benevolence, would arise if the persons directly interested were able themselves to provide the necessary funds, and (2) That no claim upon *public* charity would arise if the joint efforts of the other two classes were proved to be adequate. According to this view, the measure of the claim upon charity of *any* kind is the deficiency in the resources of the people themselves; and the measure of the claim upon *public* charity is the deficiency in the joint resources of the people and of private benevolence. This way of regarding the question will, at all events, serve to place such statistics as are to follow in a convenient shape for use, whatever theory of comparative

obligation may be held. It seems quite clear, however, that one of the problems demanding speedy solution will be the mode by which the contributions of the State can in future be lessened.

1. In the first place, then, we may ask,—to what extent may we expect that those for whose use the popular schools are to be provided will themselves supply the provision? If we estimate the total number of persons belonging to this class at four-fifths of the population, the number of children for whom accommodation should, according to the existing ratio, be furnished may be taken at 2,000,000. But it will, of course, be at once perceived that some of these are paupers and some criminals, for whom, there is no doubt, the State alone must provide. The number of children belonging to these classes (including out-door paupers), must be near 200,000; so that the residue would amount to 1,800,000, as to whom the question might be put to their parents, how far they are able to bear their own burden, and how far they are compelled, by poverty, to cast a portion of it upon others and upon the State.

As to a certain portion of them an answer is at once supplied by the fact that a very considerable number of the children of the labouring classes are educated in private schools, which receive no other support than the payments made by the children's relatives. The total number of scholars in private schools in 1851 was 721,396, and in 1858 it was estimated (on rather imperfect data), at 860,304. What portion of this latter number is to be found in schools for the classes under consideration is not given separately. If the estimate made in 1851 might be taken, it would be about 270,000. The Royal Commissioners, however, place the number as high as 573,436. This I believe to be considerably in excess of the reality, as it would leave an insufficient margin for the children of the upper and middle classes. A medium estimate (say 360,000) would, probably, represent more nearly the number. We shall be justified in assuming that at least the present proportion may also for the future be found in self-supporting schools; for it is a remarkable fact, that in spite of what the Royal Commissioners have described as the somewhat unfair competition of the schools assisted by Government, the relative number of private schools for the working classes has scarcely, if at all, diminished during the last ten years. I say this is a remarkable fact, for it shows how strong must be the laudable feeling in these classes against any form of dependence upon public or private bounty; and it is only made all the more remarkable by the circumstance that the instruction in these private schools is pronounced by the Royal Commissioners to be decidedly inferior to that which is given (at considerably less expense to the parents) in the assisted schools. In estimating, therefore, our resources for the future, we should not only take account of the ability and willingness

of a large portion of the people to sustain the whole cost of their education, but endeavour to see whether this source of revenue cannot be made much more productive. It will readily be admitted that if the working classes are able to get as good an education without assistance as with it, it will be better for all parties that they should do so; since (apart from the just relief to the other classes of society) the very habit itself of independent effort is a moral training far more valuable than many lessons. I will therefore mention two ways in which, it appears to me, that the number of efficient private self-supporting schools might be increased.

(i.) By raising their general character, and enabling parents to distinguish between the efficient and the inefficient. These ends might be gained by examination of the masters and inspection of the schools. I do not go so far as to say that no one should be allowed to teach without a licence (although this would probably be more consistent with the policy of encouraging voluntary effort than the plan of subsidies); but if persons were permitted to present themselves voluntarily for examination, and to offer their schools voluntarily for inspection, it is probable that the feeling of confidence which the possession of a Government or university sanction would create in the minds of parents would induce many more of them than at present do so to assume the whole burden of their children's education. The statistics of the Royal Commission show, that out of 3,594 teachers of private elementary schools in the ten specimen districts (of whom 3,071 were females), only 17, or less than 1 per cent., held certificates of competency from any public body. The plan now mentioned has the sanction of these Commissioners, who suggest that the Government examination for certificates should be thrown open to all persons of good character who might present themselves. If there could be added to this a machinery for the inspection of such private schools as their proprietors might choose to submit to the ordeal, and for an examination of the scholars, the means by which parents could discriminate between good and bad schools, would be much increased. The two universities, which are now acting so beneficially in this way with regard to the middle-class schools, would only be acting out the part of really national institutions by devoting some portion of their annual income of 500,000*l.* to the encouragement of education in the class most sorely in need of it.

(ii.) Another source, entirely unproductive hitherto, from which, I venture to think, a considerable number of purely self-supporting schools might be maintained, may be found in the numerous trade societies which have now taken firm root in the country, and have spread their branches over the whole surface of the land. Whatever may be the errors and faults of such combinations, it is useless to

expect that they will cease to exist, or even that they will not continue to grow; nor will it be denied that they have their compensating advantages. It would seem, therefore, to be a wise policy to attract as much as possible of the energies of this form of co-operation to objects of undoubted utility; and assuredly no enterprise could be found more beneficial in itself, and more accordant with the main purposes which these institutions, in their character of benefit societies, are designed to fulfil, than the foundation and support of schools for the children of members. At all events, in any attempt at a statistical account of the available means of popular education, a reference should not be omitted to the possible results of an appeal to a source so legitimate as this. It is to be hoped that more complete statistics than we now possess may, ere long, be produced, showing the extent and power of these societies. A first effort has already been made in the Report of the Committee appointed by the Social Science Association; from which we learn, as an illustration of the capabilities of some of these unions, that in 1859 the Society of Amalgamated Engineers consisted of more than 17,000 members in nearly 200 branches, and had an income of 50,000*l.*, with a balance at Christmas, 1858, of 30,000*l.* Another estimate of the power and willingness of the working classes to sustain, by combined effort, whatever policy they may believe to be for the benefit of their order, may be formed from the fact that the strike of the Amalgamated Engineers, in 1852, cost the men no less than 35,459*l.*, besides the loss of wages; while that of the Preston weavers, in 1853-4, is estimated by Mr. Henry Ashworth to have cost no less than 347,000*l.*, viz., 250,000*l.* in wages to the men thrown out of work, and 97,000*l.* in contributions by workmen of other districts towards their support. Nor can we omit to notice the remarkable experiment, or rather exhibition, of the power of combined exertion amongst working men shown in various instances of successful co-operative associations. The Rochdale Society of Pioneers has now a capital of 32,000*l.*, and its business amounts to 170,000*l.* annually; the flour mills produce yearly 200,000*l.* worth of flour; and the cotton mill, opened in 1860, cost 45,000*l.* And it is a very instructive fact, as bearing upon the point under consideration, that 2½ per cent. of the profits of one of these societies is devoted to a library and reading room for the members and their wives and families.

It is not probable, indeed, that the utmost efforts of the people, acting by themselves, will, for some time to come, obviate the necessity for very considerable aid from other classes of the community. It may, however, be reasonably expected that the proportion of their self-help to that of the help bestowed upon them will gradually increase At present, it is found that the cost of assisted schools is

borne to the extent of 23 per cent. by the people, and 77 per cent. by other parties. It is not doubted that the former ratio may be augmented, though opinions differ as to the possible degree and rapidity of the increase. Sir J. Shuttleworth thinks, that "within a "quarter of a century, at least 500,000*l.* per annum may be added to "the present income from school-pence alone." Mr. Tremenheere urges the opinion that, by the inducement of a system of prizes, accompanied by a withdrawal of the Government grant, the school-fees might be raised by at least 1*d.* per head per week,—equal to as much as 170,000*l.* per annum in the aggregate from the inspected schools. We may, perhaps, assume that the revised code owes its origin, in some degree, to the conviction that parents may be induced to pay higher fees if they see that the education given in exchange is more practically useful to their children. But, although there is a general opinion that more might be produced from this source than is at present received, it is very difficult to give any estimate of the probable addition. If Dr. Farr's suggestion, that facts as to the rate of wages throughout the country should be collected as part of the decennial census, had been adopted by the Government, we might have had the means of measuring much more accurately than is now possible, the ability of the working classes to procure for their families this common necessary of life. But the recent census was, unfortunately, restricted to a very narrow field of inquiry, and we can, therefore, only form a general opinion that there must be a great many artisans earning upwards of 30*s.* a-week, and a considerable number earning as much as 40*s.* a-week—an income equal to that of many a married clergyman or commercial clerk. We may also draw a general inference as to the resources of this class from the late Mr. Porter's well-known calculation, that 50,000,000*l.* yearly are spent by them in beer, spirits, and tobacco; though we should have to recollect that this amount is not distributed equally over the whole class. On the other hand, it is impossible to read the facts as to agricultural earnings which have been given by Mr. Purdy in a recent valuable paper without perceiving that the payment even of a penny per week for several children must be a matter of difficulty with some portion of the class. Still, on the whole, there is a concurrence of opinion in favour of the ability of the people, in the aggregate, to increase their part of the contribution; and a statistical view of our future resources would not be complete without a reference to one or two of the plans by which this result might be produced. For instance:—

(*a.*) There is the prize scheme, already mentioned, which I only allude to again for the purpose of stating that the number of Prize Scheme Associations formed in 1860, in various parts of England and Wales, was twenty-eight, and that the Royal Commissioners

express what seem to be reasonable doubts whether the influence of such schemes would be much felt by the mass of the scholars, whose parents can hardly be expected to keep them at school much longer than would otherwise be the case for the sake of the chance of their gaining a prize considerably less in value than the amount of wages they could earn by quitting school for the factory or the field. There appears to be no reason, however, why prizes and examinations should not be very useful in stimulating effort within the ordinary school-period, and inducing parents to increase their share of the expenses.

(*b.*) Then, there is the scheme suggested by Dr. Temple, against which the objection just referred to does not press with so much weight: that admissions to the better endowed schools should not, henceforth, be obtained by nomination of patrons, but be offered as the prizes for success in the inferior schools. The value of such prizes would be quite sufficient to tempt many parents of promising scholars to make extra exertions and sacrifices. The number of these presentations would, doubtless, be very considerable, and this way of disposing of them would not fail to diffuse a spirit of activity over all the elementary schools.

(*c.*) Similar in some respects to the prize schemes, and adapted to secure similar results with more certainty and fewer drawbacks, is the plan of open competition for the inferior Government appointments; that is, the bestowal of these more substantial prizes upon those who, possessing all other requisite qualifications for the work to be done, should give evidence of their superior intelligence and industry by their superior proficiency in reading, writing, spelling, and the simpler rules of arithmetic. The vacancies occurring annually in situations of this nature number at least 500; and although, of course, such prizes could not be bestowed upon schoolboys, such a conspicuous example of the practical value of education could not fail both to induce parents to appreciate more highly the day school and to impel their children to preserve the knowledge obtained in the day school by attending evening schools. This subject is not altogether unnoticed by the Royal Commissioners; but they seem to have imperfectly comprehended both the main object of the plan and the description of prizes for which members of the working classes would be invited to compete. My own opinions upon the subject have, however, been so often uttered, that I should not, even if this were the proper place, repeat them here. I will only express a fear that we shall be rejecting a very powerful means of promoting education, without detriment to the Civil Service, if, adopting the advice of the Royal Commissioners, we are to discourage the people from regarding it (as it is certainly regarded by other classes of society) as a help towards success in life as well as

"a source of morality, enjoyment, and comfort." The following figures represent a number of situations, most of which might be filled by means of competitive examination (confined to reading, writing, spelling and the first four rules of arithmetic) of persons educated in popular elementary day and evening schools, whenever there might be two or more applicants otherwise well qualified for the duties.

Out-door officers in the Customs	3,000
Letter carriers in the Post Office	3,022
Rural messengers in ,, ...	5,186
Messengers, porters, &c. in all departments	1,500
	11,708

The apprentices in the dockyards, and the boys engaged in the steam factories under the Admiralty (about 1,000 in number together) are already selected by open competition, with the best results. (See Mr. Cumin's report.) A similar measure with respect to the London letter carriers was sanctioned by the Duke of Argyll, when Postmaster-General, in July, 1860; but his Grace retired from that office before the plan was brought into action, and it was not adopted by his successor.

(*d.*) But probably the most effective method by which the contributions of the people themselves might be increased is one which has hitherto been surprisingly neglected, viz., the establishment of evening schools, or classes, or simply reading-rooms. It has been common to lament over the fact of the early withdrawal of children from school as a great hindrance to their useful instruction; and no doubt can exist that in multitudes of cases the effect has been that they have so completely forgotten what they had learnt as to render most of the expenditure incurred for them pure waste. Fewer than 20 per cent. remain at school after 11 years of age, and not more than 11 per cent. after 12. But is the regret so commonly expressed on this account altogether reasonable? Surely, there is something so natural and inevitable in this tendency to early labour, that instead of lamenting the existence of this state of things as the cause of our ill-success, we ought probably to be led to suspect that our educational machinery is ill-adapted to the circumstances of our condition. At all events, in one respect,—viz., that which we are considering, the resources of the people themselves—it is clear that a gain instead of a loss ought to be the consequence of a child's employment; since the ability to contribute would, of course, be increased by the amount of the wages received. All that would be requisite from other parties would be that they should adapt their efforts to the changed circumstances, and give in the evening the

instruction which cannot be imparted in the day time. The whole number of evening schools is no more than 2,036, containing 80,966 scholars; figures which may be said to represent something like utter destitution. There seems, however, no adequate reason why the country should not be almost covered with evening schools, without any addition to the demands upon benevolence or taxation. No elaborate system of tuition is necessary. The object being to preserve whatever results the day school teaching may have furnished, the slightest connecting link would suffice. Even mere news-rooms might be enough to keep up the power and practice of reading, which is the key to all other necessary knowledge. But more might be taught if there were a demand for more; and the present day school teachers might be available for such tuition without detriment to their other duties, if their period for day time instruction were shortened. Mr. Chadwick has at least brought sufficient evidence in support of his position that in this, as in other respects, the half is more than the whole, to entitle his facts and arguments to careful consideration. At present nearly all day schools are open at two separate periods of the day—morning and afternoon; and, indeed, the conditions upon which grants are given almost necessitate the practice in all assisted schools.

These are a few of the ways by which "the independent poor," as they are called by the Royal Commissioners, might probably be incited to a greater amount of profitable sacrifices for their children and themselves. There are, doubtless, other influences equally powerful which might be employed to the same end. On the other hand, there are some that would act in a contrary direction; and it may be worth consideration whether the scheme, favoured by the Royal Commissioners, of extending the State's assistance to *all* scholars in unassisted schools (both public and private) would not have this effect, by reducing the school-fees from 4*d*., 6*d*., or 8*d*. a-week, which is now paid in many private schools, to little more than 2*d*. a-week, which seems to be about the average in inspected schools. A similar effect, though less in degree, might be the result with regard to unassisted public schools when thus brought under the uniform system, since some of them at present extract more in the shape of school fees than do the inspected schools.

2. Passing now to an estimate of the aid which, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the people themselves, must for some time, be rendered by other portions of the community, and of the amount which the resources of private benevolence may be expected to yield —we must by no means lose sight of the important assistance which ought to be rendered by the benevolence of former times, existing now in the shape of endowments. The aggregate value of educational charities has not yet been accurately ascertained; but the estimate of the Charitable Trusts Commission reaches to 375,000*l*. per annum. There can be no doubt that the original object of nearly all these endowments was the education of the poorer classes, and that in very many cases the funds are now misapplied for the benefit of a higher class who could well afford to pay for its instruction. A good deal, also, is lost by wasteful administration, and some is diverted altogether from its proper object. In two ways, therefore, this fund might be made more productive than at present, viz., (1) By securing the whole amount for strictly educational purposes; and (2) By restoring to their proper objects those charities which, though applied to promote education, have been misappropriated to a wrong class of the community. But besides what has been left specifically for education, there is also a further amount of upwards of 200,000*l*. per annum left generally "for the poor;"* a considerable part of which might, as the Royal Commissioners recommend, be most usefully employed, without undue violence to the founders' intentions, in extending to this class the advantages of a better education.

It must be obvious that, even as far as we have gone in this investigation, the result has been to show that a very large revenue is producible from the sources already mentioned, viz., (1) From the people alone, devoted to private schools; (2) From the same source, but raised by co-operation and applied to public schools connected with the various trades; (3) From the same source, in the form of increased payments for the instruction given in other public day schools and in evening schools; and (4) From private benevolence, in the shape of endowments. But there still remains, before we can state the amount which may be needed from Government, the productive mine of the private benevolence of the current generation. The present annual amount contributed from this source (apart from the amount raised for the erection, &c., of new buildings) must certainly exceed 800,000*l*., and is, probably, considerably in excess of this sum. Some of this, but more especially of the sum expended in the building of school premises, has doubtless been the result of the stimulus applied by the Government grants. It is not, however, quite correct to say, as Sir James Shuttleworth does, that the whole amount "has been called forth" by these grants. The amount thus called forth is neither more nor less than the amount which would not otherwise have been forthcoming; and this can only be matter of conjecture. In many cases the grant may have tempted persons to subscribe who would else have refrained; but there can be no doubt that in other cases it has been welcomed as a relief from a burden which would otherwise have been borne by the landowner

* See Mr. Cumin's "Report to the Education Commissioners."

or the locality. It is noticeable with regard to the expense of training colleges, that the income from subscriptions has steadily declined in proportion as that from the Government grant has increased, the ratio being*—

	Government Grants.	Students' Payments.	Subscriptions.
1854	36·5	18·6	44·9
'56	46·7	11·5	41·8
'57	55·2	8·1	36·7
'58	64·3	5·0	30·7

And we now learn, that at present the Government is paying no less than 90 per cent. of the entire cost of these institutions.†

There may be reasons for this which do not apply to elementary schools, but I venture to think that, as there are countervailing inducements, both in the existence and in the absence of the Government grants, we may safely calculate on the present amount of subscriptions being maintained whatever policy the Government may think proper to adopt.

3. Lastly, to provide for whatever deficiency may exist after the exhaustion of the means already mentioned, there is the resource of public taxation. The value of this resource it would of course be useless to pretend to estimate, as it is practically boundless, or only limitable by the willingness of the taxpayers. Some measure of that willingness may perhaps be inferred from the amount already raised, viz., 6,200,000*l.* since 1839; the current annual amount having now reached 800,000*l.* On the other hand, however, the very existence of the revised code is probably an indication of some uneasiness under this yearly burden; and it would be rash to assume that the Government grants could be so swollen as to flow into all the popular day schools which at present do without them. The total expenditure which such an extension would require from the State, has been variously computed at 750,000*l.* a-year, which Sir J. K. Shuttleworth thinks would, in a few years, be sufficient; at 2,100,000*l.*, which is the Royal Commissioners' estimate; between 3,000,000*l.* and 4,000,000*l.*, which was the calculation of Mr. Disraeli when Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1858; and at 5,000,000*l.* a-year which Dr. Temple considers would be ultimately reached.‡ If we take 30*s.* as the average yearly cost of each child's yearly education under the Privy Council system, the addition of about 1,000,000 children who are now instructed in schools (both public and private) which do not receive aid from Government, would cause an addition of about 1,500,000*l.* to the present grant, supposing that the existing conditions on which such aid is afforded, could be maintained and complied with. As, however, most of the unassisted public schools are in poor localities, and are on that account, or from other circumstances unable to satisfy these conditions, it seems to follow that, if they are to be elevated by Government assistance to the level of the inspected schools, the proportion of that assistance must be greater than is now afforded to schools more favourably situated and more liberally supported. For some years, too, there would be the extra expense of new school buildings; and there would also, of course, be a constant addition to the cost of inspection and administration. Supposing the revised code to be in force, its first effect would doubtless be to lessen the proportion of the State's contribution; but whether it would cause any permanent reduction, is a question which could only be determined by experience. On the other hand, such a complete extinction of private schools as is thus contemplated is hardly to be expected, whatever might be the severity of the competition to which the Government assistance to their rivals would expose them. A certain, and not inconsiderable, number of the working classes will always retain that independent spirit which impels them to decline whatever is offered in the shape of charity.

As I have already said, there have lately been indications that the prospect of so large a demand upon the national revenue, would be viewed with some apprehension; and even that a diminution of the present proportions of the Parliamentary grant would not be unwelcome if it could be effected without detriment to its main object. My chief design, therefore, in presenting the preceding figures to the Society, has been to supply the most important facts and estimates which may enable impartial observers to judge how far any increased demands may be necessary, or how far existing demands may be reduced. It is not, I assume, a matter of controversy, but a principle generally admitted, that the aid given by one part of the community towards the education of the other part, is not given because the relation of charity and dependence thus

* See Mr. Cowie's "Report" for 1858, quoted by Mr. Tremenheere.

† Speech of Mr. Lowe, M.P., 13th February, 1862.

‡ Sir J. Shuttleworth proposes to reduce year by year the Parliamentary grant till it reaches three-fourths of its present ratio to the whole amount raised; the effect being that 750,000*l.* would, at the end of fifteen years, be adequate for the support of the system extended to all the schools in the country. In the interim, he thinks that the grant might reach 1,000,000*l.* or 1,200,000*l.*, but not exceed the latter sum. Dr. Temple, on the other hand, founds his estimate on the supposition that the conditions of Government aid would be gradually and greatly relaxed, and that the funds now raised from other sources, would (as in the case of the Training Colleges) diminish as the Government aid increased.

produced is in itself desirable, but because it is supposed that the great blessing of education would not otherwise, or not so speedily, or not so effectually, be obtained. It must, therefore, be of the utmost consequence in reviewing (as I take it they must be reviewed) our whole position and policy, to form some tolerably correct notion of the resources which exist in the people themselves, and in other quarters independently of the State. In presenting the preceding facts upon this point, I make no pretence of giving any novel information; the greater part of the figures has been obtained from the recent "Report of the Education Commission;" the Statistical Appendix to which Report is an extremely valuable summary of the latest details. My only object has been to give prominence to facts which though known to some, may to many be unknown or unfamiliar, at a time when they are likely to be specially important; and it now only remains for me to hope that this attempt to assist the ensuing discussions may not be altogether unserviceable for that purpose.

APPENDIX.

Parliamentary Grants, 1839-61.

	£		£
1839	30,000	1851	150,000
'40	30,000	'52	160,000
'41	40,000	'53	260,000
'42	40,000	'54	263,000
'43	50,000	'55	396,921
'44	40,000	'56	451,213
1845	75,000	1857	541,233
'46	100,000	'58	663,435
'47	100,000	'59	836,920
'48	125,000	'60	798,167
'49	125,000	'61	803,794
'50	125,000		
			£6,204,683

Income of Educational Societies.

The amount expended in the year 1859 by the eight principal Central Societies for Promoting Popular Education, was 49,741*l.* The sums raised by these societies since their foundation, must have reached at least 1,500,000*l.* There are, besides, various local societies and boards, the income of which is not readily ascertainable. In 1857, twenty-three diocesan boards received between 13,000*l.* and 14,000*l.*

Proportion of Income from School Fees.

		In the £. s.	d.
In Church of England schools,	assisted	5	10
,, ,,	unassisted	4	9
In British schools	assisted	8	1
,,	unassisted	9	11
In denominational schools	assisted	9	3
,, ,,	unassisted	12	2

MISCELLANEA.

CONTENTS:

I.—*Census of France in* 1861.

M. Maurice Block, who is one of the Foreign Honorary Members of the Statistical Society, and Sous-Chef du Bureau de la Statistique Générale de France, has contributed to the Parisian Newspaper *Le Temps*, of the 14th and 21st January, 1862, two very interesting and able articles on the *Census of France in* 1861. As M. Block has favoured the Society by forwarding copies of these articles, we proceed to give a brief outline of their principal contents.

In his first article, M. Block examines the movement of the population in the period between the censuses of 1856 and 1861; compares it with former periods; and contrasts the several departments with one another. He states the population in 1861 at 37,382,225 persons. At the census of 1856 it was 36,039,364 persons; the increase in the quinquennium was, therefore, 1,342,861. But this increase was composed of two very different elements. 1. The annexation of territories (Nice and Savoy), containing 669,059 inhabitants. 2. The actual excess of births over deaths, and of immigration over emigration. If we deduct the increase by annexation, the actual movement of the population represents an increase of 673,802 in the quinquennium, or 134,760 persons *annually*. Comparing these results with former periods, we find the annual increase at the eight last censuses to have been:—

From 1826–31	142,037 per ann.	From 1846–51	76,537 per ann.
„ '31–36	194,337 „		
„ '36–41	135,362 „	„ '51–56	51,238 „
„ '41–46	254,062 „	„ '56–61	134,760 „

Thus, during the last thirty-five years, the rate of increase has been both above and below that of the period 1856-61. The increase from 1821 to 1861 was at the rate of 100,000 per annum. The higher rate of increase during the last quinquennium over the two preceding periods, M. Block attributes to the disappearance of the terrible epidemic (cholera) which raged before 1856. But much is also due to the greater prosperity of the people, the abundance of supplies and of employment. The general rise in prices, M. Block considers, only affects persons with fixed incomes, such as clerks, *rentiers*, and other analogous classes. The increase in the population, however, was not uniform over the whole of France. In 1856, 54 departments, out of 86, showed a *decrease* of population; in 1861, 29 had decreased;

and 23 departments showed a *decrease* at *both* periods. There were also 23 departments in which the *progress* of the population had been steady and constant. With regard to the character of the Departments which had decreased, it was found, that they were either purely agricultural, unfertile, or contained only a few scattered towns. On the other hand, the departments which had increased, were the manufacturing and industrial departments, and those containing the large towns and cities of France. The population, therefore, shows a decided disposition to *migrate from the country into the towns*. M. Block sees nothing to regret in this displacement of the population; it is a movement which is general over Europe; it proceeds from causes inherent in human nature, and when these causes have ceased to operate, as they ultimately must do, a reaction will ensue. On the whole, M. Block considers the results of the census of 1861 to have been satisfactory. They show a progress which he thinks is likely to continue.

In his second article, M. Block proceeds to compare the progress of population in France with that of the other four Great Powers of Europe, and remarks that the rate of progress in France has been *less* than in either of those countries. In Great Britain, the increase of population in the last forty years was 45 per cent., notwithstanding an immense emigration, and a decrease in Ireland. In Russia, the population has *doubled* itself in fifty years, while that of England has increased 119 per cent., and Scotland 90 per cent., in a like period. Prussia, between 1816 and 1858, increased 72 per cent.; Austria, between 1818 and 1857, 27 per cent. In France, the increase in thirty-five years (1826-61) was only 12 per cent. The increase in each of these countries in 100,000 persons, per annum, was as follows:—

England	1,625	United Kingdom	1,125
Prussia	1,440	Austria	692
Russia.....	1,410	France.....	340

M. Block then proceeds to investigate the causes of this low rate of increase in the population of France, by examining into the births, deaths, and marriages of each country. The *Births* in France, from 1855 to 1859, were 987,969 per annum, or 27·5 births to 1,000 of the population. In the four other countries investigated, the birth-rate was as follows:—

England	34 per 1,000	Prussia	38 per 1,000
Austria	36 „	Russia.....	40 „

The Marriage-rate is about the same in Great Britain, Prussia, Austria, and France; in Russia it is a little higher. With regard to the fecundity of marriages, it is found, that to 100 children there are 210 marriages in Prussia, 223 in Russia and Austria, 237 in Great Britain, and 285 in France. As regards *Deaths*, France has a slight advantage over Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The following is the death-rate in each of the five Powers:—

Russia.....	33 per 1,000	Prussia	29 per 1,000
Austria	32 „	France.....	28 „

And Great Britain ..... 22 per 1,000.

The true increase of a population, however, is the excess of births over deaths, and in this respect France does not appear to advantage. The excess is, in France, three times less than in Austria; five times less than in Russia; six times less than in Prussia; and eight times less than in Great Britain. It results from these facts, that the small increase in the population of France is attributable to its low birth-rate. In his concluding paragraphs, M. Block glances at some of the causes of this low birth-rate. He considers it to be due less to physical than to moral causes. It may be true that the Gallic race is less fertile than other races; but the conscription, the late age at which Frenchmen generally marry, and the limit which

they put to the number of children they desire to have, are causes which have much influence in retarding the progress of the population of France.—F. W. H., *Assist. Sec., S. S.*

II.—*Land Legislation in New South Wales*, 1861.

The *Sydney Empire*, of October, 1861, publishes the following summary:—

"The Land Bills, so long the object of contention and dispute, having passed into *law*, we shall briefly point out the principal advantages and improvements conferred on the Colony by their means.

"The three leading principles of the Robertson land scheme, are, 1st, selection before survey at a low fixed price; 2nd, deferred payments, and 3rd, the right of leasing a given area of adjacent pasture ground.

"The thirteenth clause commonly called 'the free selection clause' of the Crown Lands Alienation Act, provides that with the exception of certain descriptions of lands therein specified, all Crown lands 'shall be open for conditional sale by selection in the following manner, namely: Any person may upon any Land Office day, tender to the district Land Agent a written application for the conditional purchase of any such lands, not less than 40 *acres, nor more than* 320 *acres, at the price of* 20*s. per acre*, and may pay to such Land Agent a deposit, of 25 per cent. of the purchase money. And if no other application be made at the same time for the same land, such person shall be declared the conditional purchaser at the aforesaid price.

"And if other applications be made and not immediately withdrawn, the ultimate purchaser shall be determined by lot.

"The Crown lands excepted from conditional sale are thus enumerated and defined. 'Crown lands other than town or suburban lands, and not being within a proclaimed gold field, nor under lease for mining purposes to any other person than the applicant; and not being within areas bounded by lines bearing North, South, East, West, and distant ten miles from the boundary of a town containing according to the last census 10,000 inhabitants, or five miles from a town of 5,000 inhabitants or three miles from a town of 1,000 inhabitants, or two miles from a town or village of 100 inhabitants, and not reserved for the site of a town or village, or for the supply of water, or for any other public purpose, and not excepted from sale under section 7.'

"Under section 7, is included all Crown lands held under lease issued previously to the 22nd February, 1858, that is to say, nearly all the proximate and eligibly situated lands held under pastoral leases in the unsettled districts, comprising upwards of 40 millions of acres.

"These lands are, however, only exempted from sale during the currency of the existing leases, the greater number of which will expire on the 1st January 1865.

"Another considerable reservation consists in lands which have been set apart for towns and villages, which comprise about two millions of acres; but according to a statement made by the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Cowper, during the discussion of this clause in the Assembly, nearly the whole of these lands will be open to free selection.

"By the 19th clause, Crown lands may be conditionally selected for the purposes of *mining, other than gold mining*, in the same manner as under the 13th section except that the price shall be 40*s.* per acre, and a declaration shall be required that not less than an average sum of 2*l.* per acre has been expended on the land in mining operations other than gold mining.

"The privilege of *reducing* the quantity of land originally selected, to any smaller portion, being not less than 40 acres, is also conferred upon the purchaser, on his making a declaration showing an expenditure of not less 5*l.* per acre on the land to be granted, in which case the purchase of the remainder shall be rescinded and the deposit paid upon it applied towards satisfying the balance of the purchase money of the smaller quantity.

"Such are the chief conditions relative to the selection and taking possession of lands *conditionally purchased*.

"We now come to the principle of deferred payments. On the payment of 25 per cent of the purchase money, or 5*s.* per acre for agricultural and grazing land, and 10*s.* per acre for mineral land, three years' credit is given for the balance of the purchase money. At the end of that period the purchaser or his alienee, upon a certain declaration and certificate, and paying the residue of the price, may demand and obtain a grant of the fee simple, with a reservation in the first case of any minerals which the land may contain. But he has the option instead of paying the balance of the purchase money, to defer the payment thereof from year to year by paying interest thereon at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum in the course of the first quarter of each succeeding year.

"The next benefit conferred upon the conditional purchaser is the pre-emptive right of *leasing* a quantity of *adjacent* pasture ground equal to three times the extent of the purchased land. This privilege of pre-emptive leasehold was heretofore confined to proprietors in fee simple, holding 640 acres or more in one block. It is now common to both large and small landholders.

"Owing to this arrangement it will henceforward be in the power of persons of moderate fortune to enter upon undertakings to which many circumstances in the present condition of the colony invite them, by which grazing and agricultural operations will be combined and made subservient to the progress and success of each other. The colony abounds with suitable situations for experiments of such a character.

"Every kind of industry connected with land and cattle, may find in this colony an eligible opportunity for exercise and employment, were our present population and means increased a hundred fold.

"In the different classes of lands dealt with by the various provisions of the Act we have been explaining, the experienced grazier and the skilled agriculturalist may each find an abundance of profitable openings. The horticulturist may secure advantageous situations in the vicinity of the inland towns and gold fields, and the cottager or the digger, bent upon blending his other avocations with tillage, may everywhere obtain a freehold home."

III.—*Labour and Wages in Victoria*, 1861.

We obtain the following from the *Geelong Advertiser*, of December, 1861:—

"It may be interesting to those who live in the chief towns of Great Britain and Ireland, to compare the *Rate of Wages* and *Cost of Living* there with that of Victoria. At the present time an ordinary labourer earns here about 2*l.* 8*s.* per week; carpenters, 3*l.*; wheelwrights and blacksmiths, 2*l.* 14*s.*; curriers, 4*l.* to 5*l.* per week. As a clue to the flourishing state of the various savings' banks throughout the colony, we may add that men in receipt of wages can procure neat three and four-roomed cottages from 4*s.* to 6*s.* per week, while provisions of the best quality are procurable at the following rates:—flour, 1½*d.* per lb.; prime beef and mutton, 2*d* and 3*d.*: potatoes, 1*d.* per lb.; tea, 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; sugar, 5*d.*; fresh butter, 8*d.* to 10*d.*; milk, 6*d.* per quart; eggs, 1*s.* per dozen, and other articles in proportion. The position of the country labourer is quite as good. A ploughman gets his 25*s.* per week, with lodgings and rations; a farm labourer, 18*s.* to 20*s.*,

with lodgings and rations, while the wages in town and country, of general house servants (female), has suffered no material reduction from the rates of what is commonly called 'the dear times,'—the wages of general house servants ranging as high at the present time as 25*l.* to 30*l.* per annum.

"These facts and figures sufficiently prove that the position of the working man in Victoria is vastly superior to that of his prototype in the old world; and under the new assisted immigration scheme which has been found to work so well on a comparatively small scale, that its results on a large scale promise comparatively great results, we look forward with confidence to a large and important addition ere long to our already prosperous and thrifty population."

We take the following article from the *Melbourne Argus* of November, 1861:—

"At the present moment, the cost of living in this colony is lower probably than in any part of the civilized world. Rents, the wages of domestic servants, and the better descriptions of wearing apparel, are more expensive here than in many parts of Europe, but these are items of expenditure which do not press upon the labouring classes in Victoria, whose position is superior to that of the same classes in Canada and the United States, and immeasurably superior to that of the operatives in the mother country.

"The Registrar-General's estimate of the weekly expenditure of the family of an artizan, consisting of a man, his wife, and three children, in 1854, 1857, and 1861, respectively is as follows:—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1854	7	–	3½	1857	3	13	4½	1861	2	7	4

"But 7*s.* may be deducted from the latter estimate on account of the reduction which has taken place in the price of bread, meat, butter, flour, and other articles, since the calculation was made, and if the artizan occupies his own cottage a further deduction of 6*s.* must be made upon the items of rent and vegetables, bringing the cost of living down to 34*s.* weekly.

"But while this is less than one-fourth of what it was in 1854, we do not find anything like a corresponding reduction in the rates of labour, as given by the same authority, these having been, for the periods compared as follows:—

	1854.			1861.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Farm labourers, *with rations, per week*....	1	15	–	–	15	–
Ploughmen ,, ,, ...	2	–	–	1	–	–
Reapers, *per acre*	1	5	–	–	15	–
Mowers, ,, ...	–	15	–	–	6	–
Shepherds, *with rations, per annum*.....	48	–	–	33	–	–
Stock-keepers ,, ,, ...	65	–	–	40	–	–
Hut-keepers ,, ,, ...	35	–	–	25	–	–
Masons, *per day*	1	12	–	–	14	–
Plasterers ,, ...	1	10	–	–	12	–
Bricklayers ,, ...	1	8	–	–	12	–
Carpenters ,, ...	1	8	–	–	11	–
Blacksmiths ,, ...	1	10	–	–	10	–

"Thus it will be seen that while the cost of living is just *one-fourth* of what it was seven years ago, wages have in no instance experienced a commensurate decline, and are far from having touched that point at which they may be said to have reached their natural level, as determined by the value of commodities generally. Nor until this has been gained, can we expect to witness a resumption of that industrial activity which will afford abundant employment and diffuse general prosperity."

The export of Gold from Australia in 1861, is estimated at 7,200,000*l.*; in 1860 it was 8,600,000*l.*; and in 1856 it was 12,200,000. The production, therefore, seems to be decreasing rapidly.

IV.—*Social Condition of Germany in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.*

The *Saturday Review*, of 18th January, 1862, gives the following account of a recent work by M. Freytag.

"Gustav Freytag has produced another series of his interesting Pictures from German History, *Neue Bilder aus dem leben des deutschen Volks. Herausgegeben von Gustav Freytag, Leipzig: Hirzel, London: Williams and Norgate*, 1862.

"The period which he selects for illustration is the century and three-quarters succeeding to the thirty years war. They are drawn upon the same plan, and aim at conveying the same kind of knowledge, as Lord Macaulay's celebrated third chapter. All the minute features which bring home to the reader's mind the true life of the people, and which formal writers of history habitually pass by, are delineated in detail; and liveliness is added to the descriptions sometimes by telling anecdotes, sometimes by large extracts from autobiographies or memoirs of the period under discussion. The pictures are severe, for M. Freytag cannot lay aside his habitually satirical manner; but they are not less amusing or instructive on that account. Several of them will be valuable as reviving the memory of facts which there is a tacit agreement to forget in our days. The author's account, for instance, of the condition of the peasantry down to the very beginning of the Revolutionary War, is worth perusing just now when the subject of slavery occupies so large a share of public attention. Few people will be prepared for the fact that in 1750, more than half the German nation were serfs or that it was a serfdom compared to which the slavery of the Carolinas is lenient. The one great advantage of the German serfs over the western slaves was that they could not be sold, otherwise they were in a far worse condition. They were bound to the soil, held to involuntary labour for at least half their time, and often for a great deal more; and they had to bear themselves the burden of their own support. The owner was under no obligation to feed them. To do this they employed whatever residue of their time the lord did not require. But even this scanty residue must be devoted in the first instance, to producing what should pay the tenths, heriots, reliefs, and numerous other feudal dues which the lord has a right to exact. The consequence was that they combined destitution more abject than that of the poorest Dorsetshire labourer with servitude scarcely milder than that of an American slave. And to make their miseries complete, the lord was also their judge in all civil and criminal causes, and used to enforce his decisions by the infliction of flogging, apparently unlimited by any effective law. M. Freytag notices it as a startling juxtaposition of culture and barbarism, that in the year 1790, just at the time that Goethe's Torquato Tasso was beginning to attract notice among the aristocracy of the court of Dresden, the peasants of Miessen revolted against their feudal lords, because these had so increased their days of servitude and encroached upon their scanty residue of time that they rarely obtained a single day to work for their own sustenance. On the other hand, M. Freytag's picture of the condition of the degraded and pauperized feudal nobility

may be read with profit in Prussia just at the present crisis. It leaves far in the shade the accounts that have come down to us of the state of the landed proprietors in Ireland about the same period. In illustration of it, M. Freytag quotes largely from a very amusing narrative written by a lawyer, who lived shortly after the peace of Westphalia, of the lamentable adventures of a citizen who tried to become a country gentleman, and of the plucking he experienced at the hands of the beggared slips of nobility, who under the popular designation of Krippensciterei, wandered over the country to pick up a living as best they could."

V.—*Wills and Administrations.*

"A CALENDAR of the *Wills* and *Administrations* of the year 1858 (at least from the 10th of January) has been published, and the Registrar-General has made some interesting calculations founded upon it, making an estimate for the omitted ten days, so as to complete the year.

"210,972 adults died in the twelvemonths, and 30,823 persons left personal property behind them; 21,653 had made their wills; the other 9,170 had made none, and letters of administration had been taken out. 89 persons with more than 10,000*l.* (one worth above 100,000*l.*) died without making a will.

"The *aggregate* amount of property left by all these persons is estimated at 71,860,792*l.*, *averaging* 2,331*l.* each. Distinguishing between the men and the women, we find that 102,049 adult men died in the year, and 21,454 left personal property—for one who left any, four leaving none; 108,923 adult women died, and 9,369 left personal property. The *average* amount left by the *men* was 2,715*l.*; by the *women*, 1,371*l.*

"Omitting now any estimate for the first ten days of the year, and dealing only with the actual wills and administrations of the rest of the twelvemonth, the *personal property* of those who died leaving any, 29,879 in number, amounted to 69,893,380*l.*, of which 57,396,350*l.* was left by men, and 12,497,030*l.* by women. The stream of wealth flowed thus:—

Persons.	Dying Worth.	Left.	Average.
		£	£
22,513	Less than 1,000*l.*	5,762,880	256
6,277	1,000*l.*, less than 10,000*l.*	20,010,500	3,188
1,020	10,000*l.*, ,, 50,000*l.*	21,960,000	21,529
102	50,000*l.*, ,, 100,000*l.*	7,100,000	69,600
67	Above 100,000*l.*	15,060,000	224,776
29,979		69,893,380	2,331

"Only one property was sworn so high as 900,000*l.* and under 1,000,000*l.* 1,935 were under 20*l.* The property divides nearly equal at 20,000*l.* About 35,000,000*l.* belonged to 19,392 persons, none having more than 20,000*l.*, and the other 35,000,000*l.* belonged to 587 persons, fifty times fewer than the former company.

"Of those who left about 100,000*l.*, thirty-seven were described as esquires, a term which would include men who had made their fortunes by trade or commerce; ten were titled personages, five were bankers, four merchants, three clergymen, one cotton manufacturer, one corn merchant, one hotel keeper, one in the navy, one in the Indian army, one in the Indian Civil Service, one was a spinster. Three medical men left more than 50,000*l.* A person described when he made his will, as a commercial clerk, left above 30,000*l.*; seventeen 'labourers and mechanics' above 1,000*l.* Of seventy-five lawyers, fifteen died without making their wills. The foregoing statements, which must be taken as approximations, rather than an absolute accuracy, relate to England alone.

"In the year ending March 31st, 1859, *legacy duty* was paid in the United Kingdom on 65,441,611*l.*, but that does not include property passing from husband to wife, or the reverse, no legacy duty being then payable; *succession duty on real property* was paid upon 29,242,630*l.*, and estimating that to be taxed to the next successor at half its saleable value, it will amount to 58,485,260*l.* On this assumption, 113,936,871*l.* passed by death to another generation of successors.

"It is certainly a remarkable fact that (upon an average) on every death, including alike men, women, and children, more than 100*l.* of property paying legacy duty, and perhaps 187*l.* of property of every kind, is left for the benefit of successors in the United Kingdom."

VI.—*The French Budget for* 1863.

M. FOULD'S Report to the Emperor on the Finances of France, was published in the *Moniteur*, of the 22nd January, 1862. We compile the following abstract of its principal provisions from the Paris correspondence of the *Economist*.

"M. Fould does not propose to have recourse to the expedient of a new loan. He recommends instead the conversion of the 4½ per cent. stock into 3 per cent., which would place a considerable sum in the hands of the Treasury available for the reduction of the floating debt. At present these two funds restrict the buoyancy of the public funds, by acting in rivalry to one another; but on the 14th March, 1862, the State will recover the right of offering to its creditors the alternative of conversion or reimbursement. M. Fould proposes to anticipate this right by allowing the holders of 4½ per cent. stock the privilege of conversion into 3 per cent., but without any loss of revenue to the stockholder. In return for this advantage, the stockholder would have to compensate the Treasury. If the process of conversion took place at the present price of the two funds, the balance to be paid would be about 32*l.* for 18*l.* of *rente*. M. Fould proposes to concede more favourable terms than these, and to allow the further advantage of quarterly instead of half-yearly payments, of interest. It is estimated that this operation might produce about 12,000,000*l.* if favourably received by the stockholders. This sum would be entirely devoted to the reduction of the floating debt.

"M. Fould divided the budget into two parts—ordinary and extraordinary; the former comprising all permanent expenses, the latter 'those which have a character of public utility, but are not absolutely obligatory.' Under the head of ordinary expenses, the Minister proposes to raise the following new taxes, viz.:—

	£
1. A tax on horses and carriages, to produce	220,000
2. An augmentation of the registration duties, estimated to produce.....	400,000
3. Greater precautions are to be taken for securing the receipt of the old duties, and this is estimated to realize an additional	400,000
4. An increase of the stamp duties	380,000
5. A tax of 10 centimes on bills and receipts	500,000
6. A new tax on brokers' accounts, on transactions over 120*l.*, to produce	48,000
Forming a total increase in the Ordinary Budget of.....	1,948,000

"M. Fould also proposes to double the tax upon *salt*, by which means he expects to realize 1,320,000*l.*, and to increase the duty on sugar, which he calculates to produce 1,160,000*l.* From the first of these taxes all salt used in industrial establishments as raw material is to be exempted; and the tax on sugar is intended only as a temporary measure, to raise the means of continuing the public works now in progress. These two taxes together represent a total of 2,480,000*l.*, being the increase in the extraordinary division of the budget; or in other words, in the *temporary expenses* of the empire.

"In return for these new imposts, the Minister promises to reduce the army to 400,000 men by the 1st January, 1863, and to fix the budget of the Marine Department, ordinary and extraordinary, at 6,720,000*l.* He also undertakes to remit the personal and furniture tax in the case of workmen existing by their own labour or that of their families, and to exempt from the trading licence all workmen working alone. It is estimated that these two exemptions will benefit altogether 1,300,000 persons, and cause a money loss to the Treasury of 200,000*l.* The reduction of duty on money and valuables transmitted by post, which is also promised, will not, it is believed, cause any diminution of revenue.

"In the course of his report, M. Fould states that the floating debt now amounts to 40,032,000*l.*, including a sum of 1,360,000*l.*, the amount of loss on the sale of the Italian stock paid to France by the Italian Government, as an indemnity for the war in Italy. From this sum, however, must be deducted the amount of caution money deposited by Government employés, which would reduce the debt to 38,520,000*l.* M. Fould adds that compared with the resources of France, this sum ought not to occasion any alarm, but thinks it advisable to reduce it as much as possible by the increased taxation proposed, and by the conversion of the 4½ per cents. By these measures the Minister also hopes to secure a surplus for 1863, and to balance the unforseen expenses of 1862 by the 400,000*l.* indemnity due from China, and a sum of 1,000,000*l.* about to be paid by Spain.

"The report does not contain any precise statement of the total amount proposed to be raised. Taking, however, the figures for 1862 at 79,000,000*l.* (including the local taxation, or *dépenses pour ordre*), and adding the extra taxes proposed by M. Fould, this would give a total of 'ordinary' revenue for 1863, of 82,000,000*l.* By including the extraordinary budget, the amount would be raised to 87,000,000*l.*"

VII.—*The New Gold Region of British Columbia.*

The following particulars are condensed from two elaborate letters in the *Times* (5th and 6th February, 1862), from their correspondent, writing from Victoria, Vancouver's Island, 29th November, 1861:—

"The portion of British Columbia which has yielded by far the largest amount of gold in 1861, is a newly-discovered district, called 'Cariboo.' This district is about 500 miles in the interior, north-east from the coast of British Columbia. It is not far from the source of the south branch of the Fraser river, and it consists of a broken and rugged mountainous region; it is about 50 miles from north to south, and 30 miles from east to west. Cariboo was discovered during the autumn of 1860, but its riches were not developed till the summer of 1861.

"The yield of gold is very large—the earnings fluctuating between 10*l.* and 40*l.* per day, per hand; in some cases these large earnings were even exceeded, and very surprising stories are told by those who were fortunate enough to get a 'good haul.'

"The gold was all coarse, granulated, and gravelly, mixed with pellets of pure metal of considerable size. Labouring men, who had no mining claims of their own, were hired to work those of others at 1*l.* 15*s.* and 2*l.* per day. Provisions were relatively high in price,—flour was 1*s.* 7*d.* per pound, bacon 3*s.*, beans 1*s.* 8*d.*, tea 6*s.*, sugar and coffee 3*s.* Single meals at a 'restaurant,' consisting of beans and bacon, and a cup of bad coffee, cost 8*s.* 4*d.*

"A correspondent of one of the newspapers in Victoria, writing from Cariboo at this time, quotes the prices of what he calls 'miners' luxuries,' as follows:—a tin pan (worth 3*d.*) sold for 1*l.* 12*s.*, picks and shovels were 24*s.* each, shovels with handles 30*s.*, washing was charged at 1*l.* 4*s.* per dozen pieces. At such prices a man should earn his 5*l.* to 20*l.* per day to enable him to keep 'business lively.' These wages and prices show the large gains of the miners. It is impossible to give a return of the 'yield' of gold in British Columbia with certainty. I shall merely attempt an approximation to the gross yield, from the best data within my reach.

"It is generally conceded that, including Chinese, there were 5,000 men engaged in gold mining in the summer of 1861. To work out the earnings of this aggregate of 5,000 miners, I adopt a statement of names and amounts taken from information obtained from miners. The general opinion of the miners is, that in addition to the 'lucky ones,' who made together nearly 187,000*l.*, and who amounted to eighty in number, every man who had a claim or a share in one made from 200*l.* to 400*l.* Of these there were at least 400; and taking their earnings at an average of 300*l.* per man, they produce 120,000*l.* There now remains 1,020 men to be accounted for. Putting their earnings at 28*s.* a-day each, which was the lowest rate of wages paid at the Cariboo mines, and assigning only 107 working days to the mining season, this produces nearly 153,000*l.* These several sums added together make the yield of Cariboo, and the surrounding neighbourhood, to be 460,000*l.* to 1,500 men for the season; by far the greater portion being from Cariboo.

"The remaining 3,500 miners, who worked on Thompson's river, the Fraser, Bridge river, Similkameen, Rock creek, and in other places throughout the country, can be divided into two classes; the first to consist of 1,500 miners, who made 2*l.* a-day for about 180 days, which gives 540,000*l.* for their joint earnings. The second class of 2,000 men, who were not so fortunate, and who only made 1*l.* a-day for the same period, making 360,000*l.* for their aggregate earnings during the season. The three last categories, which number 4,520 men, include the many miners who in Cariboo were making from 4*l.* to 10*l.* per day each, as well as those who, in other localities, were making from 3*l.* to 20*l.* a-day occasionally, so that the estimate, although not accurate, is reasonable and moderate.

"The following is the statement in the form of a table, converting dollars at 5 $ = £.

		£
80	miners took out an aggregate of	187,000
400	,, claim owners, took out	120,000
1,020	,, at 28*s.* a-day, for 107 days	153,000
	Total yield (nearly all from Cariboo)	460,000
1,500	miners, who worked in other places, at 2*l.* per day £540,000	
2,000	,, ,, ,, 1*l.* ,, 360,000	
		900,000
5,000	miners, gross yield for 1861	1,360,000

VIII.—*Telegraphic Progress*, 1850-61, *and Present Prospects.*

At the recent presentation of a testimonial, given by the British and Irish Magnetic Telegraph Company, to Mr. Bright, their Engineer-in-Chief, that gentleman spoke as follows :—

"At the time I first became connected with this undertaking—*some ten years ago*—the number of miles worked by the company was something under 40, while the present mileage is upwards of 4,000. The staff employed at that time did not exceed, or much exceed, a score in number, while probably 1,500 would be not far off the present number. At that time there was only *one telegraph* in existence in the country; and whilst the charge for a message from London to Liverpool was 8*s.* 6*d.*, the messages were frequently re-transmitted at Rugby and Birmingham. At the present time we have in *Great Britain and Ireland* something like 15,000 miles of line, and the annual receipts for telegraphic messages may possibly surprise some even of you, who may not have thought of the amount of the traffic. The total amount received in this country for telegraph messages at the present time is something, as nearly as possible, about 350,000*l.* a-year; a very large amount to be taken in such small sums.

"The extension of the *land system* throughout the world has been equally rapid during the same period. There is now, in addition to the 15,000 miles of line in Great Britain, some 48,000 miles of line in America, some 80,000 in Europe, and a smaller, but very rapidly increasing mileage in Australia; the total amount of *land lines* of telegraph in the world being not far off, at the present moment, 150,000 miles. That has been the growth of a very few years. Looking forward to the future, we have now the certainty that, in a very short period, all difficulties will be overcome, and we shall have a line working direct from Ireland to Newfoundland again upon a permanent basis. Not only is that undertaking being actively pushed forward at the present moment, but careful surveys have been made for the northern route by Iceland, Greenland, and Labrador, the result of which, in my opinion, very greatly warrants the projectors of that line in going forward with a view of shortening the circuits to be worked, and so reducing the risks and costs of such a line. Again, in the *South Atlantic*, active endeavours are being made—in fact, the Spanish Government are initiating the arrangements for a line to be carried from Cadiz to the Canaries, thence to the Cape de Verd Islands, and from there to the Island of St. Paul, in the South Atlantic Ocean. There is only one stretch of 800 miles from St. Paul to the Island of San Fernando-de-Noronha, and thence to the Brazilian coast, in a comparatively short distance. From the Brazilian coast the line will pass along the shores of British and French Guiana to Trinidad, and thence by the train of West India Islands to the Spanish possessions of Porto Rico and Cuba. From Cuba a line will be carried to Jamaica and Florida, with another branch to Panama. Going south from the Brazilian coast, a branch line will extend to Rio and Buenos Ayres.

"On the opposite side, looking towards the east, we are actively engaged in prosecuting a substantial line to India. The line made by Government from Malta to Alexandria continues in excellent working order, and its receipts so far encouraging—the receipts upon the Government line of submarine cable from Malta to Alexandria, which opened in October with returns of 200*l.* per week, have steadily increased until, at the present time, the weekly income is little less than 600*l.* per week. But we are also busily engaged in pushing forward a line in continuation of the Alexandrian line, and we hope within six weeks from this time to have opened a station at the Island of Jubal, at the mouth of the Gulf of Suez, where the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers will call, by an arrangement made with the Post Office, to receive and carry on telegraphic messages to India. We have also a vessel regularly equipped and sent out from this country, with 200 miles of cable, to repair the eastern section of the original line, which failed soon after it was laid, between Aden and Kurrachee.

"Throughout India the telegraph has been extended with scarcely any limit—as, indeed, there is hardly any limit to the construction of any land line. From Kurrachee the circuit is complete to Rangoon. From Rangoon the line will eventually be carried by Singapore and Batavia to Australia. On the other side a line will be taken to Japan; thence to Kamschatka, where the Russians are pushing their lines eastwards, and onwards by the small chain of the Aleutian Islands, to the western coast of the continent of North America. Thence it is an easy step along the coast to Vancouver's Island, which is already connected by telegraph with San Francisco.

"From San Francisco there is the most extraordinary line of land telegraph ever constructed in the world, which passes *viâ* Sacramento by the Salt Lake City to Fort Kearney, and thence to St. Louis, through an entirely uninhabited country, and by means of which the merchant in New York can now communicate directly with San Francisco. Another line will also be carried entirely on British ground through the punchbowl pass of the Rocky Mountains to British Canada. And thus when these different enterprises, in some of which I am concerned, are accomplished, we shall not have a girdle round the earth, but two girdles completely round the world. The telegraph, as we know, had its rise altogether in this country. The first telegraph invented by Cooke and Wheatstone, in 1837, was the forerunner of all telegraphs of all countries. Whether it be Professor Morse's telegraph of 1843, or others at a later period, the type of all the instruments has been taken from the invention at an earlier date from this country. The first submarine telegraph was laid from this country, and all the different cables have been sent out from this country. We may therefore look upon ourselves, to some extent, as being the nursery of telegraphs for the world."

ABSTRACT OF THE REGISTRAR-GENERAL'S RETURN OF THE MARRIAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE THIRD QUARTER (JULY—SEPTEMBER), AND OF THE BIRTHS AND DEATHS DURING THE FOURTH QUARTER (OCTOBER—DECEMBER), OF 1861.

THIS Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,199 Registrars in all the districts of England during the autumn quarter that ended on December 31st, 1861; and the MARRIAGES in 12,527 churches or chapels, about 4,530 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 635 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on September 30th, 1861.

Returns have been obtained of *marriages* in the first nine months of last year, and they show that if the progress of population is taken into account, the number of alliances formed *was low* during the whole of that period. The *birth-rate* was *not high* in the *first quarter* of the year, but it *rose* above the average in the spring, continued above it in summer, and slightly exceeded it in the fourth quarter. There was no great amount of fatal sickness; for the *mortality* was *below the average* in each quarter of the year 1861.

MARRIAGES.—Of persons who married in the summer quarter (the third), the number was 79,784. As compared with those for the same period in 1860, the returns of all the eleven divisions show a *decrease* except those of the south-eastern counties, the south-western, Yorkshire, and the northern counties. Marriages were

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, *and* DEATHS, *returned in the Years* 1855-61, *and in the* QUARTERS *of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1855-61:—*Numbers.*

Years	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
Marriages No.	—	170,305	167,723	156,070	159,097	159,337	152,113
Births..... ,,	695,562	683,440	689,881	655,481	663,071	657,453	635,043
Deaths..... ,,	435,337	422,472	440,781	449,656	419,815	390,506	425,703

QUARTERS *of each Calendar Year* 1855-61.

(I.) MARRIAGES:—*Numbers.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
March .....No.	33,401	35,198	35,382	29,918	33,321	33,427	29,186
June ..... ,,	41,966	43,833	42,042	39,890	41,267	38,820	38,549
Septmbr..... ,,	39,892	40,572	39,803	38,599	38,669	39,089	37,308
Decmbr. .... ,,	—	50,702	50,496	47,663	45,840	48,001	47,070

QUARTERS *of each Calendar Year*, 1855-61.

(II.) BIRTHS:—*Numbers.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
March .....No.	173,170	183,206	175,532	170,959	170,430	169,250	166,225
June ..... ,,	184,718	173,914	175,864	169,115	170,444	173,263	165,277
Septmbr..... ,,	171,500	164,062	168,394	157,445	161,181	157,462	154,700
Decmbr. .... ,,	166,174	162,258	170,091	157,962	161,016	157,478	148,841

(III.) DEATHS:—*Numbers.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
March .....No.	121,713	122,642	121,580	125,819	108,665	103,014	134,542
June ..... ,,	107,721	110,878	105,631	107,142	100,046	100,099	106,493
Septmbr..... ,,	100,986	86,423	104,216	98,142	100,528	91,155	87,646
Decmbr. .... ,,	104,917	102,529	109,354	118,553	110,576	96,238	97,022

few in Northamptonshire, numerous in Cornwall, few in Staffordshire, Derbyshire, and South Wales, numerous in Durham and Northumberland.

The marriage-rate was 1·57 per cent. against the average rate, 1·62. It has rarely been so low as it was in the summer quarter of last year.

BIRTHS.—The total number of children born in the last three months of the year was 166,174. The fourth is that quarter in which births are usually the fewest. The birth-rate was 3·26 per cent., whilst the average for the quarter is 3·23. *It was high* in Lancashire, Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland.

INCREASE OF POPULATION.—The natural increase of population is the excess of births over deaths. *This excess as* exhibited in the registers is 61,257 in 92 days, or about 666 daily.

In the quarter 16,559 *emigrants sailed from ports* in the United Kingdom at which there are Government emigration officers; and of these 8,068 were of

ENGLAND:—*Annual Rate Per Cent. of* PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, *and* DEATHS, *during the* YEARS 1855-61, *and the* QUARTERS *of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1855-61:—*General Percentage Results.*

YEARS	'61.	Mean '51-'60.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
Estmtd. Popln. of England *in thousands* in middle of each Year....	20,114	—	19,889	19,667,	19,448,	19,231,	19,016,	18,804,
Persons Married Per ct.	—	1·694	1·712	1·706	1·606	1·654	1·676	1·618
Births.... ,,	3·458	3·420	3·436	3·508	3·370	3·448	3·457	3·377
Deaths.... ,,	2·164	2·226	2·124	2·241	2·312	2·183	2·054	2·264

Quarters *of each Calendar Year*, 1855-61.

(I.) Persons Married:—*Percentages.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	Mean '51-'60.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
March....Per ct.	1·352	1·417	1·420	1·460	1·248	1·408	1·416	1·266
June..... ,,	1·676	1·703	1·762	1·712	1·642	1·714	1·638	1·648
Septmbr. ,,	1·572	1·622	1·608	1·598	1·566	1·592	1·626	1·574
Decmbr. ,,	—	1·999	2·002	2·020	1·930	1·876	1·990	1·978

(II.) Births:—*Percentages.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	Mean '51-'60.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	'55.
March....Per ct.	3·506	3·592	3·693	3·624	3·567	3·600	3·585	3·603
June .... ,,	3·689	3·554	3·495	3·579	3·490	3·548	3·656	3·534
Septmbr. ,,	3·378	3·275	3·250	3·379	3·195	3·308	3·275	3·261
Decmbr. ,,	3·264	3·227	3·203	3·402	3·198	3·295	3·264	3·128

(III.) Deaths:—*Percentages.*

Qrs. ended last day of	'61.	Mean '51-'60.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.	55.
March ...Per ct.	2·464	2·480	2·472	2·510	2·625	2·295	2·182	2·916
June..... ,,	2·151	2·207	2·228	2·150	2·205	2·083	2·112	2·277
Septmbr. ,,	1·989	2·021	1·712	2·091	1·992	2·063	1·896	1·848
Decmbr. ,,	2·061	2·179	2·024	2·187	2·400	2·263	1·995	2·039

English origin. 1,604 of the English people went to the United States; 5,916 to the Australian colonies.* In the smaller emigration of the Scotch, the preference for Australasia received a still more striking development, whilst the Irish divided themselves into forces not very unequal, between the two destinations. By comparing the returns for the December quarters, it appears that emigrants to the United States were about 52,000 in 1851; from that point the number fell by a great but not constant decrease; it was about 40,000 in 1853, little more than half that number in 1856, about 15,000 in 1860, and the exact number last quarter was 5,698.

The *total number of emigrants* to all parts *in* 1861 was 91,770, of which, more than half went to the United States. The Irish element constituted considerably

* From a Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners: the number returned as of English origin was 5,834, while the birthplace of 4,585 emigrants was not distinguished; in the above statement a proportional number of these has been added to those returned as of English origin.

more than half of the emigration to the United States, but it suffered a great reduction towards the close of the year; for the Irish emigrants to that portion of the globe were about 37,000 in the year, but about a fifteenth part of that number in the December quarter.

In the total emigration of 1861, the proportion of unmarried adults to the married was rather less than 3 to 1.

Consols, Provisions, Pauperism, *and* Temperature, *in each of the Nine* Quarters *ended 31st December*, 1861.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quarters ending	Average Price of Consols (for Money).	Average Price of Wheat per Quarter in England and Wales.	Average Prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets (by the Carcase), with the *Mean* Prices.		Average Prices of Potatoes (York Regents) per Ton at Waterside Market, Southwark.	Pauperism. Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the *last day* of each week.		Mean Temperature.
			Beef.	Mutton.		In-door.	Out-door.	
1859	£	*s. d.*	*d. d. d.*	*d. d. d.*	*s. s. s.*			°
31 Dec.	96⅛	43 4	4—6½ 5¼	4¾—6¾ 5¾	85—120 102	109,429	683,962	43·3
1860								
31 Mar.	94⅛	44 5	3¾—6½ 5⅛	4¾—6¾ 5¾	115—145 130	118,523	717,264	38·8
30 June	94⅞	52 8	4¾—6¾ 5¾	5½—7½ 6½	125—160 142	107,050	692,384	50·5
30 Sept.	93¼	59 1	4¼—7 5⅝	5¼—7½ 6⅜	125—145 135	101,680	667,680	56·2
31 Dec.	93¼	56 9	3½—6¼ 4⅞	4¾—6¾ 5¾	115—130 122	115,158	673,680	42·6
1861								
31 Mar.	91⅝	55 1	4—6¼ 5⅛	5½—7¾ 6⅜	140—155 147	131,501	758,441	39·9
30 June	91⅜	54 9	4¼—6½ 5⅜	5¼—7¼ 6¼	120—140 130	117,802	713,785	51·8
30 Sept.	91⅜	52 1	4¼—6½ 5⅜	4⅞—7 5⅞	85—110 97	112,932	693,649	60·4
31 Dec.	93⅜	59 3	4—6¼ 5⅛	4¾—6¾ 5¾	110—130 120	128,533	716,096	45·5

Col. 6 is deduced from the Weekly Tables published in the *Economist*. The *average* of the highest and of the lowest *weekly* prices is here shown in cols. 4, 5, and 6, and not the *absolute* highest or lowest price quoted at any period of the quarter.

Cols. 7 and 8 are deduced from the Returns of the Poor Law Board. The Returns now relate to 649 Unions, &c., comprising a population of 17,697,206 (in 1851), and do not include the paupers of parishes, &c., incorporated under Gilbert's Act, or still under the 43rd Elizabeth; Lunatic Paupers in Asylums and Vagrants relieved in the above Unions are also excluded. They amounted on January 1st, 1860, to—Insane Persons, 31,554; Vagrants, 1,542. The rest of the paupers on that day amounted to 817,800.

Prices, the Weather, and Pauperism.—The average price of *Consols* was 93⅜; it had been 91⅝ and 91⅜ in the previous quarters of last year. *Wheat* was 59*s.* 3*d.*, per quarter; it was dearer than in the same period of 1860, and dearer by 16*s.* than in that of 1859. The means of the highest and the lowest weekly prices of *mutton* have not varied in the last three December quarters. *Beef* of the inferior quality was dearer than in the corresponding quarter of last year. The mean price of the *best potatoes* was 120*s.* per ton.

Mr. Glaisher writes in his "Remarks on the Weather" (see Appendix), that we must travel back to 1831 for an October so warm as the last, and then back to 1811 for a second example. At Greenwich the *mean temperature* of last October was 5° *in excess* of its average. A marked change took place on 1st November, and the weather was cold on almost every day till the 24th. The 18th of November was singularly cold; its temperature was below 32° the whole day, and the mean was as much as 15°·1 below the average of the day. Another *great change* followed on the 25th, and a warm period which began on that day continued till the 24th of December. The year closed with cold weather. The fall of rain in November (5·2 inches) was the greatest fall in that month for forty-five years, with only one exception. The total fall in 1861 was 20·8 inches. At Truro in the same time it was 39·9 inches; at Lampeter, 43·9 inches; at Stonyhurst, 39·6 inches; at Allenheads, 51·7 inches.

The returns of the Poor Law Board exhibit *a heavy increase of paupers.* The number relieved in-door was 128,533, against an average in the previous two December quarters of 112,293; those who received out-door relief were 716,096, against an average of 678,821.

State of the Public Health.—The total *number of deaths* registered last quarter was 104,917; it was *not so great* as in the same quarter of 1859, but *greater* than in that of 1860. It will be seen in the tables that the deaths as returned for last quarter, and distributed in the eleven divisions of England and Wales, are less numerous than they were in 1859, in all of these divisions, with the exception of the *north-western* and the northern. The excess in the latter division is unimportant; that in the north-western counties is considerable, and arises from a higher mortality in Lancashire. The population of Lancashire is *less* than that of London by about 340,000 and lives on an area seventeen times as large, but the number of deaths which it returned last quarter was 16,742, while that in London did not exceed 16,000. The deaths in Lancashire were about 2,000 more than in either of the two previous December quarters. In Manchester they were in the three corresponding periods successively 1,743, 1,682, 2,127. Amongst other places in the same county that discover an increase may be mentioned Liverpool and West Derby, Wigan, Leigh, Bolton, Chorlton, Salford, Blackburn, and Preston. There was a decrease in Rochdale.

The *death-rate* for England and Wales last quarter, was 2·051 per cent. of the population, the average being 2·179. Within eleven December quarters the maximum has been 2·4; the minimum 1·995.

Deaths *in the Autumn Quarters, ended 31st December*, 1854-61.—*Numbers.*

Deaths, &c.	1861.	Total 1851–60, (10 Years.)	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.	1856.	1855.	1854.
In 125 Districts and 23 Sub-districts, comprising the *Chief Towns*	57,631	565,923	56,338	57,427	65,596	60,132	52,086	51,985	59,660
In the remaining Districts and Sub-Districts of England and Wales, comprising chiefly Small Towns and *Country Parishes* ...	47,286	480,086	46,219	52,023	52,957	50,444	44,152	45,037	49,978
All England	104,917	1,046,009	102,557	109,450	118,553	110,576	96,238	97,022	109,638

Area, Population, Deaths, *and* Mortality *per Cent. in the Autumn Quarters, ended 31st December*, 1851-61.

Groups.	Area in Statute Acres. (England.)	Population Enumerated. (England.) March 31st, 1851.	Population Enumerated. (England.) April 8th, 1861.	Deaths in 10 Autumn Quarters, 1851–60.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. of 10 Autumn Quarters, 1851–60.	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in the Autumn Quarter, 1861.
In 125 Districts, and 23 Sub-Districts, comprising the *Chief* Towns	No. 2,149,800	No. 8,247,017	No. 9,804,598	No. 565,293	Per ct. 2·507	Per ct. 2·308
In the remaining Districts and Sub-districts of England and Wales, comprising *chiefly Small Towns and Country Parishes*	35,175,115	9,680,592	10,258,014	480,086	1·924	1·822
All England	37,324,915	17,927,609	20,062,612	1,046,009	2·179	2·061

The population that dwell in the *larger towns* suffered a death-rate of 2·3; that of *country parishes* and *small towns* a rate of 1·8, or rather more. The difference may be stated thus:—If the mortality of last quarter prevailed for a year, a proportion of the persons who inhabit towns, equal to five in a thousand, would die, who would survive the close of the year if their lot had been cast amongst a rural population.

But relatively to the standard furnished by the experience of former years in each of the two classes, the *urban* population obtained, or, by the successful application of sanitary science, achieved a greater reduction of the mortality than that which was obtained in the *rural* districts. In the urban, from an average of 2·5, the rate was reduced to 2·3; in the rural it fell from 1·9 to 1·8.

In the last quarter, *fever* under various designations, typhus, typhoid fever, low continued fever, and scarlatina, prevailed extensively, and in many parts of the country.

Dr. Acland, the Regius Professor of Medicine in Oxford, has favoured the Registrar-General with the following observations on the fever in that city, and in the region extending over the Thames basin:—

"Since I heard from you, nothing further has been made out concerning the cause of the two fatal cases of typhoid fever in Worcester College. In consequence of these cases it has been supposed that fever has been very fatal in Oxford. No doubt fever has been prevalent here and there; but during the quarter in which those two deaths occurred there was but one other fatal case of fever in the 'eleven united parishes.' Seven occurred in the suburbs.

"It must be admitted that the ground on which Worcester College is situated is low, and not well drained; but the same may be said of a great part of the city. Our drainage has not yet been put on a systematic footing; there are still whole streets using cesspools; still the sewage is cast into the streams; still we have an inadequate outfall; still the periodic floods infiltrate the subsoil, fill cellars in the lower streets, and by that infiltration and filling, mix the exudations from old cesspools with the surrounding mould.

"All this is well known here, and many improvements in details have been made; but the best minds are well aware that in this district a larger measure

than mere local improvement is required to work a thorough cure, and they are, therefore, not eager to promote lesser plans which they know will prove ineffectual.

"The fact is, *the drainage of the whole Thames valley above Teddington Lock ought to be in the hands of a Government commission;* there would then be some hope,

"1st. That the towns on its banks would be induced to adopt the best known system for disposing of their sewage:

"2nd. That the upper Thames waters would be made as pure as possible, for the use of the metropolis:

"3rd. That the waters would be so regulated as to be quickly let off when accumulating, and retained at a proper level when falling:

"4th. That the death-rates on the banks would be diminished.

"Drainage works have long been in progress in many parts of the upper Thames and its tributaries. Under the Act of last session these will probably be increased, but they have not been nor are likely to be on any large concerted plan, nor on any uniform method. Great opportunities have been lost of buying up mills, of regulating locks and dams, and of making use of railway operations for controlling the streams.

"This is greatly to be regretted, because it may be safely assumed that, were the river and the lands near it under sound management, not only would the death-rate of some districts be diminished, but the commercial value of much meadow land be increased.

"The latter consideration you may no doubt leave to landowners and capitalists; the former deserves your serious attention. A more thorough inquiry into the sanitary condition of this whole upper Thames valley than has yet been made, would be both valuable and interesting. In constant and most obliging intercourse with the members of my profession over a considerable area, I have gathered many facts concerning the health of towns and villages and districts along the banks of the upper Thames; they are often curious and perplexing. They could be tested, —and a most instructive inquiry it would be,—only by a systematic investigation of the course of the river and its tributaries.

"I am inclined to think on the whole that it would appear,

"1st. That the working health of whole districts, and especially of Oxford, would be improved by proper river management, and a general system of drainage:

"2nd. That sometimes the flat parts, sometimes the slopes adjoining the flats, and sometimes the heights are the most unhealthy:

"3rd. That the soil modifies in a high degree the effects of the surface waters; a low place near the river, being on gravel, may be quite healthy, when a place further off, and higher, but on another soil, shall have continuous crops of fever.

"4th. That in considerable areas ague has been very prevalent in the memory of man, and is now unknown; low fever (mild typhoid) having taken its place:

"5th. That in the spots last named, further sanitary improvement would eradicate a great deal of the fever and of the tubercular diathesis:

"6th. That in estimating the condition of these localities we must always consider the habits, clothing, food, dwellings, and wages of the people, as well as the drainage and exhalations from the soil:

"7th. That while no doubt the register of the deaths is a true test of the health of these regions, yet the physician sees, or thinks he sees, feeble power, tardy convalescence, distress, and discomfort incalculable, which is not fully expressed in the death-rate, and which would also be relieved as it (the death-rate) diminished.

"The way to test these propositions would be to make a careful examination, in the main valley and its tributaries, of the villages and towns on all the alluvial levels, on the slopes, and on the heights; noting the nature of the soil geologically; and to compare on the spot your registration returns for certain periods with the local knowledge thus acquired. The results would often be quite different from what would be expected. It would not be a very difficult undertaking, with the help of your office, and of the union medical officers."

MARRIAGES *Registered in Quarters ended 30th September*, 1861-59; *and* BIRTHS *and* DEATHS *in Quarters ended 31st December*, 1861-59.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	AREA in Statute	POPULATION, 1861. (*Persons.*)	MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 30th September.		
			'61.	'60.	'59.
ENGLD. & WALES....*Totals*	Acres. 37,324,915	No. 20,062,612	No. 39,892	No. 40,541	No. 39,803
I. London	78,029	2,803,921	7,347	7,708	7,119
II. South Eastern	4,065,935	1,846,876	3,236	3,184	3,256
III. South Midland	3,201,290	1,295,375	1,971	1,972	2,040
IV. Eastern	3,214,099	1,142,202	1,553	1,563	1,681
V. South Western	4,993,660	1,835,551	3,371	3,260	3,354
VI. West Midland	3,865,332	2,436,137	4,625	4,860	4,825
VII. North Midland	3,540,797	1,288,718	2,120	2,253	2,322
VIII. North Western	2,000,227	2,934,722	7,079	7,321	6,752
IX. Yorkshire	3,654,636	2,015,329	4,247	4,159	4,103
X. Northern	3,492,322	1,151,281	2,248	2,126	2,060
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,500	2,095	2,135	2,291

7	8	9	10	11	12	13
DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	BIRTHS in Quarters ended 31st December.			DEATHS in Quarters ended 31st December.		
	'61.	'60.	'59.	'61.	'60.	'59.
ENGLD. & WALES....*Totals*	No. 166,174	No. 162,719	No. 170,091	No. 104,917	No. 102,923	No. 109,354
I. London	23,014	23,739	23,626	15,866	15,618	15,878
II. South Eastern	14,442	13,717	14,642	8,452	8,161	8,984
III. South Midland	10,213	9,948	10,617	6,176	6,020	6,815
IV. Eastern	8,717	8,358	9,252	5,548	5,253	5,782
V. South Western	13,711	13,441	14,693	8,479	8,301	9,544
VI. West Midland	20,999	20,308	21,377	11,792	12,020	13,674
VII. North Midland	10,764	10,580	11,259	6,068	5,889	7,040
VIII. North Western	26,160	24,906	25,584	19,265	17,196	17,091
IX. Yorkshire	17,607	17,593	18,002	10,937	11,684	11,642
X. Northern	10,461	9,955	10,158	6,205	6,295	6,154
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	10,086	10,174	10,881	6,129	6,486	6,750

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER,

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 31ST DECEMBER, 1861.

By JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S., *&c., Sec. of the British Meteorological Society.*

The warm period which set in on the 28th of September, continued till the end of *October*. The mean temperature of this month was 54°·9, being in *excess* of the average, of 90 years by 5°·4, of 43 years by 5°·0, and of the preceding 20 years by 4°·7. We must travel back to 1831 for so warm an October, and then back to 1811 for a second instance; and examining still further back to 1770, we fail to find a third instance. The mean temperature in 1831 was 55°·0, and in 1811 was 55°·5.

A marked change in the weather took place on the 1st of *November*, and the temperature till the 24th day was, with the exception of the 5th and 6th days, always below the average, and at times to 10° and 11°. The 18th day was remarkable; its mean temperature was 27°·1, being no less than 15°·1 below the average temperature of the day. The temperature of the air was below 32° all the day. There were two days of similar character in November, 1858, on the 23rd and 24th days, but with this exception we must go back to 1829 for a day of so low temperature in November. On the 25th November another great change took place from low to high temperature; the mean temperature of the 26th day was as high as 53°, or 26° higher than on the 18th.

This warm period continued to the 24th of *December*, and the average daily excess was 3¾°; and from Christmas day to the end of the year was cold, exhibiting a deficiency of temperature to the amount of 3½° daily.

The mean high day temperature in October was 5¾° in excess, in November was 2° in defect, and in December was 1° in excess of their respective averages.

The mean low night temperature in October was 4° in excess, in November was 3½° in defect, and in December ½° in excess of their averages.

The mean temperature of the air was 4¾° in excess in October, 2½ in defect in November, and 1° in excess in December, as compared with the averages of the preceding 20 years; and as compared with last year, October was 4¼° warmer, November was the same in both years, and December was 4¾° warmer. The mean temperature, therefore, of the *quarter* was, as compared with the corresponding period of last year, 3° of higher temperature.

The mean temperature of the dew point was 5°·4 above in October, 3° below in November, and 0°·4 above in December, their respective averages. The mean for the quarter was 0°·9 in excess, therefore the amount of water mixed with the air was greater than usual. In October the excess of the temperature, both of the air and dew point, being the same above their respective averages, the degree of humidity of the air was that of its average; and in November and December the air was a little less humid than usual.

The fall of rain in October was 0·9 inch, in November 5·2 inches, and in December 1·3 inch. The total fall for the quarter was 7·4 inches, being about quarter of an inch more than the average. The fall in November was the greatest in this month for 45 years, with one exception, viz., in 1853, when the amount of rain was 6 inches. The total fall of rain for the year on the ground is 20·8 inches. The fall of rain during the past quarter has been very nearly the same at all stations.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich for the three months ending November, constituting the three autumn months, was 50°·9, being 1°·5 *above* the average of the preceding 90 years.

1861. Months.	Temperature of Air. Mean.	Air. Diff. from Average of 90 Years.	Air. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Evaporation. Mean.	Evaporation. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Dew Point. Mean.	Dew Point. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Air—Daily Range. Mean.	Air—Daily Range. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Water of the Thames	Elastic Force of Vapour. Mean.	Elastic Force of Vapour. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air. Mean.	Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.
	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	In.	In.	Gr.	Gr.
Oct.	54·9	+5·4	+4·7	53·1	+4·9	51·4	+5·4	16·4	+1·8	57·8	·379	+·067	4·2	+0·7
Nov.	40·8	−1·6	−2·6	39·2	−2·6	37·1	−3·0	13·2	+1·6	44·5	·231	−·034	2·6	−0·2
Dec.	41·0	+2·1	+0·9	39·4	+·08	37·3	+0·4	9·9	+0·4	—	·223	+·002	2·6	+0·1
Mean.....	45·5	+2·0	+1·0	43·9	+1·0	41·9	+0·9	13·2	+1·3	—	·274	+·012	3·1	+0·2

1861. Months.	Degree of Humidity. Mean.	Degree of Humidity. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Reading of Barometer. Mean.	Reading of Barometer. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air. Mean.	Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air. Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Rain. Amnt.	Rain. Diff. from Average of 46 Years.	Daily Horizontal Movement of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass. Number of Nights it was At or below 30°.	Between 30° and 40°.	Above 40°.	Lowest Reading at Night.	Highest Reading at Night.
	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 20 Years.	Amnt.	Diff. from Average of 46 Years.	Miles.				°	°
Oct.	87	0	In. 29·842	In. +·152	Gr. 536	Gr. − 3	In. 0·9	In. −1·9	160	0	8	23	30·3	52·4
Nov.	87	− 2	29·561	−·195	547	0	5·2	+2·8	320	18	9	3	16·5	50·0
Dec.	87	− 2	29·974	+·169	555	+ 3	1·3	−0·7	220	12	17	1	19·6	43·4
Mean.....	87	− 1	29·792	+·042	546	0	Sum 7·4	Sum +0·2	Mean 246	Sum 30	Sum 34	Sum 27	Lowest 16·5	Highst 52·4

Note.—In reading this table it will be borne in mind that the sign (−) minus signifies below the average, and that the sign (+) plus signifies above the average.

Snow fell on the 16th of October at Liverpool; on the 1st of November at Exeter, Oxford, Gloucester, Stonyhurst, Ben Rhydding, Otley, Scarborough, Allenheads and Alnwick; on the 2nd throughout the greater part of the country.

Hail fell on 30 days during the quarter, of which no less than 21 were in November.

Fog prevailed on 68 days during the quarter, of which 28 were in October, 16 in November, and 24 in December.

ENGLAND.—*Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 30th December*, 1861.

1 Names of Stations.	2 Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	3 Highest Reading of the Thermometer.	4 Lowest Reading of the Thermometer.	5 Range of Temperature in the Quarter.	6 Mean Monthly Range of Temperature.	7 Mean Daily Range of Temperature.	8 *Mean Temperature of the Air.*	9 Mean Degree of Humidity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey	29·649	71·5	31·5	40·0	24·3	6·4	49·7	86
Exeter	29·663	66·7	21·2	45·5	30·9	9·8	46·9	88
Ventnor	—	68·0	30·0	38·0	25·0	7·3	49·1	76
Barnstaple	29·647	73·0	19·0	54·0	35·2	11·8	47·4	89
Royal Observatory	29·698	75·6	23·2	52·4	33·7	13·1	45·6	87
Royston	29·699	75·6	21·5	54·1	36·2	13·3	44·7	88
Lampeter	29·645	68·4	14·0	54·4	37·5	13·5	44·6	88
Norwich	29·697	73·0	23·5	49·5	31·9	11·8	44·9	89
Belvoir Castle	29·623	73·0	18·3	54·7	34·7	13·2	44·3	83
Liverpool	29·679	67·0	25·8	41·2	26·7	8·4	46·2	84
Wakefield	29·659	71·7	19·5	52·2	38·9	13·3	43·7	90
Leeds	—	69·0	20·0	49·0	34·0	11·4	43·0	84
Stonyhurst	29·611	70·5	15·8	54·7	37·5	11·8	43·3	87
York	29·623	70·0	22·0	48·0	33·5	10·6	43·8	89
Scarborough	29·651	65·0	25·0	40·0	28·3	7·6	44·9	93
North Shields	—	66·2	23·2	43·0	31·3	10·3	43·0	89

10 Names of Stations.	11 Wind. Mean estimated Strength.	12 Wind. Relative Proportion of N.	13 E.	14 S.	15 W.	16 Mean Amount of Cloud.	17 Rain. Number of Days on which it fell.	18 Amount collected.
								in.
Guernsey	1·5	7	8	8	8	5·0	45	11·4
Exeter	0·8	8	5	9	9	5·5	61	8·9
Ventnor	—	5	11	6	9	—	39	10·4
Barnstaple	1·4	7	8	9	7	5·1	51	12·8
Royal Observatory	—	5	7	9	10	6·6	35	7·4
Royston	—	5	5	11	10	5·9	69	5·9
Lampeter	0·6	5	9	10	7	7·2	53	15·4
Norwich	1·5	4	7	10	9	6·2	36	5·4
Belvoir Castle	1·5	4	2	15	10	6·1	35	6·4
Liverpool	1·1	7	5	12	6	6·7	45	6·1
Wakefield	1·7	6	6	9	10	6·9	48	4·4
Leeds	1·6	5	5	11	10	6·2	42	4·8
Stonyhurst	0·8	9	6	6	9	6·9	54	15·4
York	—	7	5	4	14	—	45	4·4
Scarborough	3·2	5	3	14	9	—	20	5·1
North Shields	1·8	7	3	8	12	5·9	66	6·4

Trade of United Kingdom, 1861-60-59.—*Distribution of* Exports *from, United Kingdom, according to the Declared Real Value of the Exports; and the Computed Real Value* (*ex-duty*) *of* Imports *at Port of Entry, and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit.*

Merchandize (*excluding Gold and Silver*), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. (The unit 000's are omitted.)	First Nine Months. 1861. Imports from	1861. *Exports to*	1860. Imports from	1860. *Exports to*	1859. Imports from	1859. *Exports to*
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES:	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland	10,299,	4,014,	13,505,	3,964,	11,703,	4,712,
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium	16,038,	16,015,	17,977,	12,206,	14,436,	13,537,
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain (with Gibraltar and Canaries)	18,039,	10,661,	16,563,	7,814,	16,534,	6,684,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta	3,056,	6,037,	3,293,	4,696,	2,983,	4,039,
Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt	9,536,	4,371,	10,763,	5,927,	83,06,	5,071,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco	427,	124,	162,	154,	196,	118,
Western Africa	1,004,	615,	1,143,	695,	871,	512,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Mooria Islands	6,	38,	40,	81,	39,	263,
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philippines; other Islands	847,	1,500,	869,	1,391,	1,395,	2,310,
South Sea Islands	—	93,	—	18,	—	40,
China, including Hong Kong	6,913,	4,107,	6,803,	4,055,	6,556,	3,179,
United States of America	43,631,	6,803,	33,782,	16,235,	25,612,	17,426,
Mexico and Central America	477,	647,	451,	464,	398,	595,
Foreign West Indies and Hayti	3,670,	1,772,	2,836,	1,753,	2,587,	1,927,
South America, (Northern,) New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador	433,	1,105,	504,	926,	477,	797,
" (Pacific,) Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia	4,130,	1,929,	3,577,	2,242,	2,624,	1,515,
" (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres	3,248,	5,021,	3,134,	5,101,	3,740,	4,082,
Whale Fisheries; Grnlnd., Davis' Straits, Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands	19,	6,	92,	4,	80,	7,
Total.—Foreign Countries	121,774,	64,858,	115,514,	71,726,	98,537,	66,814,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS:						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	15,803,	13,587,	12,558,	14,897,	10,805,	15,999,
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	4,073,	5,819,	4,086,	5,945,	3,643,	6,329,
" " So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zea.	1,741,	1,648,	1,645,	1,413,	1,414,	1,320,
British North America	5,497,	3,461,	4,124,	3,441,	3,502,	3,384,
" W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	4,832,	1,784,	5,060,	1,748,	4,581,	1,572,
Cape and Natal	818,	1,479,	1,174,	1,450,	1,065,	1,392,
Brt. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	120,	257,	112,	244,	149,	329,
Mauritius	1,814,	410,	1,272,	365,	1,365,	431,
Channel Islands	491,	492,	515,	495,	334,	467,
Total.—British Possessions	35,189,	28,937,	30,546,	29,998,	26,858,	31,223,
General Total £	156,963,	93,795,	146,060,	101,724,	125,395,	98,037,

IMPORTS.—(United Kingdom.)—First Eleven Months (*January—November*), 1861-60-59-8-7.—*Computed Real Value* (*Ex-duty*), *at Port of Entry* (*and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit*), *of Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandize Imported into the United Kingdom.*

(First Eleven Months.) (000's omitted.) Foreign Articles Imported.		1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.
		£	£	£	£	£
Raw Matls.—*Textile.*	Cotton Wool	35,940,	31,567,	28,762,	26,346,	26,733,
	Wool (Sheep's)..	8,735,	9,727,	8,791,	7,717,	8,653,
	Silk	7,090,	7,881,	8,904,	5,488,	12,168,
	Flax	3,019,	3,377,	3,463,	2,708,	3,363,
	Hemp	1,637,	1,509,	2,205,	1,520,	1,763,
	Indigo	2,698,	2,403,	1,888,	2,167,	2,030,
		59,119,	56,464,	54,013,	45,946,	54,710,
,, ,, *Various.*	Hides	2,377,	2,801,	2,795,	2,005,	3,796,
	Oils	2,987,	3,334,	2,846,	2,979,	3,306,
	Metals	3,164,	3,442,	3,221,	3,191,	3,496,
	Tallow	2,272,	2,815,	2,547,	2,240,	2,713,
	Timber.....	9,228,	8,366,	7,002,	4,638,	6,649,
		20,028,	20,758,	18,411,	15,053,	19,960,
,, ,, *Agricltl.*	Guano	1,781,	1,183,	720,	3,634,	2,217,
	Seeds	2,663,	2,697,	2,570,	2,005,	2,494,
		4,444,	3,880,	3,290,	5,639,	4,711,
Tropical,&c.,Produce.	Tea	5,895,	5,932,	4,510,	4,599,	4,300,
	Coffee	2,424,	2,175,	1,788,	1,505,	1,553,
	Sugar & Molasses	12,431,	11,722,	11,322,	11,868,	14,790,
	Tobacco	1,625,	984,	1,068,	1,522,	1,651,
	Rice.....	1,697,	778,	658,	1,475,	1,619,
	Fruits	1,155,	954,	950,	569,	1,030,
	Wine	3,563,	3,883,	2,320,	1,803,	3,584,
	Spirits	1,567,	1,769,	1,993,	1,059,	2,597,
		30,357,	28,197,	24,609,	24,400,	31,124,
Food	Grain and Meal..	31,568,	27,320,	16,558,	18,714,	17,228,
	Provisions	5,958,	5,036,	2,986,	2,880,	3,770,
		37,526,	32,356,	19,544,	21,594,	20,998,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		3,239,	3,232,	2,966,	2,586,	3,547,
Total Enumerated Imports....		154,713,	144,887,	122,833,	115,218,	135,050,
Add for Unenumerated Imports (say)		38,678,	36,222,	30,708,	28,804,	33,762,
Total Imports.....		193,391,	181,109,	153,541,	144,022,	168,812,

EXPORTS.—(United Kingdom.)—Whole Years, 1861-60-59-8-7.—*Declared Real Value at Port of Shipment of Articles of* British *and* Irish *Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.*

(Whole Year.) (Unit 000's omitted.) British Produce, &c., Exported.		1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.
		£	£	£	£	£
Manfrs.—*Textile.*	Cotton Manufactures..	37,544,	42,138,	38,743,	33,402,	30,373,
	,, Yarn.....	9,293,	9,875,	9,466,	9,753,	8,701,
	Woollen Manufactures	11,141,	12,164,	12,033,	9,778,	10,703,
	,, Yarn	3,546,	3,844,	3,080,	2,954,	2,942,
	Silk Manufactures ...	2,036,	2,106,	2,145,	1,868,	2,573,
	,, Yarn.....	276,	295,	207,	229,	317,
	Linen Manufactures....	3,859,	4,802,	4,607,	4,124,	4,517,
	,, Yarn.....	1,616,	1,801,	1,685,	1,739,	1,648,
		69,311,	77,025,	71,966,	63,667,	61,774,
,, *Sewed.*	Apparel	2,154,	2,157,	2,191,	1,944,	2,159,
	Haberdy. and Millnry.	3,423,	4,011,	4,289,	3,474,	3,894,
		5,577,	6,168,	6,480,	5,418,	6,053,
Metals	Hardware.....	3,425,	3,772,	3,826,	3,280,	4,016,
	Machinery	4,220,	3,825,	3,701,	3,604,	3,884,
	Iron	10,342,	12,158,	12,327,	11,236,	13,406,
	Copper and Brass.....	2,313,	3,002,	2,600,	2,854,	3,124,
	Lead and Tin	1,822,	2,562,	2,552,	2,238,	2,516,
	Coals and Culm	3,593,	3,322,	3,266,	3,053,	3,211,
		25,715,	28,641,	28,272,	26,265,	30,157,
Ceramic Manufcts.	Earthenware and Glass	1,660,	2,094,	1,921,	1,721,	2,151,
Indigenous Mnfrs.	Beer and Ale	1,417,	1,864,	2,116,	1,852,	1,592,
	Butter	484,	633,	717,	541,	562,
	Cheese	131,	119,	138,	91,	114,
	Candles	279,	239,	188,	157,	280,
	Salt	370,	358,	254,	288,	337,
	Spirits	484,	287,	306,	207,	752,
	Soda.....	604,	963,	1,024,	813,	761,
		3,769,	4,463,	4,743,	3,949,	4,398,
Various Manufcts.	Books	445,	495,	478,	390,	422,
	Furniture.....	264,	222,	242,	258,	289,
	Leather Manufactures	2,197,	2,129,	1,998,	2,011,	2,289,
	Soap.....	230,	250,	226,	210,	240,
	Plate and Watches	449,	564,	495,	454,	545,
	Stationery.....	649,	750,	840,	804,	742,
		4,234,	4,410,	4,279,	4,127,	4,527,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		4,556,	3,966,	3,366,	3,524,	3,806,
Unenumerated Articles		10,293,	9,076,	9,413,	7,943,	9,200,
Total Exports		125,115,	135,843,	130,440,	116,614,	122,066,

SHIPPING. — FOREIGN TRADE. — (United Kingdom.) — Years, 1861-60-59-8.— *Vessels Entered and Cleared with Cargoes, including repeated Voyages, but excluding Government Transports.*

(Whole Year.)	1861.			1860.		1859.		1858.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
ENTERED:—									
Vessels belonging to—	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia	407	125,	307	435	126,	346	103,	233	70,
Sweden	945	156,	165	1,119	182,	912	151,	720	120,
Norway	2,917	634,	217	2,862	638,	2,564	578,	2,187	483,
Denmark	2,321	226,	97	2,957	292,	2,771	277,	2,400	238,
Prussia and Ger. Sts.	3,457	809,	234	4,067	836,	3,603	799,	3,173	715,
Holland and Belgium	1,546	215,	139	1,758	239,	1,622	225,	1,398	211,
France	1,686	136,	80	2,187	186,	2,334	192,	2,716	234,
Spain and Portugal	436	106,	243	391	101,	399	94,	379	79,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	863	239,	277	1,057	299,	699	197,	837	640,
United States	1,932	1,647,	852	1,417	1,361,	1,115	1,078,	1,276	1,187,
All other States	19	7,	379	20	6,	24	7,	17	6,
	16,529	4,300,	260	18,270	4,293,	16,389	3,701,	15,335	3,583,
United Kingdm. & Depds.	21,060	6,304,	299	20,104	5,762,	19,909	5,389,	19,256	5,233,
Totals Entered	37,589	10,604,	286	38,374	10,055,	36,298	9,090,	34,591	8,816,
CLEARED:—									
Russia	413	123,	297	396	117,	366	109,	242	72,
Sweden	1,041	168,	161	1,163	185,	946	158,	798	139,
Norway	1,903	312,	163	1,746	311,	1,782	343,	1,379	262,
Denmark	3,285	323,	98	3,362	328,	3,161	313,	2,999	302,
Prussia and Ger. Sts.	5,207	990,	190	5,033	936,	5,117	971,	4,832	872,
Holland and Belgium	1,932	278,	143	2,018	319,	2,024	305,	2,070	337,
France	5,135	496,	96	4,068	431,	3,612	394,	4,294	456,
Spain and Portugal	398	107,	29	364	92,	377	93,	399	89,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	1,098	304,	276	1,152	332,	837	233,	1,040	297,
United States	1,580	1,369,	866	1,456	1,368,	1,158	1,091,	1,308	1,229,
All other States	23	7,	317	19	6,	26	8,	18	6,
	22,015	4,477,	203	20,777	4,425,	19,406	4,018,	19,379	4,061,
United Kingdm. & Depds.	26,454	6,841,	258	23,713	6,359,	23,701	6,224,	23,455	5,875,
Totals Cleared	48,469	11,318,	233	44,490	10,784,	43,107	10,242,	42,834	9,936,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE. — IMPORTED AND EXPORTED. — (United Kingdom.) — *Computed Real Value for the* Years, 1861-60-59.

(000's at unit end omitted.)

(Whole Year.)	1861.		1860.		1859.	
	Gold.	*Silver.*	Gold.	*Silver.*	Gold.	*Silver.*
Imported from:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia	6,331,	1,	6,719,	1,	8,625,	3,
So. Amca. and W. Indies	1,600,	5,115,	1,180,	525,	1,739,	3,385,
United States and Cal.	39,	28,	3,918,	875,	7,909,	1,794,
	7,970,	5,144,	11,817,	5,401,	18,273,	5,152,
France	2,505,	690,	341,	3,698,	936,	6,366,
HanseTowns, Holl. & Belg.	886,	524,	60,	966,	379,	2,927,
Prtgl., Spain, and Gbrltr.	27,	155,	14,	272,	90,	272,
Mlta., Trky., and Egypt	53,	29,	36,	19,	318,	15,
China	5,	1,	—	—	—	3,
West Coast of Africa	78,	2,	91,	10,	97,	4,
All other Countries	640,	38,	226,	27,	2,205,	33,
Totals Imported	12,164,	6,583,	12,585,	10,393,	22,298,	14,772,
Exported to:—						
France	998,	1,053,	10,401,	915,	14,902,	482,
HanseTowns, Holl. & Belg.	21,	854,	151,	593,	929,	955,
Prtgl., Spain, and Gbrltr.	985,	3,	1,357,	1,	739,	—
	2,004,	1,910,	11,909,	1,509,	16,570,	1,437,
Ind. and China (viâ Egypt)	794,	7,280,	1,302,	8,124,	613,	16,004,
Danish West Indies	53,	39,	21,	29,	137,	6,
United States	7,298,	84,	1,724,	3,	10,	4,
South Africa	133,	10,	51,	—	5,	5,
Mauritius	—	2,	—	—	—	1,
Brazil	20,	150,	357,	167,	98,	99,
All other Countries	934,	98,	278,	61,	648,	51,
Totals Exported	11,238,	9,573,	15,642,	9,893,	18,081,	17,607,
Excess of *Imports*	926,	—	—	500,	4,217,	—
,, Exports	—	2,990,	3,057,	—	—	2,835,

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM.)—31ST DEC., 1861-60-59-8.

Net Produce in YEARS *and* QUARTERS *ended* 31ST DEC., 1861-60-59-8.

[Unit 000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 31st Dec.	1861.	1860.	1861.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1859.	1858.
	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.
Customs	6,147,	5,861,	—	286,	6,225,	6,209,
Excise	3,896,	4,359,	463,	—	5,360,	5,004,
Stamps	2,098,	2,036,	—	62,	2,018,	2,029,
Taxes	1,282,	1,293,	11,	—	1,424,	1,383,
Post Office	910,	880,	—	30,	830,	860,
	14,333,	14,429,	474,	378,	15,857,	15,485
Property Tax	2,359,	3,530,	1,171,	—	938,	547,
	16,692,	17,959,	1,645,	378,	16,795,	16,032,
Crown Lands	84,	83,	—	1,	83,	83,
Miscellaneous	292,	228,	—	64,	235,	918,
Totals	17,068,	18,270,	1,645,	443,	17,113,	17,033,
			NET DECR. £1,202,309			

YEARS, ended 31st Dec.	1861.	1860.	1861.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1859.	1858.
	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.
Customs	23,774,	23,032,	—	742,	24,825,	24,092,
Excise	18,161,	19,069,	908,	—	19,041,	17,966,
Stamps	8,488,	8,285,	—	203,	7,977,	7,996,
Taxes	3,119,	3,126,	7,	—	3,231,	3,158,
Post Office	3,500,	3,420,	—	80,	3,225,	3,075,
	57,042,	56,932,	915,	1,025,	58,299,	56,287,
Property Tax	9,962,	12,902,	2,940,	—	6,077,	7,591,
	67,004,	69,834,	3,855,	1,025,	64,376,	63,878,
Crown Lands	294,	290,	—	4,	282,	278,
Miscellaneous	1,306,	1,843,	537,	—	1,413,	2,131,
Totals	68,604,	71,967,	4,392,	1,029,	66,071,	66,287,
			NET DECR. £3,363,611			

REVENUE (UNITED KINGDOM).—QUARTER ENDED 31ST DEC., 1861:—APPLICATION.

An Account showing the REVENUE *and other* RECEIPTS *of the* QUARTER *ended 31st December*, 1861; *the* APPLICATION *of the same, and the Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the said Quarter, together with the Surplus or Deficiency upon such Charge.*

Received:—

		£
Surplus Balance beyond the Charge of the *Consolidated Fund* for the Quarter ended 30th September, 1861, viz.:—		
Great Britain	—	
Ireland	£274,085	274,085
Income received in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1861, as shown on preceding page		17,068,039
Amount raised per Act 23 and 24 Victoria, cap. 109, on account of Fortifications, &c.		350,000
Amount of Exchequer Bills (Ways and Means) issued in the Quarter		1,000,000
Amount received in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1861, in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c.		549,368
Amount of former charges cancelled		679
		£19,243,071
Balance, being the deficiency on 31st December, 1861, upon the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends, and other charges, payable in the Quarter to 31st March, 1862, and for which Exchequer Bills (Deficiency) will be issued in that Quarter		3,251,250
		£22,494,321

Paid:—

		£
Amount applied out of the Income for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1861, in redemption of Exchequer Bills (Deficiency), for the Quarter ended 30th September, 1861		3,962,612
Amount applied out of the Income to *Supply Services* in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1861		9,589,024
Charge of the *Consolidated Fund* for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1861, viz.:—		
Interest of the Permanent Debt	£6,300,865	
Terminable Debt	349,410	
Interest of Exchequer Bills (Supply)	113,681	
" " (Deficiency)	5,700	
The Civil List	100,959	
Other Charges on Consolidated Fund	700,076	
Advances for Public Works, &c.	389,500	
		7,060,191
Surplus Balance in Ireland beyond the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Ireland for the Quarter ended 31*st December*, 1861, viz.:		982,494
		£22,494,321

CORN.—*Gazette Average Prices* (England and Wales) *Fourth Quarter of* 1861.

[This Table is communicated by H. F. Jadis, Esq., Comptroller of Corn Returns.]

Weeks ended on a Saturday 1861.	Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
October 5	57 –	37 4	22 6	35 4	42 –	40 4
„ 12	56 3	37 6	21 10	37 3	41 8	42 11
„ 19	56 3	36 9	21 6	34 9	41 10	41 10
„ 26	57 0	36 7	21 11	35 1	42 3	44 8
Average for October ..	56 9	37 –	21 11	35 7	41 11	42 5
November 2	59 5	37 1	22 7	37 5	42 3	44 4
„ 9	59 8	37 3	22 8	38 5	42 6	46 –
„ 16	59 10	37 6	22 7	37 7	42 6	47 5
„ 23	60 5	37 6	23 –	39 1	42 9	44 11
„ 30	60 3	37 4	23 –	36 10	42 8	45 2
Average for November..	59 11	37 4	22 9	37 10	42 6	45 6
December 7	60 4	37 –	22 8	37 10	42 7	43 8
„ 14	60 8	36 3	22 6	36 1	42 8	45 10
„ 21	61 6	36 2	22 5	29 –	42 2	42 11
„ 28	61 4	36 4	22 1	35 10	41 4	41 11
Average for December..	60 11	36 5	22 5	34 8	42 2	43 7
Average for the Quarter ..	59 3	36 11	22 4	36 2	42 2	43 11
Average for the Year	55 4	36 1	23 0	35 9	42 5	41 2

RAILWAYS.—Prices, *Oct.—Dec.,—and* Traffic, *Jan.—Dec.*, 1861.

Total Capital Expended Mlns.	Railway.	For the (£100). Price on 2nd Dec.	1st Nov.	1st Oct.	Miles Open. '61.	'60.	Total Traffic whole 52 Weeks. (unit 000's omitted.) '61.	'60.	Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 52 Weeks. '61.	'60.	Dividends per Cent. for Half Years. 1 July. '61.	31 Dec. '60.	30 Jn. '60.
£					No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
44,0	Lond. & N.Westn.	92¾	91½	91½	1,030	1,004	4,356,	4,372,	81	83	37 6	52 6	50 –
34,7	Great Western	70	72	68	783	762	2,301,	2,255,	56	57	22 6	35 –	30 –
13,3	Great Northern....	113	113	107	330	330	1,385,	1,344,	81	78	37 6	63 9	45 –
16,7	Eastern Counties.	52¼	55	52½	499	499	1,352,	1,327,	52	51	16 3	23 9	21 3
9,9	Brighton	116	116	115	241	223	933,	878,	74	75	50 –	70 –	45 –
13,9	South-Eastern	75¾	102	78	306	306	1,104,	1,090,	70	69	41 8	60 –	46 8
12,3	South-Western	94½	94	95	400	394	1,014,	1,053,	49	51	40 –	52 6	42 2
144,8		88	92	87	3,589	3,498	12,445,	12,319,	66	66	35 1	51 1	40 –
21,4	Midland.....	127½	129	124	614	614	2,062,	2,066,	64	65	62 6	70 –	65 –
19,1	Lancsh. and York.	106½	106¾	104	395	395	1,913,	1,932,	92	93	45 –	60 –	55 –
11,6	Sheffield and Man.	45½	48	43	231	231	692,	686,	57	57	7 6	15 –	10 –
23,4	North-Eastern	100	102	100	789	764	2,018,	1,994,	49	49	52 6	57 6	52 6
4,5	South Wales	67	62	61	171	171	367,	372,	41	42	27 6	30 –	20 –
80,0		89	89	86	2,200	2,175	7,052,	7,050,	60	61	39 –	46 6	40 6
9,0	Caledonian	103½	106	103	219	219	811,	770,	71	67	50 –	55 –	42 6
5,2	Gt. S. & Wn. Irlnd.	103	105	105	329	329	426,	410,	25	24	50 –	50 –	50 –
239,0	*Gen. aver.*	90	93	89	6,377	6,221	20,734,	20,549,	62	61	38 7	49 8	41 1

Consols.—Money Prices 2*nd Dec.*, 91 to ⅛,—1*st Nov*, 93⅛ to ¼,—1*st Oct.*, 91½ to ⅝.
Exchequer Bills. „ 14*s.* pm. „ 13*s.* to 16*s.* pm. „ 6*s.* to 9*s.* pm.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—Weekly Return.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), *for Wednesday in each Week, during the* Fourth Quarter (*Oct.—Dec.*) *of* 1861.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Issue Department.					Collateral Columns.	
Liabilities.	Dates.	Assets.				
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.	Notes in Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	Minimum Rates of Discount at Bank of England.
Mlns. £	1861.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	1861. Per ann.
28,01	Oct. 2	11,02	3,63	13,36	21,09	19 Sep. 3½ p. ct
28,03	„ 9 ...	11,02	3,63	13,38	20,94	
27,75	„ 16	11,02	3,63	13,10	21,12	
27,92	„ 23	11,02	3,63	13,27	20,81	
28,08	„ 30 ...	11,02	3,63	13,43	20,90	
28,05	Nov. 6	11,02	3,63	13,40	20,77	7 Nov. 3 „
28,21	„ 13	11,02	3,63	13,56	20,73	
28,52	„ 20 ...	11,02	3,63	13,87	20,49	
28,72	„ 27	11,02	3,63	14,07	20,01	
28,91	Dec. 4 ...	11,02	3,63	14,29	20,01	
29,08	„ 11	11,02	3,63	14,43	19,70	
29,43	„ 18	11,02	3,63	14,78	19,45	
29,59	„ 25	11,02	3,63	14,94	19,57	

Banking Department.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Liabilities.					Dates.	Assets.				
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.		Seven Day and other Bills.		Securities.		Reserve.		Totals of Liabilities and Assets.
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.		(Wdnsdys.)	Government.	Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.	
Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	1861.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £
14,55	3,81	4,91	12,11	,75	Oct. 2	10,73	17,72	6,92	,76	36,14
14,55	3,81	4,89	12,03	,74	„ 9	10,73	17,44	7,09	,76	36,03
14,55	3,12	3,57	14,41	,81	„ 16	12,15	16,88	6,63	,79	36,46
14,55	3,12	3,68	14,68	,79	„ 23	12,15	14,74	7,11	,83	36,83
14,55	3,13	3,78	14,33	,78	„ 30	11,95	16,65	7,18	,79	36,57
14,55	3,15	4,24	13,52	,80	Nov. 6	11,71	16,46	7,28	,81	36,26
14,55	3,16	3,77	13,19	,81	„ 13	10,81	16,39	7,48	,80	35,49
14,55	3,18	4,10	13,27	,77	„ 20	10,71	16,29	8,03	,84	35,88
14,55	3,13	4,20	14,09	,70	„ 27	10,89	16,19	8,71	,88	36,68
14,55	3,13	5,21	13,27	,74	Dec. 4	10,89	16,22	8,93	,85	36,90
14,55	3,13	5,92	13,10	,74	„ 11	10,90	16,33	9,38	,84	37,44
14,55	3,13	6,79	13,13	,69	„ 18	10,96	16,52	9,98	,83	38,30
14,55	3,14	7,09	13,31	,63	„ 25	11,06	16,83	10,02	,82	38,73

CIRCULATION.—Country Banks.

Average amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in England *and* Wales, *on Saturday, in each Week during the* Fourth Quarter (*Oct.—Dec.*) *of* 1861; *and in* Scotland *and* Ireland, *at the Three Dates, as under.*

	England and Wales.			Scotland.				Ireland.		
Dates.	Private Banks. (Fixed Issues, 4·35.)	Joint Stock Banks. (Fixed Issues, 3·30.)	Total. (Fixed Issues, 7·65.)	Four Weeks, ended	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	Total. (Fixed Issues, 2·75.)	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	Total. (Fixed Issues, 6·35.)
1861.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	1861.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £
Sept. 28	3,24	2,90	6,14							
Oct. 5	3,40	3,00	6,40							
„ 12	3,49	3,06	6,55							
„ 19	3,52	3,03	6,55	Oct. 19	1,56	2,69	4,25	3,18	2,96	6,14
„ 26	3,53	3,01	6,54							
Nov. 2	3,53	3,00	6,53							
„ 9	3,50	3,02	6,52							
„ 16	3,46	2,99	6,45	Nov. 16	1,68	2,83	4,51	3,29	3,17	6,46
„ 23	3,44	2,97	6,41							
„ 30	3,39	2,94	6,33							
Dec. 7	3,32	2,88	6,20							
„ 14	3,27	2,85	6,11	Dec. 14	1,71	2,94	4,65	3,20	3,21	6,41

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.—*Quotations as under,* London *on Paris, Hamburg & Calcutta; —and New York, Calcutta, Hong Kong & Sydney, on* London—*with collateral cols.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	Paris.				Hamburg.				Calcutta.				
Dates.	London on Paris, 3 m.d.	Bullion as arbitrated. Agnst. Engd.	Bullion as arbitrated. For Engd.	Prem. or Dis. on Gold per mille.	London on Hambg. 3 m.d.	Bullion as arbitrated. Agnst. Engd.	Bullion as arbitrated. For Engd.	New York. 60 d.s.	India House. 60 d.s.	At Calcutta on London. 6 m.s.	Hong Kong. 6 m.s.	Sydney. 30 d.s.	Standard Silver in bars in London. p.oz.
1861.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.			pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	pr. ct.	*d.*
Oct. 5 ..	25·77	—	0·4	4 p.	13·10¼	0·1	—	108½	26	24½	53½	1 p.	60¾
„ 19 ..	·72	—	0·3	2 „	„	—	0·4	108	„	„	„	„	„
Nov. 9 ..	·62	—	0·3	2 „	·9¼	—	—	„	„	25	„	„	60¾
„ 23 ..	·57	—	0·1	4 „	·8¾	—	0·4	107½	„	„	„	„	61¼
Dec. 7 ..	·62	—	—	—	·9	—	—	109¼	„	24¾	54	„	„
„ 28 ..	·62	—	0·2	3 p.	·8½	—	0·1	„	„	„	„	„	60¾

THE LONDON ASSURANCE,

INCORPORATED A.D. 1720.

FOR LIFE, FIRE, AND MARINE ASSURANCES.

HEAD OFFICE—No. 7, ROYAL EXCHANGE, CORNHILL, E.C.

JOHN ALEX. HANKEY, ESQ., *Governor.*
BONAMY DOBREE, JUN., ESQ., *Sub-Governor.*
PATRICK F. ROBERTSON, ESQ., *Deputy-Governor.*

DIRECTORS.

NATH. ALEXANDER, ESQ.	SIR FREDERICK CURRIE, BART.	LOUIS HUTH, ESQ.
J. ALVES ARBUTHNOT, ESQ.	F. G. DALGETY, ESQ.	CHARLES LYALL, ESQ.
RICHARD BAGGALLAY, ESQ.	JOHN ENTWISLE, ESQ.	JOHN ORD, ESQ.
HENRY BONHAM BAX, ESQ.	ROBERT GILLESPIE, JUN., ESQ.	CAPT. R. W. PELLY, R.N.
JAMES BLYTH, ESQ.	HARRY GEO. GORDON, ESQ.	DAVID POWELL, ESQ.
EDWARD BUDD, ESQ.	EDWIN GOWER, ESQ.	ALEX. TROTTER, ESQ.
EDWARD BURMESTER, ESQ.	SAMUEL GREGSON, ESQ., M.P.	WILLIAM B. WATSON, ESQ.
CHARLES CRAWLEY, ESQ.	A. C. GUTHRIE, ESQ.	LESTOCK P. WILSON, ESQ.

WEST END OFFICE—No. 7, PALL MALL, S.W.

COMMITTEE.

Two Members of the Court in rotation, and
HENRY KINGSCOTE, ESQ. and JOHN TIDD PRATT, ESQ.
Superintendent—PHILIP SCOONES, ESQ.

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Actuary—ARTHUR H. BAILEY, ESQ.

THIS CORPORATION has granted Assurances on Lives for a **period exceeding One Hundred and Forty Years,** having issued its first Policy on the 7th June, 1721.

Two-thirds of the entire profits, **without any deduction for expenses,** are given to the Assured.

Policies may be opened under any of the following plans, viz.:—

At a low rate of premium, without participation in profits, or at a somewhat higher rate, entitling the Assured, either after the first five years, to an annual abatement of premium for the remainder of life, or, after payment, of the first premium, to a participation in the ensuing Quinquennial Bonus.

The high character which this ancient Corporation has maintained during **nearly a Century and a Half,** secures to the public a full and faithful declaration of profits.

The Corporation bears the whole EXPENSES OF MANAGEMENT, thus giving to the Assured, conjoined with the protection afforded by its **Corporate Fund,** advantages equal to those of any system of Mutual Assurance.

All Policies are issued Free from charge of any description whatever, beyond the Premium.

Annuities are granted by the Corporation, payable half-yearly.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

Manager—THOS. B. BATEMAN, ESQ.

Common Assurances, One Shilling and Sixpence per cent.
Hazardous Assurances, Two Shillings and Sixpence per cent.
Doubly Hazardous Assurances, Four Shillings and Sixpence per cent.
Foreign and Special Assurances accepted at Moderate Rates.

Prospectuses and all other information may be obtained by either a written or personal application to the Actuary, the Manager of the Fire Department, or to the Superintendent of the West End Office.

JOHN LAURENCE, *Secretary.*

EAGLE INSURANCE COMPANY,

LONDON.

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1861.

THE Directors have again to submit their Annual Report to the Proprietors—and they commence it with the following abstract from the Company's Books of the Surplus Fund Account:—

SURPLUS FUND ACCOUNT.

INCOME OF THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1861.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Balance of Account, June 30, 1860	... ...	744,118 19 8
Premiums on New Assurances	19,799 5 7	
Ditto on Renewed ditto ...	240,574 12 1	
	260,373 17 8	
Interest from Investments	80,113 1 6	
		380,286 19 2
		£1,124,405 18 10

CHARGE OF THE YEAR.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Dividend to Proprietors...		10,343 11
Claims on decease of Lives assured	232,781 10 3	
Additions to those under Participating Policies	22,654	
Policies surrendered ...	13,100	
Reassurances, New ...	3,763 1 9	
Ditto, Old	29,244 6 4	
	301,543 17 8	
Commission...	10,074 10 11	
Medical Fees	920 7 4	
Income Tax...	3,116 3 2	
Expenses of Management	11,261 2 0	
		327,516 1 1
Balance of Account, June 30, 1861 ...		786,546 6 5
		£1,124,405 18 10

Examined and approved,
(Signed) THOMAS ALLEN,
WILLIAM HENRY SMITH, Jun., } *Auditors.*

The Total Income is here shown to be £380,286 19*s.* 2*d.*, and the Total Outgoing to be £337,859 12*s.* 7*d.* The difference, viz., £42,427 6*s.* 7*d.*, goes in augmentation of the Surplus Fund, which now amounts to £786,546 6*s.* 3*d.*

The Premiums on new Assurances are £19,799 5*s.* 7*d.*,—about £200 in excess of those of the previous year; but the Renewals are somewhat less than it was expected they would be, a greater number of Assurances having run off during the year than usual. The payments on account of Reassurances newly effected amount to £3,763 1*s.* 9*d.*

The realized Assets in June, 1860, productive and unproductive, were £1,816,900, after providing for all immediate demands; and this sum has produced in the year £80,113 1*s.* 6*d.*; the rate of interest thus realized being rather more than £4 8*s.* per cent. per annum.

The amount claimed on decease of Lives Assured is less than that last reported by about £4,800.

The Assets and Liabilities on the 30th June, stood as follows:—

BALANCE SHEET.

LIABILITIES.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Interest due to Proprietors		6,021 15 9
Claims on Decease of Lives Assured and additions thereto unpaid ...		66,603 4 9
Cash bonus due to Policyholders ...		12,416 5 6
Sundry Accounts		5,660 19 8
Value (1857) of Sums Assured, &c. ...		4,377,392 10 10
Proprietor's Fund ... £201,246 0 3		
Surplus Fund, as above 786,546 6 3		
		987,792 6 6
		£5,456,471 0 0

ASSETS.

	£ s. d.
Amount invested in Fixed Mortgages	1,188,772 17 6
Ditto, ditto, Decreasing Mortgages ...	151,630 10 3
Ditto, ditto, Reversions	77,577 15 3
Ditto, ditto, Funded Securities	329,443 5 10
Ditto, ditto, Temporary Securities ...	35,435 7 7
Current Interest on the above Investments	29,164 16 0
Cash and Bills	31,111 17 0
Advanced on Security of the Company's Policies, &c.	99,555 16 9
Agents' Balances	27,878 19 2
Sundry Accounts	14,530 8 7
Value (1857) of Assurance Premiums	3,518,373 15 1
	£5,456,471 0 0

Examined and approved,
(Signed) THOMAS ALLEN,
WILLIAM HENRY SMITH, Jun., } *Auditors.*

This account differs but little from that presented last year. The net Assets are, of course, upwards of £42,000 more than they were; and it will be observed that further investments have been made during the year in the Government Funds.

As a very full Report, both Financial and Statistical, will have to be made at the next Annual Meeting, the Directors abstain from further observations now. Meanwhile, they are glad to be able to say there is every indication that the laborious investigation about to be entered upon, will lead to results of a very satisfactory character.

The Trustees and Directors of the Company are now as follows:—

TRUSTEES.

LORD BATEMAN.
ROBERT CHEERE, ESQ.
JOSEPH ESDAILE, ESQ.
CHARLES THOMAS HOLCOMBE, ESQ.
RICHARD HARMAN LLOYD, ESQ.
WILLIAM JAMES MAXWELL, ESQ.
RALPH CHARLES PRICE, ESQ.
HON. E. T. YORKE, M.P.

And other Gentlemen.

DIRECTORS.

WILLIAM AUGUSTUS GUY, M.D., *Chairman.*
PHILIP ROSE, ESQ., *Deputy-Chairman.*

THOMAS BODDINGTON, ESQ.
CHARLES BISCHOFF, ESQ.
JOHN WHITE CATER, ESQ.
CHARLES CHATFIELD, ESQ.
SIR JAMES BULLER EAST, BART., M.P.
NATHANIEL GOULD, ESQ.
ROBERT A. GRAY, ESQ.
CHARLES THOMAS HOLCOMBE, ESQ.
RICHARD HARMAN LLOYD, ESQ.
JOSHUA LOCKWOOD, ESQ.
JAMES MURRAY, ESQ.
SIR W. G. OUSELEY, K.C.B., D.C.L.
W. ANDERSON PEACOCK, ESQ.
RALPH CHARLES PRICE, ESQ.
GEORGE RUSSELL, ESQ.
THOMAS GODFREY SAMBROOKE, ESQ.
CAPT. LOUIS SYMONDS TINDAL, R.N.
COLONEL CHARLES WETHERALL, K.C.T.
RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN YOUNG, BART.

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

JUNE, 1862.

REPORT *of the* COUNCIL *for the* FINANCIAL YEAR *ended* 31*st December*, 1861, *and for the* SESSIONAL YEAR *ended* [illegible] and 1862, *presented at the* TWENTY-EIGHTH [illegible]ears, afforded [illegible]inguished talents."

of the STATISTICAL SOCIETY, *held* [illegible] Science and Statistics, at the 12, *St. James's Square*, on [illegible]sociation, at Manchester, in September *the* PROCEEDINGS *of the* [illegible] Presidency of one of the Honorary [illegible]ciety (William Newmarch, F.R.S.), and the RIGHT HON. SIR JO[illegible]section were generally considered to have been [illegible]y successful.

[illegible]eting of the National Association for the Promo-

AT the present ti[illegible]ence was held in August last, in Dublin, and by its [illegible]—(including 70 I[illegible] still further the objects and influence of this new Members)—at the[illegible] Association.

now ended, the [illegible]leeting of the National Association will be held in resignations, and [illegible]e next, in connexion with a visit to this country of have been 24. [illegible] Bienfaisance, meetings of which were held in 1855

The Income o[illegible]6 in Brussels, and in 1857 in Frankfort.

the Banker's Bala[illegible]tless, be a leading object with the Council of this Expenditure 744*l.* [illegible]ected to-day, to afford all possible facilities to the the current year, [illegible]oth of the important bodies who will constitute the

The Surplus of [illegible].

for all claims upo[illegible]aps, happen that the proceedings of those meetings Balance Sheet of A[illegible]e practical method by which the resources of the

The finances of [illegible]ct bodies at present engaged in the cultivation of during the past year, [illegible] the large field of Social Science—as, for example, period, it has been one[illegible]e Law, Sanitary Science, Actuarial Science, them. Larger resource[illegible] Science, and Political Economy,—may be con-ness, and expand the [illegible]t effective and least expensive form, for the resources may, in time, [illegible]y of the particular pursuit of each, but also other forms. In the me[illegible] pursuits which form essential parts of the duty of the Council so to

that by means of the inco[illegible] gratification to the Fellows to find that and independence cultivate t[illegible]ation from the foundation of the Statistical

The Monthly Meetings h[illegible]pletely to accomplish the objects it has been well attended. The discu[illegible]e past the investigation of Social growing in attractiveness and im[illegible]s carefully observed and recorded, has