

CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES, on Saturday, in each Week during the FIRST QUARTER (Jan.—March) of 1862; 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.)	
	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £		Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	
1861.				1862.							
Dec. 21	3,22	2,82	6,04								
" 28	3,19	2,80	5,99								
1862.											
Jan. 4	3,24	2,82	6,06	Jan. 11	1,60	2,69	4,29	2,05	3,12	6,17	
" 11	3,33	2,91	6,24								
" 18	3,56	2,94	3,30								
" 25	3,32	2,91	6,23								
Feb. 1	3,27	2,88	6,15	Feb. 8	1,52	2,53	4,05	3,05	3,03	6,08	
" 8	3,25	2,87	6,12								
" 15	3,22	2,86	6,08								
" 22	3,19	2,85	6,04								
Mar. 1	3,18	2,84	6,02	Mar. 8	1,43	2,44	3,87	3,01	2,89	5,90	
" 8	3,15	2,85	6,00								
" 15	3,14	2,87	6,01								
" 22	3,14	2,89	6,03								
" 29	3,23	2,94	6,17								

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

DATES.	Paris.			Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.	
	London on Paris.	Bullion as arbitrated.		London on Hambg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India House.	At Calcutta on London.				
	3 m. d.	Agnt. Engd.	For Engd.	3 m. d.	Agnt. Engd.	For Engd.		60 d. s.	6 m. s.				
1862.													
Jan. 11 ..	25·52	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	3 p.	13·8	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	111	d.	d.	54½	1 p.	d.
" 25 ..	·47	—	—	2 ,,	·7½	—	0·1	113	"	"	"	"	"
Feb. 8 ..	·45	0·3	—	2 p.	·7½	0·1	—	115	"	"	"	2 p.	"
" 22 ..	·42	0·2	—	1 ,,	·8	—	0·2	113	"	"	"	"	"
Mar. 8 ..	·47	0·1	—	par	·8½	—	0·2	114	"	24½	"	"	"
" 22 ..	·55	par	—	"	·8½	—	"	113	"	"	"	"	61

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

SEPTEMBER, 1862.

On the INCLOSURE COMMISSION, its POWERS, and the PRINCIPLE on which they have been exercised. By JOHN WILLIAM TOTTIE, F.S.S.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 20th May, 1862.]

REFERRING to the "Seventeenth Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for England and Wales," which I have the privilege of laying before you, the statistical matter appears to occupy so small a space, that I feel considerable diffidence in making it the subject of a contribution to the papers of this Society. I endeavour, therefore, in addition to the mere detail of results, to give a general statement of the powers of the Commissioners, with the principle on which these powers have been carried into operation, in order to enable others to form a judgment of the true value of the existing powers, to estimate the worth of their continuance, the necessity for their improvement, or the benefit to be obtained from their extension.

INCLOSURE OF LANDS.

Proceedings under the Acts for the Inclosure, Exchange, and Improvement of Land prior to the Authorizing Act.

In the first instance, application is made by persons interested in the land to be inclosed, representing at least one-third in value of the interests and in the form prescribed by the Commissioners.

On the receipt of the application it is referred to an Assistant Commissioner for inquiry into the expediency of the inclosure, such inquiry being made at a meeting called with fourteen days' notice on the church door of the parish within which the land to be enclosed is situate, and by advertisement. The practice being to hold such meetings at some convenient place within or near such parish.

The Assistant Commissioner reports the result of his inquiries to the Commissioners, upon which, if they see fit, they frame their provisional order, which is deposited in the parish, with notice of their intention to certify in their annual or special report to the

Secretary of State, the expediency of the proposed inclosure upon the terms and conditions in such order expressed.

In case, at a meeting held for the purpose or otherwise, it appears to the satisfaction of the Commissioners that two-thirds in value of the whole interest in the land to be inclosed, assent to the terms of such provisional order, they certify their opinion accordingly in their annual or special report.

With this proviso, that when the land to be inclosed is waste of a manor, or within any manor, to the soil of which the lord of such manor is entitled in right of his manor, the Commissioners do not certify the expediency of the inclosure without the consent of such owner of the soil.

The reports of the Commissioners are laid by the Secretary of State before both Houses of Parliament, and the Authorizing Act passed, usually two in each Session of Parliament.

*Proceedings subsequent to the Authorizing Act.*

An inclosure having been authorized by the legislature upon the terms of the provisional order, a meeting of the persons interested, of which twenty-one days' notice is given on the church door, and by advertisement, is called by the Commissioners, and held within the district in which the lands to be enclosed are situate, for the purpose of appointing a valuer, and the persons present at the meeting, or the majority in number, and the majority in respect of interest may appoint a valuer. In case the majority in number, and the majority in respect of interest do not agree upon the appointment, then the Commissioners appoint a valuer, such valuer, however appointed, being a person not interested in the inclosure or the agent of any person so interested.

At the meeting for appointing a valuer, or at some other meeting called by the Commissioners for the purpose, the majority of the persons present in number and value may resolve upon instructions to the valuer, not inconsistent with the terms and conditions of the provisional order and of the authorizing act, and may make an agreement with the valuer for his remuneration, which instructions are allowed or disallowed, in whole or in part, or such alterations therein or additions thereto, made by the Commissioners as they think proper, and the Commissioners may allow or disallow the agreement. In case of total disallowance, the Commissioners may frame instructions. A copy of all instructions under the seal of the Commissioners is sent to the valuer, who is required to observe and obey the directions and declarations of the provisional order, acts, and instructions respectively.

Provided, that in case of alteration of the instructions to the valuer by the Commissioners, or of instructions being framed by

them in lieu thereof, such altered or new instructions must be deposited in the district, and approved by the like majority as in the case of original instructions at a meeting convened by the Commissioners with fourteen days' notice.

The agreement with, and instructions to, the valuer, having been allowed by the Commissioners, he is in a position to perform his duties, as in the case of a Commissioner under a Local Inclosure Act.

For which purpose he may be assisted, if required, by an Assistant Commissioner in his decision on the claims made by parties interested in the inclosure—subject to the rehearing of such claims in case of dissatisfaction by the Commissioners, or an Assistant Commissioner, with a further appeal to a court of law.

Boundaries of parishes and manors may be set out by the Commissioners or by an Assistant Commissioner, on the representation of the valuer that they are not sufficiently ascertained, and on inquiry and evidence taken on the ground after due notice, with power for parties dissatisfied with the determination respecting such boundaries, to submit the same to the decision of a jury, or to remove the determination of the Commissioners or Assistant Commissioner into the Court of Queen's Bench.

The valuer is required to draw up a report containing all particulars of all his proceedings and directions in regard to the inclosure, with a map showing by reference numbers or otherwise, all matters relating to such proceedings, capable of being shown upon a map, being the lands to be inclosed, the allotments thereof, roads, watercourses, fences, and lands in respect of which, allotments are set out, which last mentioned lands may be shown by reference to the tithe plan or some other map sanctioned by the Commissioners.

The valuer's report is deposited in the parish in which the land to be enclosed, or some part thereof, is situate, and the Commissioners call a meeting at some convenient place, of which meeting, not less than twenty-one days' notice is given, for hearing objections to such report, by the Commissioners, or an Assistant Commissioner, with power to make inquiries and approve or amend the report as the Commissioners see fit.

The report of the valuer being thus settled, forms the basis of his inclosure award, which when confirmed by the Commissioners is binding and conclusive on all persons whomsoever.

The expenses of inclosures require approval by the Commissioners, but are first submitted to a meeting of the persons interested of which seven days' notice at the least is given.

The Commissioners or Assistant Commissioners have power to summon witnesses and examine them on declaration, under penalty of being deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and to call for public

documents to be verified on declaration. The Commissioners may exercise the like powers for procuring the attendance of witnesses, and production of documents before a valuer acting in the matter of any inclosure.

The Commissioners, or any Assistant Commissioner, have a discretionary power to award costs upon application being made to them for this purpose.

		Acreage.
Number of inclosure awards confirmed .....	574 .....	389,188
„ boundary „ .....	82 .....	—

I append to this paper a table of the number of inclosure bills passed annually from the commencement of this century to the present time, with the average price of wheat in each year.

#### Exchange of Lands.

The Commissioners have valuable powers for the purpose of effecting, by order under their hands and seal, exchanges of lands and incorporeal hereditaments on the application of the parties interested, with the proviso that in all cases of copyholds there be obtained the consent of the lord of the manor, and in the case of lands held in respect of an ecclesiastical benefice the consents of the bishop and patron. The land taken upon every such exchange to ensure to the same uses and subject to the same conditions and incumbrances as the lands given in exchange would have stood limited, or been subject to, in case such order had not been made.

The order is not confirmed until notice has been given by advertisement in three successive weeks of the proposed exchange, and three calendar months have expired from the publication of the last of such advertisements, during which time notice of dissent may be given by any person entitled to any estate in, or to any charge upon, any land included in such proposed exchange.

Powers are also given for the division of intermixed lands, and for the partition of lands held in undivided shares—and for the definition of boundaries of lands held under copyhold, freehold, and leasehold tenures.

Also for the apportionment of certain fixed rents chargeable on land, and of compensation money for the extinction of commonable or other rights paid to a committee under railway or other special Acts.

Number of exchanges confirmed .....	2,004
Average official cost, <i>4l.</i>	
Number of divisions confirmed.....	16
„ partitions „ .....	73

#### Inclosure Acts—Abstract of Proceedings.

Applications.	Prior to Last Report.	In the Present Year.	Total.	Confirmed.	Otherwise Disposed of.	In Progress.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Inclosures .....	908	33	941	574	142	225
Exchanges .....	2,249	246	2,495	2,004	252	239
Partitions.....	94	16	110	73	18	19
Conversions into regulated pasture .....	2	—	2	2	—	—
Division of intermixed lands .....	22	2	24	16	2	6
In reference to local Acts .....	44	1	45	37	7	1
To define lost boundaries .....	20	1	21	14	4	3
Application of money received under Lands Clauses Consolidation or Railway Acts .....	11	2	13	10	1	2
To apportion fixed rents.....	5	—	5	4	1	—
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>3,355</b>	<b>301</b>	<b>3,656</b>	<b>2,734</b>	<b>427</b>	<b>495</b>
Acreage of inclosures confirmed .....				389,188 acres.		
„ in progress .....				192,029 „		

The Acts relating to the inclosure and exchange of lands are the following:—

8 and 9 Vict., cap. 118	15 and 16 Vict., cap. 79
9 „ 10 „ 70	17 „ 18 „ 97
10 „ 11 „ 111	20 „ 21 „ 31
11 „ 12 „ 99	22 „ 23 „ 43
12 „ 13 „ 83	

In thus stating the proceedings of the Inclosure Commissioners I should be giving limited information did I not place before you other powers which are vested in them, entailing much responsibility and labour.

#### Drainage, Public Money—(Great Britain).

The Inclosure Commissioners have authorized the advance\* of 4,000,000*l.* of public money, under powers vested in them by several Acts of Parliament, commencing with the 9 and 10 Vict., cap. 101, passed in 1846, enabling advances to the extent of 2,000,000*l.* At

\* The following is the clause of the Act defining the *money terms* on which the advances were to be made to the *borrowers*:—

9 and 10 Vict., cap. 101, sect. xxxiv.—“ And be it enacted, that upon the issue “ as aforesaid of any advance by virtue of a certificate under this Act, the land “ mentioned in such certificate shall be charged with the payment to Her Majesty, “ in respect of such advance, of a rent charge after the rate of six pounds ten “ shillings rent for every one hundred pounds of such advance, and so in proportion “ for any lesser amount, and to be payable for the term of twenty-two years, to be “ computed from the 6th day of April or 10th day of October which shall next “ happen after the issue of such advance, such rent charge to be paid by equal “ half-yearly payments on the 6th day of April and the 10th day of October in “ every year, the first of such payments to be made on the second of such days “ which shall happen next after the issue of such advance in respect of which the “ rent charge shall be charged.”



this period, draining to the depth of 4 feet was popularly considered a mode of proceeding so expensive as to be incapable of producing any beneficial result, and the cutting of a drain in clay to be useless, this being considered a stratum which would hold water but from which water would not flow. Both these modes of drainage were sanctioned, and the Act of the 13 and 14 Vict., cap. 31, passed in 1850, enabled the further advance of 2,000,000*l.*

These advances are made subject to a preliminary report by an Assistant Commissioner or engineer, after local inspection, that the works will effect an improvement to the amount of 6½ per cent., at the least, on the money proposed to be expended. On being satisfied that an improvement to this extent may be relied upon as the result of the proposed expenditure, the Commissioners, having first given notice of the application for the advance by advertisement for two successive weeks, in a local paper circulating in the district in which the lands proposed to be improved are situate, and in the "London" or "Edinburgh Gazette," as the case may be, and two calendar months having elapsed from the publication of the last of such advertisements, issue their provisional certificate, to the effect that they will make the advance on being satisfied of the due execution of the work at a reasonable cost.

On receipt of the report of their Assistant Commissioner or engineer of such due execution in part or in whole, and in case of part only, of its being complete in itself, the Commissioners issue their certificate of advance, which operates as a first charge on the land.

The repayments of the advances are received by the Commissioners of Inland Revenue, in half-yearly payments, after the rate of 6*l.* 10*s.* per cent. per annum, commencing from the 6th April or 10th October next after the issue of each certificate of advance, including principal and interest, and terminating at the expiration of twenty-two years.

I should here state that the rule has been, with rare exceptions, to employ gentlemen resident near and acquainted with the localities in which drainage works have been executed, for the purpose of investigating the propriety and efficiency of their execution.

The Public Money Drainage Acts have been amended by the 10 Vict., cap. 11; the 11 and 12 Vict., cap. 119; the 19 Vict. cap. 9; and for the purpose of aiding *Scottish emigration*, by the Act of the 14 and 15 Vict., cap. 91.

The duties under these Acts will of course cease when the whole of the public loan has been expended.

Number of applications, 3,396.	£	s.	d.
Amount authorized * .....	4,796,096	12	8
Amount charged (31st December, 1861) .....	3,598,907	-	-

\* This figure exceeds the amount authorized by Parliament, by reason of portions of loans applied for and not expended being allowed to other applicants.

*Drainage—Scottish Emigration.*

	£	s.	d.
Amount authorized .....	15,544	17	10
„ advanced.....	5,249	11	-
„ written off .....	10,295	6	10
	15,544	17	10

(Nine applicants.)

*Drainage, Private Money.*

By the Act of the 12 and 13 Vict., cap. 100, the Inclosure Commissioners are authorized to issue grants of rent-charge, being a first charge on lands for the purpose of repaying with interest, money advanced by the owner of such lands or by other parties for drainage works executed thereon with the sanction of the Commissioners, the powers being in the main similar to those of the Public Money Drainage Acts.

These powers are capable of exercise at any future time.

Number of applications, 155.	£
Amount authorized .....	344,082
„ charged (31st December, 1861) .....	236,278

*Drainage and Improvement of Lands Companies Acts.*

Several Acts have been passed since the Public Money Drainage Act of 1846, empowering companies, with the sanction of the Inclosure Commissioners, to obtain charges upon lands for the purpose of drainage and improvement, the powers of the Commissioners being of the same nature, and exercised in the same manner as those vested in them by the Acts for the drainage of land by public and private loans.

The Commissioners may be called upon to exercise these powers at any time and have exercised them to the following extent:—

Date.	Number of Applicants.	Loans Authorized.			Amount Charged on Lands.		
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
31st December, 1861 ....	982	1,910,922	9	1	1,600,497	2	5

West of England Company .....	11 and 12	Vict., cap. 142.
General Land Drainage „ .....	12 „ 13	„ 91.
Lands Improvement „ .....	16 „ 17	„ 154.
„ „ .....	18 „ 19	„ 84.
„ „ .....	22 „ 23	„ 82.
Scottish Drainage „ .....	19 „ 20	„ 17.
„ „ .....	23 „ 24	„ 170.
Land, Loan, and Enfranchisement Company.....	23 „ 24	„ 169, 196



Number of Applicants.	Authorized.	Charged.
	£	£
3,396 Public loan .....	4,796,096	3,598,907
155 Private ,, .....	344,082	236,278
982 Companies Acts ...	1,910,922	1,600,497
Total .....	7,051,100	5,435,682

#### Tithe Commission.

By the Act of the 14th and 15th years of Her Majesty, cap. 53, (1851) the completion of the proceedings under the Tithe Commutation Acts, is combined with the duties of the Inclosure Commissioners.

At the time of the passing of this Act, the tithes of most of the parishes in England and Wales had been commuted; the powers of the Tithe Commissioners having commenced in 1836, but in consequence of the division of parcels of land subject to tithe rent charges, reapportionments of such charges are and will be continually required, and during the twelve months expiring the 31st day of December, 1861, the official register of letters and documents received in this department numbers 6,825.

#### Boundaries.

Under these Acts, the Commissioners have powers to set out boundaries of parishes, townships, lands of individual owners, and glebe lands.

The mode of proceeding being by local investigation, after due notice, with power for parties dissatisfied to appeal to the Court of Queen's Bench.

Number of boundary awards made, 170.

#### Exchange.

Also to exchange glebe lands for other lands in the parish within which the glebe is situate, or any adjoining parish with consent of the ordinary and patron of the benefice.

Number of exchanges made, 791.

There is also power to create an extraordinary charge per acre on hop grounds, and on market gardens in any parish or district of which the tithes have been commuted, wherever lands have been so applied since the period of commutation. And where no such extraordinary charge was created at the time of such commutation.

It is relevant to the subject of this paper that I should state the number of districts in which the tithes have been commuted under the powers of these Acts, to be 12,227, of which 6,778 have been by

agreement, and 5,449 by compulsory award; in all the latter class of cases the awards have been framed by Assistant Commissioners, acting in the district, and confirmed by the Board, a copy of the award having been previously deposited in the district for inspection.

The Acts relating to the tithe commutation are the following:—

6 and 7 Wm. IV, cap. 71.	5 and 6 Vict., cap. 54.
7 Wm. IV, and 1 Vict., cap. 69.	9 ,, 10 ,, 73.
1 and 2 Vict., cap. 64.	10 ,, 11 ,, 104.
2 ,, 3 ,, 62.	23 ,, 24 ,, 93.
3 ,, 4 ,, 15.	

Tithes.	Received prior to 1861.	Received during 1861.	Total Received.	Confirmed prior to 1861.	Confirmed during 1861.	Total Confirmed.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Agreements for commutation .....	7,070	—	7,070	6,778	—	6,778
Compulsory awards for commutation ....	5,646	1	5,647	5,445	4	5,449
Apportionments .....	11,785	1	11,786	11,777	1	11,778
Applications for altered apportionments .....	2,393	217	2,610	2,088	185	2,273
Applications for exchange of glebe lands .....	827	43	870	755	36	791
Application for redemption of rent charge .....	261	92	353	249	33	282
Mergers of tithes or rent charges .....	14,470	82	14,552	14,468	82	14,550
Application for boundary awards .....	170	2	172	170	—	170
Application for commutation of corn rent charges into an ordinary rent charge .....	—	6	6	—	—	—

Under the six heads last named, the Commissioners may be called upon to exercise their powers at any time; the powers under the last head are as yet only partially known to the public, the Empowering Act having been passed so lately as the year 1860.

#### Copyhold Enfranchisement.

By the Act of the 14th and 15th years of Her Majesty, cap. 53, the Copyhold Commission was consolidated with the inclosure commission.

The powers of the Copyhold Commissioners were originated in the year 1841, under the Act of the 4th and 5th years of Her Majesty, cap. 35, and have been extended by several Amendment Acts. Under these Acts the lord of the manor and his copyhold tenant may agree upon the terms of enfranchisement; and the lord or the tenant may compel an enfranchisement, subject to the provisions of the Acts.

It appears from the annexed table of enfranchisements and commutations effected since the commencement of the Commission, that during the first thirteen years of its existence the powers were not extensively called into action, the demand for their exercise has however, steadily increased from that time, which may be partly accounted for by the creation of compulsory powers for enfranchisement under the Amendment Acts of the 15th and 16th years of Her Majesty, cap. 51, and the 21st and 22nd years of Her Majesty, cap. 94. Until, in the year 1861, the number of documents confirmed during the year has arrived at:—

	Voluntary.	Compulsory.	Total.
	No.	No.	No.
	358	428	786
In addition to applications received during the year, and in progress .....	62	307	369
	420	735	1,155

It is manifest that the execution of these powers will be multiplied and extended over many years.

Under the Universities and College Estates Act, 1858, the Copyhold Commissioners have power to authorize sales, enfranchisements, purchases, exchanges, and mortgages, by these bodies. A power involving much additional responsibility to the Commissioners, and entailing additional labour on the office, the moneys received being paid into the Bank of England to a special account in each instance, and reinvested by the Commissioners, and the proceeds handed over to the parties entitled to the principal.

The Commissioners have authorized during the year ending 31st December, 1861,

Sales .....	21	} £	41,191
			683
Enfranchisements .....	4	} £	757
Purchases .....	15		41,121
		} £	118
Exchange .....	1 (no money paid)		—
Mortgages .....	2		1,925
			<u>85,795</u>

These powers are likely to be more extensively called into operation.

The receipts of letters and documents in the Copyhold and Universities Estates' department, have been, during the year 1861, 9,034.

The following Acts relate to this department:—

4 and 5 Vict., cap. 35	} Copyhold Acts.
6 „ 7 „ 23	
7 „ 8 „ 55	
15 „ 16 „ 51	
21 „ 22 „ 94	
21 „ 22 „ 44	Universities and College Estates Act.

Copyhold Enfranchisements and Commutations.

Year.	Number.	Consideration.		
		Payment in Full.	Rent Charges.	Land.
		£	£	A. R. P.
1841.....	1	8	—	—
'42.....	12	594	120	—
'43.....	29	4,815	17	—
'44.....	39	9,572	138	—
'45.....	56	10,651	763	—
1846.....	56	13,162	286	97 3 6
'47.....	52	12,158	474	—
'48.....	25	3,091	56	—
'49.....	30	3,929	144	—
'50.....	37	7,530	88	798 2 2
1851.....	64	22,723	273	—
'52.....	44	16,699	116	313 1 25
'53.....	58	15,299	157	—
'54.....	131	30,732	150	—
'55.....	220	44,874	166	13 1 15
1856.....	231	53,408	7	—
'57.....	303	55,879	50	—
'58.....	204	35,802	3	—
'59.....	371	41,582	378	114 1 26
'60.....	714	107,415	805	— 32
1861.....	786	74,186	341	41 2 32
Total .....	3,463	564,107	4,532	1,379 1 18

Drainage and Outfall Districts.

By the Act of the 24th and 25th years of Her Majesty, cap. 133, intituled an Act to amend the law relating to the drainage of land for agricultural purposes, the legislature have imposed considerable additional responsibility upon the Inclosure Commissioners.

The nation is much indebted to the learned gentleman, who has drawn this Act for a most valuable feature in legislative enactments, the classification of the clauses.

*Commissions of Sewers.*

By this Act the Inclosure Commissioners have power, on petition of the proprietors of one-tenth of the area proposed to be affected, to recommend to Her Majesty through the medium of one of Her Principal Secretaries of State, the issue of Commissions of Sewers for all parts of England, inland as well as maritime, (with a saving clause as to the consent of existing Commissioners of Sewers), and for such purpose, to make local inquiry by an Inspector as to the genuineness of the petition, and the propriety of the boundaries of the area proposed to be drained. The Inspector giving such notice of his meetings to be held in the district for prosecuting his inquiry as the Inclosure Commissioners shall direct. The Commissioners being required to dismiss the petition, in case the proprietors of one-third of the land comprised within the area signify their dissent within a time to be specified.

The legislature have not, in this instance, imposed upon the Inclosure Commissioners the duty of making any preliminary inquiry into the efficiency of the proposed works.

*Power to take Land.*

The Inclosure Commissioners may also, on petition, issue a provisional order empowering Commissioners of Sewers acting under this Act, to take land under the Lands Clauses Consolidation Act (8 and 9 Vict., cap. 18) and may inquire in the district by their Inspector as to the propriety of acceding to such petition, such order being subject to confirmation by the legislature, and the inquiry being made after such notice as the Inclosure Commissioners shall direct.

*Power to Mortgage Rates.*

The Inclosure Commissioners may sanction mortgage of rates to be repaid with interest, for a term not exceeding thirty years.

*Setting out Boundaries.*

Where under the powers of the Act, a watercourse is altered, so as to effect a boundary of any area defined by law, the same is to be reported to the Inclosure Commissioners, who may, by notice in the "London Gazette," define what shall be the boundary.

*Elective Drainage Districts.*

One-tenth of the proprietors of any area of land, requiring a combined system of drainage, warping, or irrigation may apply to the Commissioners to constitute such land into a separate elective drainage district, with a saving clause as to the consent of existing Commissioners of Sewers, Town Councils, Local Boards of Health,

or Improvement Commissioners. The inquiry being of the same nature, and conducted in the same manner, as in the case of an application for the issue of a Commission of Sewers by Her Majesty.

On the Inclosure Commissioners being satisfied of the propriety of the area, and of the consent of the proprietors of two-thirds thereof, they may issue their provisional order, and publish the same in the "London Gazette," and in some other newspaper circulating in the district, and copies are to be served on such persons and in such manner as the Inclosure Commissioners may require; this order, when confirmed by Parliament, completes the formation of an elective drainage district.

These powers having been created so lately as the last Session of Parliament, have as yet been very partially exercised. They cast great responsibility on the Inclosure Commissioners, but are not likely to entail any additional burthen on the Consolidated Fund.

*Number of Letters and Documents Received in the Year ending  
31st December, 1861.*

Inclosure and exchange .....	12,168
Drainage .....	10,368
Tithe.....	6,825
Copyhold and Universities estates .....	9,034
Total .....	38,395

Gentlemen desirous of more detailed information on the subjects of this paper will find it useful to refer to the works of Mr. Wingrove Cooke on "Inclosure and Exchange," Mr. Shelford on "Tithe Commutations," Mr. Scriven on "Copyhold," and Mr. Shelford on "the Law of Copyhold Enfranchisement."

The powers which have been vested by the legislature in the hands of the Inclosure Commissioners, I believe to be essentially facilitating powers,

True it is, that the Commission resides in the metropolis, from which centre issue all notices and directions within its authority. Let it not, therefore, be supposed that the powers of the Commissioners militate against the freedom of local action, or tend to limit the capacity of the poorest applicant in his endeavour to obtain the acknowledgment of his existing rights.

The real state of the case is far otherwise, as may be seen by reference to the requirements of the Inclosure Acts. That the investigation of the propriety of an application for an inclosure be held in the district from which the application emanates.

That the application be signed by persons representing one-third of the total interest.



That the provisional order, based on such investigation, be assented to by two-thirds of the total interest.

That the appointment of the valuer be made by a majority in number and value, in respect of interest of parties present at a meeting duly convened and held in the district for such purpose. The Commissioners having the power to appoint only in the case of a disagreement between the majority in number and value.

That the instructions to the valuer be approved by the parties interested under the same conditions as his appointment.

That the valuer's report and map be deposited, and the meeting for hearing objections thereto be held in the district.

And that all estimates of expenses be submitted to the parties interested.

The investigation of the propriety of the inclosure, and the examination of the valuer's report being required to be made by an officer of the Commission in the district, afford two opportunities for every individual interested to be heard in an open court, most conveniently situated, in the presence of his neighbours, having like interests with himself, under the presidency, in most cases, of a gentleman eminent for his legal knowledge, and in all, of one having special knowledge of the subjects of inquiry.

In all cases of exchange the Commissioners are careful to satisfy themselves that the valuer is competent, and not under the influence of either of the exchanging parties.

In deciding upon applications for drainage loans, the practice of the office is to obtain the opinion of inspectors acquainted with the district in which the loan is to be expended.

And every facility which can be given without exceeding the powers of the Acts is accorded to every applicant.

I endeavour to show as clearly as possible the system pursued by the Commissioners in the execution of their powers, for the purpose of explaining the cause of the great popularity the office has attained with those who have had occasion to apply for the exercise of its powers. This I do, not in the spirit of advocacy, for those require no advocate who are continually called upon to undertake additional labour and responsibility, but I do it in the sincere hope that my hearers will appreciate the principles upon which central powers can be authorized and exercised, and will perceive that the principle of centralization may be applied in a state without interfering with the free action of the subject, and that a central office may be so constituted and conducted as to avoid offending local views, and the feelings of individuals.

If my very humble effort produces any such impression, I shall have placed on the pages of your proceedings, the record of a

system of administration which may benefit my fellow-creatures, whether they be members of this nation, of her numerous and distant dependencies, or of other nations, with whom we may be in friendly and beneficial intercourse, for I shall have shown one mode by which the subjects of all nations may be led to look upon that very necessary institution "a Government," not as an oppressor and a foe, but as a benefactor and a friend.

*Estimates for Civil Services, 1862-3.*

No. 24.—The estimate for the expenses of the commission for the current year, amounts to .....	£ 19,800
The estimated repayments to the Exchequer on this account being at the least .....	3,700
Will reduce the probable charge upon the Exchequer to .....	16,100
„ 25.—There is also an estimate for inclosure and drainage impost expenses, amounting to .....	12,090

This charge upon the Exchequer is balanced by the annual repayments.

The repayments under this account entail great labour on the accountant's department, as they comprise the repayments of advances made on account of every application for an inclosure, an exchange, or a drainage advance.

The repayments under No. 24, include certain items of profit consisting of fees for inspections of official documents, and the difference between the payments to the officers of the establishment for extracts and tracings, and the amount charged to the public for such work, the profit of the last year amounts to 1,666*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.* This item has steadily increased from the sum of 392*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.*, in the year 1853, to its present amount, by reason of the public becoming better acquainted with the value of such documents, as the tithe apportionments and plans, for general reference in all dealings with real property, for the purpose of identity. The demands for such reference will multiply, I have no doubt, faster far than heretofore. The documents we possess do not comprise the entire area of the country, but it is not the object of this paper to enter at length into the subject of national survey, or of a doomsday book of the reign of Queen Victoria. It is, however, a subject of great satisfaction to me to be able to inform you that I have the promise of a paper from my friend Colonel Leach, on the subject of an entire and facile reference for the purposes of identity, which, I feel sure, will be more interesting, because more valuable, than anything which I can offer on these subjects.

## Inclosure Acts passed, and Average Price of Wheat from 1800 to 1861.

Years.	Number of Inclosure Bills passed.	Average Price of Wheat.		Years.	Number of Inclosure Bills passed.	Average Price of Wheat.	
		s.	d.			s.	d.
1800	63	110	5	1830	21	64	3
'01	80	115	11	'31	9	66	4
'02	122	67	9	'32	12	58	8
'03	96	57	1	'33	15	52	11
'04	104	60	5	'34	16	46	2
1805	52	87	1	1835	4	39	4
'06	71	76	9	'36	10	48	6
'07	76	73	1	'37	10	55	10
'08	91	78	11	'38	19	64	7
'09	92	94	5	'39	20	70	8
	847	82	2		136	56	9
1810	122	103	3	1840	14	66	4
'11	107	92	5	'41	22	64	4
'12	133	122	8	'42	11	57	3
'13	119	106	6	'43	11	50	1
'14	120	72	1	'44	8	51	3
1815	81	63	8	1845	4	50	10
'16	47	76	2	'46	22	54	8
'17	34	94	-	'47	21	69	9
'18	46	83	8	'48	61	50	6
'19	44	72	3	'49	40	44	3
	853	88	8		214	55	11
1820	40	65	10	1850	45	40	3
'21	25	54	5	'51	37	38	6
'22	13	43	3	'52	45	40	9
'23	9	51	9	'53	34	53	3
'24	12	62	-	'54	31	72	5
1825	24	66	6	1855	46	74	8
'26	20	56	11	'56	57	69	2
'27	22	56	9	'57	43	56	4
'28	16	60	5	'58	38	44	2
'29	24	66	3	'59	39	43	9
	205	58	5		415	53	4
				1860	25	53	3
				'61	50	55	4

Note.—The General Inclosure Act was passed in 1845, and the Corn Laws were repealed in 1846.

*On the PROGRESS and ECONOMICAL BEARINGS of NATIONAL DEBTS in this and other Countries.* By LEONE LEVI, Esq., F.S.A., F.S.S., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, Doctor of Economical and Political Sciences of the University of Tübingen, and Professor of the Principles and Practice of Commerce in King's College, London.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 18th February, 1862.]

In the survey of the financial condition of the United Kingdom which I had the honour to offer to the Society in former years, the important fact was deduced, that although taxes for ordinary purposes and of a limited amount are borne in this country with remarkable good-will and patience, whenever an extraordinary effort has been required, whether to meet the expenses of a war, to provide for an indemnity for the liberation of the slaves, or to meet the distress caused by the potato failure, a loan has invariably become necessary. And the reason is clear. When the nation has, by lengthened experience, discovered what portion of income must be annually set aside for State purposes, each individual's budget of income and expenditure is settled accordingly. When, however, a sudden emergency arises for which a much larger amount must at once be provided, the State has no alternative but to resort to temporary expedients for the purpose, till at least the nation has had time to accommodate itself to the additional sacrifices. Hence it is that loans are contracted. For the time they are indispensable, and no objection could be found to this method, provided it be clearly understood that such an arrangement is temporary and not permanent; and that in no case it is intended to allow the nation to shift the burden of their own acts to generations following. There is certainly something ennobling in the fact, that whenever national interests, national honour, or national independence are endangered, all regards for money immediately cease, and with no grudging thought, millions and millions are voted where thousands would on other occasions be rigidly economized. But the charm of such an act is completely lost, if the patriotic and liberal voters dispose of money which they and their constituents never mean to pay, or when at most they intend only to pay the annual interest. It is all important that the same individuals who order or sanction an excessive expenditure, should feel it incumbent on them to provide for it; that those for whose immediate or future benefit any great





tion to the amount of stock created of 586,697,493*l.* On an average 173*l.* stock was created for every 100*l.* money obtained, so that the country really received only 339,131,500*l.*, or 247,565,993*l.* less than it engaged to pay at the ordinary rate of interest.

Fortunately for a long time after that great struggle, with the exception of the short Russian war, we have had a lengthened period of peace, during the greater part of which the annual income has been generally sufficient to defray the national expenditure. We have, it is true, contracted a loan of 20,000,000*l.* for compensation to slave owners, a loan of 8,000,000*l.* for the Irish distress, and a loan of 16,000,000*l.* for the war with Russia, besides the sum raised by Exchequer bonds. Yet, with the assistance of the sinking fund, by which there was purchased as much as 39,000,000*l.* stock, and of donations and bequests, amounting to nigh 800,000*l.* we find the national debt now amounting to less than it was in 1820. The sums were as follows:—

## (C.)—Total of Funded and Unfunded Debt.

Years.	£
1820 .....	834,900,960
'30 .....	784,803,997
'40 .....	788,644,401
'50 .....	787,029,162
'61 (31st March) .....	801,808,609*

But the very great improvement in the economical condition of the people in this country renders the burden of the national debt much lighter than even the reduced sum is likely to indicate. Following the plan pursued in the papers on the revenue and expenditure, we shall now compare the debt at different periods during the present century with the population, wealth, and income of the country. First as compared with population—

## (D.)—British National Debt and Population.

Years.	Population.	Total Amount of Funded and Unfunded Debt.	Amount per Head.
		£	£ s.
1801 .....	16,000,000	517,511,871	32 10
'11 .....	18,000,000	678,200,436	37 10
'21 .....	21,000,000	827,984,498	39 10
1831 .....	24,000,000	782,716,684	32 10
'41 .....	27,000,000	792,209,685	29 10
'51 .....	27,500,000	782,869,382	28 10
'61 .....	29,000,000	801,808,609	27 10

\* This sum is exclusive of the debt of British India, which has in late years immensely augmented. The amount was in India (30th April, 1860) 86,258,521*l.*; in England (31st December, 1861) 36,000,277*l.*; total 126,258,798*l.*

As compared with the estimated wealth of the people the capital of the debt stood as follows:—

## (E.)—National Debt and National Wealth.

Years.	Estimated Wealth.	Total Funded and Unfunded Debt.	Percentage.
	£	£	
1801 .....	2,000,000,000	517,511,871	26
'41 .....	4,000,000,000	792,209,685	29
'61 .....	6,000,000,000	801,808,609	13½

If we now take the annual charge on the national debt and compare it with the population, national expenditure, and estimated income of the people, we have the following facts:—

## (F.)—As Compared with Population—

Years.	Population.	Interest of Debt.	Amount per Head.
		£	£ s.
1801 .....	16,000,000	19,819,839	1 5
'11 .....	18,000,000	15,484,765	— 17
'21 .....	21,000,000	31,105,319	1 9
1831 .....	24,000,000	28,329,986	1 3
'41 .....	27,000,000	29,462,030	1 1
'51 .....	27,500,000	27,907,068	1 —
'61 .....	29,000,000	26,176,275	— 17

## (G.)—As Compared with the National Expenditure:—

Years.	National Expenditure.	Interest of Debt.	Percentage.
	£	£	
1801 .....	61,000,000	19,819,839	32
'11 .....	84,000,000	15,484,765	18
'21 .....	56,000,000	31,105,319	55
1831 .....	46,000,000	28,329,986	60
'41 .....	53,000,000	29,462,030	54
'51 .....	49,000,000	27,907,068	57
'61 .....	66,000,000	26,176,275	36

## (H.)—And as Compared with the Estimated Income:—

Years.	Estimated Income.	Interest of Debt.	Percentage.
	£	£	
1801 .....	230,000,000	20,000,000	8½
'41 .....	450,000,000	29,500,000	6
'61 .....	600,000,000	26,000,000	4½

(I.)—As Compared with other Countries, our Debt stand as follows:—

British and Foreign.	National Debts.	Population.	Per Head.
	£		£ s.
Great Britain .....	800,000,000	29,000,000	17 11
Netherlands.....	90,000,000	3,500,000	25 14
France .....	380,000,000	39,500,000	9 12
Spain .....	108,000,000	14,500,000	7 8
Portugal .....	28,000,000	4,000,000	7 —
Austria .....	240,000,000	35,000,000	6 17
Denmark .....	12,000,000	2,500,000	4 16
Prussia.....	36,000,000	18,000,000	2 —
Russia .....	231,000,000	75,000,000	3 11
Sweden .....	1,700,000	3,700,000	} 1 9
Norway .....	1,500,000	1,500,000	

Gratifying as it is to find that the gigantic sum of 800,000,000*l.* debt is really becoming less and less burdensome to the population of this country, in consequence of its advance in number and prosperity, it is impossible not to feel considerable disappointment in finding that, notwithstanding the large expectations entertained at different times of paying off the national debt—the many schemes started for the purpose, and the anxiety so often expressed to have the enormous sum, if not totally extinguished at least sensibly diminished—the bulk of the debt remains intact, with no immediate hope of great curtailment. Whatever may be said as to the relative advantages of the plans proposed, it is quite clear that the resolution of 1829, to devote to the reduction of the national debt such an annual sum as shall appear to be the actual surplus revenue of the United Kingdom beyond the actual annual expenditure, has failed to fulfil the great object it had in view. The years of surplus have been but few and far between. It has been a mere accident that the Chancellor of the Exchequer has ever found himself so fortunate; and when it so happened, the pressure of bad taxes has been such, that the doors of the Treasury have been soon besieged by claimants for immediate relief. In 1819 it was attempted to maintain a sinking fund out of a fixed surplus of 5,000,000*l.* per annum, but it is quite clear that it would be idle to pass a law to maintain such or any surplus for years to come; first, because we know not what a day may bring forth—what wars or calamities may befall the nation; and secondly, because before such a surplus can be kept up the system of taxation must be perfected, by removing all noxious taxes, and equalizing the burden of taxation over all classes.

Supposing we are advancing towards that great desideratum, the best method for making an effective reduction of the debt would seem to be, to fix upon the percentage of national income to be devoted to

State purposes, and to maintain that amount of taxation in relation to the increase of that income, whatever be the savings which may be effected in the expenditure. Thus, in my paper on the distribution and productiveness of taxes, I have shown that the taxation of the country from 1800 to 1810 amounted to nigh 25 per cent. of the estimated income; that in 1841 it was reduced to 12 per cent., and in 1859 to 10 per cent. Supposing 12 per cent. of the income to be the basis of the public revenue; should the national resources continue to increase, we should have a revenue proportionally expanding so as to leave annually a greater amount of surplus to pay off the national debt; and should prosperity fail in any year we should not be called by any fictitious regulation to set aside anything. But a radical objection to this plan is,—first, that we have no absolute data for ascertaining the wealth of the country, and second, that we cannot calculate in maintaining a greater amount of taxes than are required for actual wants. The people will always try to relieve themselves from any unnecessary burden. There will always be a party advocating the enjoyment of present mercies, no matter how their grandchildren may fare at future times. And thus the surpluses gradually be reduced, and the debt will remain just as it was.

So it was with the sinking fund, upon which so much was built, and so many golden dreams indulged in. We need not stop in exposing its fallacies. It is quite evident, that if we have a surplus it is infinitely better to pay off at once a portion of the debt than to allow the money to grow in our own hands. The temptation must always be too great for the most ascetic of Chancellors of the Exchequer. Fancy, keeping millions and millions untouched whilst loud cries of dear bread and high taxes threaten the tranquillity of the State; it would be a moral impossibility. What is wanted is, to pass a law which shall render it obligatory on the nation to complete the great work; a law which shall not leave it optional on any year to return to a state of unconcern for this great public duty. And for this purpose the best is undoubtedly a conversion of all the debt from perpetual into terminable annuities of one hundred years, a plan which offers scarcely any inconvenience either to the nation or to the fundholders, a perpetuity of 1*l.* is now worth 33*½l.*, and an annuity for one hundred years 31·599*l.* As to the fundholders, inasmuch as if we would convert 800,000,000*l.* of 3 per cent. into one hundred years' annuities, we should have to give additional stock for the difference, amounting in all to 843,900,000*l.*, upon which the fundholders would continue to receive their 3 per cent. The increase of the stock would be about 5*l.* 5*s.* per cent., so that every possessor of 100*l.* consols, yielding him 3*l.* per annum, would find himself put in possession of 105*l.* 10*s.*, yielding him 3*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* As the income of the fundholders would somewhat increase, they would

have no reason to object; but how would it stand with the nation? The interest which the nation should have to pay upon the additional stock created would be 25,317,000*l.* instead of 24,000,000*l.*, besides the present terminable annuities. Thus, by an additional annual payment of 1,300,000*l.* the whole debt would be extinguishable in one hundred years.

Corporate and public bodies, trustees, and those who wish to make permanent provisions for any purpose whatever, may say, that a present addition, with a view to an ultimate extinction, is scarcely as convenient for their special purpose as a perpetuity; but they would soon learn to look for other securities for their investments. Are there not now many kinds of property, quite as safe and lucrative as the funds? The joint stock banks and savings' banks are open. So are debentures and railway stock. And if it be necessary for certain kinds of investments to have Parliamentary securities, surely there would be no difficulty in passing an Act, declaring some other kinds of property to be Parliamentary securities.

Should a sober consideration of the mode of paying off or reducing the national debt be considered an utopia? Should we be satisfied with the negative proposition that it does not prove practically burdensome? Is it satisfactory to have to provide, year after year, 27,000,000*l.*, nearly the half of the public revenue, in the fruitless object of keeping ever fresh the memory of past delinquencies? Would it not be worthy of a great nation like this, universally renowned for her boundless wealth, to inaugurate some bold measures upon this momentous question? What elasticity would we introduce in the finances of the Empire! How easy would it be to provide for the other wants of the State! The most sweeping reforms in the system of taxation could then be unhesitatingly introduced, and we would have plenty to spare for all kinds of objects, educational, religious, sanitary, and philanthropic. Glorious issue. Would that it were within our reach! But we are not only met by the cry of impossibility, but by illusions, prejudices, and absolute errors. It is said, for instance, that the national debt is beneficial, as it absorbs the surplus capital of the country. Is there any such surplus of unemployed capital? Are there not many new fields of industry which demand investments greater than can be provided for? Never were the channels of investment more open and promising than they are at present. Agriculture, manufactures, commerce, shipping, all promise the most profitable returns. But the most erroneous argument is, that money lent to and spent by the State is really not lost. With dividends so safe and sure at the Bank, what is the difference between a Government security and a bill of exchange? It is the same so far as the produce is concerned, but as regards the capital itself, it is widely different. And the difference is simply this, that

whilst money lent to private individuals is used for fruitful purposes, and employed for the further production of wealth, money lent to the State is literally lost, in so far, at least, as it is sent out for subsidies to other countries,—as it is spent in powder and shot,—as it is sunk in useless earthen works, or other purposes of war, whether at home or in a foreign State. Money so spent is abstracted from national wealth. It no longer exists. It is lost to the nation. Fortunately, the condition of public credit in this country has always been so good that the public creditor can scarcely admit that the property, apparently so sure, has in reality dwindled down to nothing. The British funds have always maintained their value. They can be depended upon. Except on such occasions as the Rebellion, the American War, and in the very height of the French War, the value of the 3 per cent. Consols has always been high. Observe the list of prices herein appended for the last thirty years. How steadily they have remained. But how different has been the course of foreign securities. What oscillations they have undergone. How often have capitalists sold out their property in such funds to invest it in the British.

And who can tell what may happen? Every nation of the world seems falling deeper and deeper into the vortex of financial difficulties. Money considerations seem to have fallen completely below national thought. Let glory or vanity suggest any enterprise, however useless or extravagant, and money is sure to be found. It is indeed lamentable to contemplate the fearful rate at which the national debts of many countries have augmented within the last few years. Peace or war seems to make no difference. Without any regard to reduce their expenditure to the level of their revenue, they have proceeded with culpable recklessness to add year after year millions and millions to their permanent indebtedness. What was once used to be considered as an expedient, resorted to only at time of extreme necessity, is now becoming a normal condition, a natural method of replenishing the public purse. The following review of the debts of the principal countries is indeed far from reassuring. We shall commence with our nearest neighbour.

*France.*

In the remarkable episode of French finance we have recently witnessed, M. Fould detailed the state of things in the following explicit terms in his letter to the Emperor:—"In studying the financial question it is easy to foresee that unless there is a change of system, we shall soon find ourselves in the most serious embarrassment. The eight years that have elapsed between 1851 and 1858 opened 2,400,000,000 f. (96,000,000*l.*) of extraordinary credits. If we add to this amount 400,000,000 f. (16,000,000*l.*)



“for the last three years 1859, 1860, 1861, it will be seen how the public debt and the deficit in the Treasury have increased. To satisfy these outlays recourse was had to credit in every shape and with the consent of the public authorities, the resources of special establishments under the direction of the State, have been turned into account. The loans in Rentes negotiated in 1854, 1855, and 1859, amount to no less than two milliards (80,000,000*l.*). On the renewal of the bank's privilege, the Treasury absorbed an augmentation of capital of 100,000,000 *f.* (4,000,000*l.*) imposed upon that establishment. The army dotation fund which had received 135,000,000 *f.*, (5,400,000*l.*) had all its funds absorbed by the Treasury, which gave it bills on the *Grand-livre* instead. Finally, recourse was had to a new species of loan called obligations *tren-tairès* of which this year, 132,000,000*f.* (5,280,000*l.*) were issued.” The result of this timely warning was that the Emperor, deemed it necessary to renounce the right of granting extraordinary credits, and a law has been made accordingly; but has not the same power, who renounced such sovereign prerogative power also to resume it? The early history of the public debt of France well deserves to be carefully studied.

As early as the reign of Louis XIV, the debt amounted to 3,000,000,000 *f.* or 120,000,000*l.* A national bankruptcy was then fully anticipated, and St. Simon did not scruple to make a formal proposal to that effect, though he was not seconded by the Prince Regent. The interest was, however, reduced to 4 per cent., and a commission was instituted to inquire into the state of the debts, and into the claims of the creditors. After this epoch, the celebrated Law deluded the government and the public with his schemes for the creation of paper money and banking which put the finances of France in a perfect chaos. In 1721, by a series of measures both violent and arbitrary, the debt was reduced by half. After this again, the debt rose considerably; and in 1764 the Comptroller General-de-Laverdy, so reduced the capital of the debt as to cause a new bankruptcy. In 1784 a sinking fund was established, but it was soon after suppressed by De Brienne. During the convention and the revolutionary periods, the famous assignats and all kinds of government papers were issued of fabulous amounts and utterly worthless. But when in 1798 Napoleon introduced a proper system of finances, he did not recognize the debt incurred during the Revolution. All perpetual and life annuities, old and new, were changed for two-thirds of the amount in notes called *Debtè publique mobilisée*, and one-third was entered in the *Grand-livre* under the title of *Tiers consolidée*. The two-thirds exchangeable only in national property soon lost all value, and the third became the origin of the present national debt of France.

Within the last ten years since the accession of the present Emperor, whose motto was to be “*L'Empirè c'est la paix*,” the national debt of France has increased from 200,000,000*l.* to 360,000,000*l.*, as follows:—

(K.)—*Progress of French Debt.*

	Fixed and Floating.
	£
1850.....	201,000,000
'51-53 .....	240,000,000
'54-55 .....	274,000,000
'56.....	337,000,000
'57.....	352,000,000
'58.....	376,000,000
'59.....	372,000,000
'60.....	380,000,000

Previous to the recent conversion, the French funds consisted of 154,000,000*l.*, 4½ per cent.; 2,000,000*l.*, 4 per cent.; and 188,000,000*l.* of 3 per cent., besides the floating debt. It was proposed to convert the 4½ per cent. Stock into 3 per cent., and for the benefit of obtaining Rentes at a rate of interest guaranteed against any reduction in exchange for the 4½ per cent. Securities, subject to reduction, the government demanded a compensation of 6 *f.* for each 4.53 *f.* Rente.

The operation of the contemplated conversion was described as follows, in the report presented by M. Goudin:—

“First, for the fundholder willing to convert; what will be his new position in comparison with that which he abandons? He now possesses a 4½ Stock, subject to the right of reimbursement at 100 *f.* at par, which the government may exercise whenever it thinks fit. That stock, kept down by that perspective, participates in no way in the elasticity of public credit, and its proprietor will be always on the eve of seeing his position deteriorated, especially in presence of that normal result, demonstrated by experience, to which fixed capital is subjected—the gradual diminution of its primitive value. In exchange for that title of Rente constituted at the nominal capital of 100, and producing 4 *f.* 50 *c.* annual interest paid half-yearly, the government offers him a new title, also producing 4 *f.* 50 *c.* of interest, and representing a nominal capital of 150 *f.*, since that title will represent 4 *f.* 50 *c.* of a 3 per cent. Stock, instead of 4 *f.* 50 *c.* of a 4½ per cent. Stock. The interest will be paid quarterly, and the fear of a reduction in the income will entirely disappear, it being impossible for the government to obtain a reduction, otherwise than in offering the integral reimbursement of the nominal capital—that is, 100 *f.* for every 3 per cent. interest. It is true, that the bill imposes on the fundholder, in case of conversion, the obligation of paying to the Treasury an addition, which will be in reality the price of the renunciation on the part

“of the government of the exercise of its right to reimburse. What will be the amount of that addition? Therein lies all the question.”

Having, then, by a series of calculations, fixed this addition at 6f. for each 4f. 50c. of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Stock, that is, compelling the holder of an inscription of 4,500 f. of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., in receiving an equivalent sum of 4,500 f. of 3 per cent., to pay to the Treasury 6,000 f. M. Goudin proceeded to show what will be the consequences of such operation on the Treasury as follows:—

“The Rente to be converted is composed of 173,405,534 f. of the  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per Cents., and 2,335,652 f. of the 4 per Cents.; together, 175,741,186 f. Of that sum, public establishments and institutions possess 35,630,059 f. of the  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and 838,014 f. of the 4 per cent.; together, 36,468,073 f., which reduces the amount in the hands of private holders to 149,273,123 f. If this latter sum were integrally converted (representing 33,171 inscriptions of 4,500 f.) the addition of 6f. for each 4f. 50c. interest, or of 6,000 f. for each 4,500 f. of Rente, would produce to the Treasury a payment of 199,000,000 f. That amount will vary according to the success of the operation; but we believe we shall not be far from the reality in stating that it will procure a resource to the Treasury of about 150,000,000 f., which will lighten the floating debt to that amount without adding fresh permanent charges to the public debt. It will also be for future budgets an annual economy of about 7,000,000 f. However favourable that solution may be, it is not, in our opinion, the most important motive for deciding on the adoption of the bill. The adoption is above all recommended for the assistance which it will give to the elevation of our credit. That elevation is at present forcibly kept down by the composition of our present public debt, which, in a total of 320,000,000 f. (in this sum are not included the Rentes redeemed and possessed by the sinking fund, amounting to more than 39,000,000 f.) offers an amount of 175,000,000 f. of Rente completely removed from the influence of credit, and which has a prejudicial effect on the 3 per Cents. The unification of our debt is the principal aim of the bill. No one thinks of disputing the advantages of that unification at the point of view of the improvement of our credit and we cannot, too earnestly support the government in its efforts to that end; but, besides the elevation of our public credit, it is impossible not to take into account the immediate saving that this proposed operation will procure. That saving, susceptible to be increased to 10,000,000 f., will, were it only to amount to 7,000,000 f. or 8,000,000 f. be of great importance by reason of its immediate realization.”

On the 12th February a decree was passed fixing the addition at

5f. 4c. for 4f. 50c. of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Rentes, and 1f. 2c. for 4f. 4 per Cents.

*United States of America.*

We shall now pass from France to the United States of America, and in doing so, it is well becoming to give due credit to that government for the regard which they have always shown to the sacredness of their obligations. We have scarcely any other example of a country twice paying off the entire of her public debt. The debt contracted in the struggle for achieving their independence was all paid. The debt accrued from the war with this country in 1812 was also all paid in 1835.

Much has been said of the few States which have repudiated their local debts, but we would do well to inquire into each individual case before we utter sweeping condemnations, and, at any rate, it is unjust to blame the Government of the United States for the misdeeds of a few of its provinces.

Before the present rebellion, the debt of the United States amounted to 17,000,000*l.*, but even that was in course of extinction, as will be seen from the following table:—

(*L.*)—*Debt of the United States.*

	£
1852 .....	13,569,102
'53 .....	11,736,699
'54 .....	9,369,887
'55 .....	8,327,027
'56 .....	6,450,814
1857 .....	5,242,740
'58 .....	9,356,412
'59 .....	12,300,000
'60 .....	15,100,000
'61 .....	17,000,000

Since then, however, the debt of the United States of America has assumed a sudden and gigantic expansion. The secession of the Southern States from the Union, constituting themselves into a separate Union, under the name of the Confederate States of America, has been sternly opposed by the Congress, and a fierce war has since raged between the parties. To defray the charges of this war, both parties have issued inconvertible notes to a large amount. It is estimated that the debt of the United States, in June, 1862, is not short of 300,000,000*l.*; but no statistical data exists as yet as regards the debt of either the United or Confederate States of America.

Yet their resources are great, and the rate of increase has hitherto been wonderful, as will be seen from the value of real au.

personal estate in the United States derived from the seventh census in 1850, and the eighth census in 1860.

(M.)—*Wealth and Resources of United States.*

States.	In 1850.	In 1860.	Increase.	Increase per Cent. for Ten Years.
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Alabama .....	228,204,332	495,237,078	267,032,746	117·01
Arkansas .....	39,841,025	219,256,473	179,415,448	450·32
California* .....	22,161,872	207,874,633	185,712,761	837·98
Connecticut.....	155,707,980	444,274,114	288,566,134	185·32
Delaware.....	21,062,556	46,242,181	25,179,625	119·54
Florida .....	22,862,270	73,101,500	50,239,230	219·74
Georgia .....	335,125,714	645,895,237	310,469,523	92·56
Illinois.....	156,265,006	871,860,282	715,595,276	457·93
Indiana .....	202,650,264	528,835,371	326,185,107	160·95
Iowa .....	23,714,638	247,338,265	223,623,627	942·97
Kansas.....	—	31,327,895	—	—
Kentucky .....	301,628,456	666,043,112	364,414,656	120·81
Louisiana.....	233,998,764	602,118,568	368,119,804	157·30
Maine .....	122,777,571	190,211,600	67,434,029	54·92
Maryland .....	219,217,364	376,919,944	157,702,580	71·93
Massachusetts.....	573,342,286	815,237,433	241,895,147	42·19
Michigan .....	59,787,255	257,163,983	197,376,728	330·13
Minnesota .....	Not returned in full	52,294,413	—	—
Mississippi .....	228,951,130	607,324,911	378,373,781	165·26
Missouri .....	137,247,707	501,214,398	363,966,691	265·18
New Hampshire .....	103,652,835	156,310,860	52,658,025	50·80
New Jersey † .....	200,000,000	467,918,324	267,918,324	133·95
New York .....	1,080,309,216	1,843,388,517	763,029,301	70·63
North Carolina .....	226,800,472	358,739,399	131,938,927	58·17
Ohio .....	504,726,120	1,193,898,422	689,172,302	136·54
Oregon .....	5,063,474	28,930,637	23,867,163	474·35
Pennsylvania .....	722,486,120	1,416,501,818	694,015,698	96·05
Rhode Island .....	80,508,794	135,337,588	54,828,794	68·10
South Carolina .....	288,257,694	548,138,754	259,881,060	90·15
Tennessee .....	201,246,686	493,903,892	292,657,206	145·42
Texas .....	52,740,473	365,200,614	312,460,141	592·44
Vermont .....	92,205,049	122,477,170	30,272,121	32·83
Virginia .....	430,701,082	793,249,681	362,548,599	84·17
Wisconsin .....	42,056,595	273,671,668	231,615,073	550·72
District of Columbia	14,018,874	41,084,945	27,066,071	193·06
Nebraska.....	—	9,131,056	—	—
New Mexico .....	5,174,470	20,813,768	15,639,298	302·24
Utah .....	986,083	5,596,118	4,610,035	467·50
Washington, T. ....	—	5,601,466	—	—
Total .....	7,135,780,227	16,159,616,068	9,023,835,841	126·45

\* Only 13 counties in California have been returned thus far.

† In New Jersey, as the real estate only was returned, the figures above are partly estimated.

*Italy.*

Italy has entered the family of States laden with a heavy debt. What was the cost of the late war of independence we scarcely know, but on the 1st January, 1861, the debt amounted to 90,000,000*l*. The resources of Italy are, however, as yet quite undeveloped. With permanency of political institutions, with perfect security for the investment of capital, with freedom of locomotion, with impartial and prompt administration of justice, with an equilibrium of revenue and expenditure, and with civil and religious liberty, secured by public law and by the unanimous sanction of an enlightened people,—Italy may yet achieve for herself a political greatness second to none amongst the powers of Europe; and the debts of the separate States which have been recently consolidated, will, we trust, prove light and unoppressive.

*Austria.*

The financial condition of Austria has been ruinous in the extreme, for a long series of years.

The progress of the Austrian debt has been as follows:—

(N.)—*Progress of Austrian Debt.*

Years.	Total Debt.	Reduced into Stock by Reduction of from 5 to 2½ per Cent.	Bank Notes and other Securities in Circulation.	Interest.
	£	£	£	£
1811 .....	80,668,000	72,664,000	21,000,000	770,000
'21 .....	101,051,786	88,830,730	33,000,000	2,600,000
'91 .....	112,415,941	100,282,028	50,000,000	3,400,000
1841 .....	115,745,042	105,306,991	12,000,000	4,200,000
'51 .....	168,983,369	155,551,700	721,000	5,000,000
'60 .....	251,000,000	239,000,000	—	11,000,000

*Prussia.*

The debt of Prussia also has increased as follows in the last decennium:—



## (O.)—Progress of Prussian Debt.

Years.	Capital.	Interest.
	£	£
1850.....	23,400,000	733,000
'51.....	27,400,000	914,000
'52.....	28,400,000	900,000
'53.....	33,000,000	1,077,000
'54.....	32,700,000	1,070,000
1855.....	34,000,000	1,100,000
'56.....	37,000,000	1,901,000
'57.....	38,000,000	2,000,000
'58.....	37,000,000	2,200,000
'59.....	41,000,000	2,200,000
1860.....	42,000,000	2,300,000
'61.....	42,000,000	2,300,000

*Russia.*

And the following has been the progress of the debt of Russia, funded and unfunded:—

## (P.)—Progress of Russian Debt.

1853 .....	£ 125,000,000
'54 .....	132,000,000
'55 .....	119,000,000
'56 .....	165,000,000
1857 .....	206,500,000
'58 .....	240,000,000
'59 .....	231,000,000

*Mexico.*

Mexico is now bearing the penalty of having worn out the patience of her creditors. The debt in 1856 amounted to—

Internal debt.....	£ 16,000,000
Foreign „ .....	11,000,000
Not regulated .....	1,000,000
	<u>28,000,000</u>

*Turkey.*

Turkey has entered the number of indebted nations. Her debt in 1861 consisted of—

Interior debt.....	£ 18,312,000
Foreign „ .....	14,537,220
	<u>32,849,220</u>

Greece has done little or nothing to pay either interest or capital of the debt guaranteed by the three powers.

There are only two favoured countries exempt from national debt in the whole range of civilized nations, whose finances and political status are recognized in the "Almanack de Gotha," one of these an ancient and happy republic in the centre of Europe—free Switzerland; another, a young and yet unknown republic in the centre of South America—Paraguay. They offer a noble example to the civilized world, which we would fain hope, notwithstanding all the prospects to the contrary, may be yet followed. Let us ever remember, that for ordinary wants, every State is able to provide the necessary funds out of the ordinary national resources; and that loans are too often obtained in order the better to crush the rights and liberties of peoples. Nothing, for instance, would be more likely to encourage the continuance of the unhappy conflict in America than a willingness on the part of our capitalists to lend their funds to either party. Let them feel the impossibility of prolonging the contest, and we shall be spared to see the continuation of the mutual slaughter and devastation which now convert the fruitful fields of North America into a scene of blood and destruction. A serious moral obligation rests on our capitalists in this important matter, which it is well they should remember. Mr. Cobden forcibly urged it upon them when an Austrian loan was in the market; "Happily," he said, "by the ordinance of Divine Providence, war is in its nature self-destroying; and if a country engaged in hostilities were left to itself, war must have a speedy termination. But this system of foreign loans for war-like purposes, by which we are invited to pay for the arms, clothing, and food, of the belligerents, is a system calculated almost to perpetuate the horrors of war; and they who lend money for these purposes, are destitute of any one excuse by which men try to justify to their own consciences the resort to the sword. They cannot plead patriotism, self-defence, or even anger, or the lust of military glory. No! but they sit down early to calculate the chances to themselves of profit and loss, in a game in which the lives of human beings are at stake. They have not even the pleasure—the savage and brutal gratification which ancient and pagan people had, when they paid for a seat in the amphitheatre to witness the bloody combats of gladiators in the arena. It should be borne in mind by capitalists everywhere, that there are times when it behoves them to remember that property has its duties as well as its rights, and that they who forget their duties are running the risk of endangering their rights."

As to the national debt of this country, whatever be the difficulty that may present itself in connection with any scheme for paying it

off, it is well to impress on the nation the duty to form a fixed determination to make such sacrifices for the purpose as are compatible with public prosperity, and that if we will avert future loans, we must endeavour to keep down the military expenditure now really out of all reason excessive. With the continuous progress for wealth, and with further improvements in the methods of taxation, we shall find it is true, that the national debt will become less and less burdensome; yet having regard to the undoubted fact that it stands in the way of a sound financial and economical legislation, it is incumbent on us to enter vigorously in some well-digested plan which may give us the certain, though distant, hope of a speedy extinction of the British national debt.

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APPENDIX.

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(Q.)—*Funded Debt of the United Kingdom, 31st March, 1861.*

GREAT BRITAIN.		£
New Annuities, 2½ per cent. ....		2,965,980
Exchequer Bonds .....		418,300
Debt due to the Bank of England, 3 per cent. ....		11,015,100
Consolidated Annuities .....		400,363,108
Reduced " .....		114,661,163
New Annuities .....		213,072,181
" at 3½ per cent. ....		240,746
" 5 " .....		430,604
<b>Total, Great Britain .....</b>		<b>743,167,182</b>

IRELAND.		
New Annuities, 2½ per cent. ....		3,080
Consolidated " 3 " .....		6,261,494
Reduced " .....		125,645
New " .....		32,929,439
Debt due to the Bank of England, 3½ per cent. ....		2,630,769
New Annuities .....		2,000
<b>Total, Ireland .....</b>		<b>41,952,427</b>
		<b>785,119,609</b>

(R.)—*Unfunded Debt, 31st March, 1861.*

	£
Exchequer Bills .....	13,089,000
" Bonds .....	3,600,000

(S.)—*Estimated Capital of Terminable Annuities to 31st March, 1860.*

GREAT BRITAIN.		£
Terminable Annuities .....		10,318,211
Annuities for terms of years .....		780,652
" expiring 5th April, 1867 .....		3,608,744
" " 1885 .....		1,922,190
Tontines, English .....		118,693
" Irish, payable on hand .....		115,969
		16,864,459
<b>IRELAND.</b>		
Tontine, payable in Ireland .....		24,551
		16,889,010
		<b>z 2</b>

## (T.)—Total Debt.

	£
Estimated capital, Terminable Annuities .....	16,889,010
Exchequer Bills .....	13,089,000
„ Bonds .....	3,600,000
Permanent funded debt .....	785,119,609
	818,697,619

## (U.)—Charges.

	£
Annual interest of unredeemed debt, Great Britain .....	22,288,956
„ „ „ Ireland .....	1,265,174
Annuities, per Geo. IV, cap. 22, expire 5th April, 1867 .....	585,740
„ 18 Vict., cap. 18, and 22 and 23 Vict., cap. 109, } expire 5th April, 1885 .....	128,760
„ for a limited term of years, per 59 Geo. III, cap. 34, } 10 Geo. IV, cap. 24, and 3 Will. IV, cap. 14, } expire at various periods .....	77,492
Life Annuities, per 48 Geo. III, cap. 142, 10 Geo. IV, cap. 24, } 3 Will. IV, cap. 14, and 16 and 17 Vict., cap. } 45 .....	1,032,959
Tontine and Life Annuities, per various Acts, English .....	12,211
„ „ „ Irish .....	23,311
Management .....	76,790
	25,491,393

## Charge on Unfunded Debt.

	£
Interest due to the same date on Exchequer Bills .....	143,541
„ „ „ Bonds .....	40,315

## (V.)—Cost of Management of Debt for the Year ending 31st March, 1860.

	£	£	£
To the Bank of England, on 600,000,000 at 340 per million .....			201,000
„ „ „ 136,278,362 „ 300 „ .....			40,883
	736,278,362	including estimated capital of terminable annuities, payable at the Bank of England, calculated for management only, at 25 years' purchase.	244,883
Deduct payments to Government by the Bank .....			188,078
Balance of charge for total debt .....			56,805
„ for capital purchased of the South Sea Company .....			1,579
„ „ „ Bank, original capital .....			4,000
Total charge paid to Bank of England .....			62,384
Expenses of National Debt Office for payment of interest on annuities .....			14,763
			77,147

## (W.)—Number of Persons entitled to Dividends on the First Dividend Day, 1860.

	Not Exceeding					
	£5.	£10.	£50.	£100.	£200.	£300.
3 per Cent. Consol Annuities .....	45,789	19,831	43,047	11,740	7,163	2,058
New 5 per Cent. Annuities .....	33	24	123	30	16	2
„ 3½ „ 1854 .....	24	13	37	8	8	3
„ 2½ „ .....	160	103	273	83	46	19
Annuities for term of years .....	451	329	898	156	62	19
Consolidated Long Annuities } ¼ payments .....	3,334	1,695	2,391	283	120	50
India 5 per Cent. Stock .....	552	280	1,249	195	134	43
3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities .....	12,390	5,195	11,797	3,361	1,870	532
New 3 per Cent. Annuities .....	31,285	16,002	26,294	6,553	3,313	908
Annuities for 30 years .....	483	303	553	80	43	9
„ term of years .....	59	70	147	27	12	3
	94,560	43,845	86,808	22,516	12,787	3,646

	Not Exceeding			Exceeding	Total.
	£500.	£1,000.	£2,000.	£2,000.	
3 per Cent. Consol Annuities .....	1,430	644	192	96	131,990
New 5 per Cent. Annuities .....	5	—	—	—	233
„ 3½ „ 1854 .....	2	—	—	—	95
„ 2½ „ .....	7	2	4	1	698
Annuities for term of years .....	18	18	8	15	1,974
Consolidated Long Annuities } ¼ payments .....	20	15	5	18	7,931
India 5 per Cent. Stock .....	16	8	4	5	2,486
3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities .....	307	147	62	34	35,695
New 3 per Cent. Annuities .....	607	253	83	36	85,334
Annuities for 30 years .....	4	3	3	3	1,484
„ term of years .....	1	1	—	2	322
	2,417	1,091	361	210	268,242

## (X.)—Comparative Amount of National Debts of the principal Countries.

	£		£
Great Britain .....	800,000,000	Denmark .....	13,000,000
France .....	381,000,000	Saxony .....	9,500,000
Austria .....	239,000,000	Greece .....	8,000,000
Russia .....	231,000,000	Hanover .....	7,000,000
Spain .....	108,000,000	Baden .....	7,000,000
Holland .....	91,000,000	Saxony .....	6,000,000
Italy .....	90,000,000	Wurtemberg .....	5,000,000
Prussia .....	42,000,000	Hamburg .....	4,600,000
Turkey .....	33,000,000	Mexico .....	3,000,000
Belgium .....	29,000,000	Equator .....	2,700,000
Portugal .....	28,000,000	Argentine Republic (for ign) .....	2,400,000
Bavaria .....	19,000,000	Brunswick .....	1,500,000



## (Y.)—Percentage Relation of Interest and Debt to Public Expenditure in the principal Countries.

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Netherlands .....	41·7	Greece .....	18·3
Great Britain.....	39·4	Russia .....	18·0
Portugal.....	28·6	Spain .....	15·5
France .....	27·1	Turkey .....	14·6
Austria .....	25·7	Italy .....	14·0
Denmark .....	25·6	Prussia .....	10·8
Belgium.....	20·9	Sweden .....	10·1
Germany .....	19·2		

(From the "Almanack de Gotha" for 1862.)

## (Z.)—Progress of British National Debt.

Year.	Capital.	Average.	Interest.	Average.
	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
1691 .....	3,13	—	,23	—
'92 .....	3,31	—	,23	—
'93 .....	5,90	—	,50	—
'94 .....	6,73	—	,81	—
'95 .....	8,43	—	,88	—
'96 .....	11,57	—	1,08	—
'97 .....	14,52	—	1,32	—
'98 .....	15,44	—	1,46	—
'99 .....	13,79	—	1,42	—
1700 .....	12,60	9,54	1,25	,92
1701 .....	12,55	—	1,21	—
'02 .....	12,76	—	1,21	—
'03 .....	12,32	—	1,15	—
'04 .....	12,36	—	1,23	—
'05 .....	12,13	—	1,21	—
'06 .....	12,38	—	1,44	—
'07 .....	15,24	—	1,59	—
'08 .....	15,51	—	1,72	—
'09 .....	18,93	—	1,92	—
'10 .....	21,33	14,55	2,06	1,47
1711 .....	22,39	—	2,27	—
'12 .....	34,92	—	3,03	—
'13 .....	34,69	—	3,00	—
'14 .....	36,17	—	3,06	—
'15 .....	37,42	—	3,11	—
'16 .....	37,91	—	3,16	—
'17 .....	40,30	—	3,14	—
'18 .....	40,37	—	2,96	—
'19 .....	41,87	—	2,82	—
'20 .....	53,97	38,00	2,84	2,94
1721 .....	54,40	—	2,85	—
'22 .....	54,20	—	2,80	—
'23 .....	52,99	—	2,72	—
'24 .....	53,32	—	2,72	—
'25 .....	52,23	—	2,71	—
'26 .....	52,85	—	2,73	—
'27 .....	52,52	—	2,36	—
'28 .....	51,96	—	2,30	—
'29 .....	51,54	—	2,29	—
'30 .....	50,83	61,68	2,22	2,57

## (Z.)—Progress of British National Debt—Contd.

Year.	Capital.	Average.	Interest.	Average.
	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
1731 .....	50,73	—	2,21	—
'32 .....	49,83	—	2,18	—
'33 .....	48,72	—	2,15	—
'34 .....	48,82	—	2,13	—
'35 .....	48,94	—	2,14	—
'36 .....	50,42	—	2,10	—
'37 .....	47,23	—	2,05	—
'38 .....	46,49	—	2,02	—
'39 .....	46,61	—	2,03	—
'40 .....	47,12	48,49	2,05	2,11
1741 .....	48,38	—	2,09	—
'42 .....	51,84	—	2,15	—
'43 .....	53,20	—	2,18	—
'44 .....	56,74	—	2,29	—
'45 .....	59,71	—	2,42	—
'46 .....	64,61	—	2,65	—
'47 .....	69,11	—	2,88	—
'48 .....	75,81	—	3,16	—
'49 .....	77,48	—	3,20	—
'50 .....	76,85	63,37	2,78	2,58
1751 .....	77,19	—	2,76	—
'52 .....	76,43	—	2,73	—
'53 .....	75,03	—	2,69	—
'54 .....	72,12	—	2,64	—
'55 .....	72,50	—	2,65	—
'56 .....	74,57	—	2,75	—
'57 .....	77,82	—	2,73	—
'58 .....	83,12	—	2,91	—
'59 .....	91,27	—	3,10	—
'60 .....	102,01	80,21	3,57	2,86
1761 .....	114,29	—	4,14	—
'62 .....	126,79	—	4,74	—
'63 .....	132,71	—	5,03	—
'64 .....	133,28	—	5,00	—
'65 .....	131,81	—	4,02	—
'66 .....	131,63	—	4,88	—
'67 .....	132,11	—	4,87	—
'68 .....	132,58	—	4,87	—
'69 .....	130,31	—	4,78	—
'70 .....	129,19	129,57	4,71	4,71
1771 .....	128,98	—	4,73	—
'72 .....	128,03	—	4,70	—
'73 .....	128,87	—	4,74	—
'74 .....	127,16	—	4,69	—
'75 .....	126,84	—	4,70	—
'76 .....	131,23	—	4,87	—
'77 .....	136,77	—	5,11	—
'78 .....	143,05	—	5,48	—
'79 .....	153,57	—	6,10	—
'80 .....	167,46	137,19	6,93	5,20

## (Z.)—Progress of British National Debt—Contd.

Year.	Capital.	Average.	Interest.	Average.
	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
1781 .....	189,25	—	7,45	—
'82 .....	214,72	—	8,41	—
'83 .....	231,84	—	9,06	—
'84 .....	243,06	—	9,54	—
'85 .....	245,58	—	9,67	—
'86 .....	245,46	—	9,66	—
'87 .....	244,27	—	9,59	—
'88 .....	243,63	—	9,57	—
'89 .....	242,75	—	9,56	—
'90 .....	242,46	234,30	9,58	9,21
1791 .....	241,67	—	9,51	—
'92 .....	239,66	—	9,43	—
'93 .....	247,87	—	9,71	—
'94 .....	263,30	—	10,39	—
'95 .....	321,46	—	12,69	—
'96 .....	363,89	—	14,76	—
'97 .....	388,91	—	15,57	—
'98 .....	427,52	—	16,88	—
'99 .....	442,32	—	17,56	—
1800 .....	470,89	340,72	18,58	13,51
1801 .....	517,51	—	19,81	—
'02 .....	537,65	—	20,26	—
'03 .....	547,73	—	20,81	—
'04 .....	571,13	—	21,65	—
'05 .....	599,86	—	22,56	—
'06 .....	621,09	—	23,19	—
'07 .....	633,80	—	23,37	—
'08 .....	643,54	—	23,59	—
'09 .....	654,46	—	24,29	—
'10 .....	662,19	598,89	24,55	22,41
1811 .....	678,20	—	25,48	—
'12 .....	706,25	—	26,85	—
'13 .....	788,09	—	29,89	—
'14 .....	813,14	—	31,10	—
'15 .....	861,03	—	32,64	—
'16 .....	845,96	—	32,05	—
'17 .....	839,38	—	31,59	—
'18 .....	840,58	—	31,48	—
'19 .....	836,53	—	31,16	—
'20 .....	834,90	804,40	31,35	30,36
1821 .....	827,98	—	31,10	—
'22 .....	835,20	—	29,72	—
'23 .....	827,48	—	30,14	—
'24 .....	819,02	—	29,17	—
'25 .....	809,83	—	28,98	—
'26 .....	808,82	—	29,41	—
'27 .....	805,09	—	29,32	—
'28 .....	800,03	—	29,16	—
'29 .....	796,79	—	29,06	—
'30 .....	784,80	811,50	28,32	29,44

## (Z.)—Progress of British National Debt—Contd.

Year.	Capital.	Average.	Interest.	Average.
	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
1831 .....	782,71	—	28,32	—
'32 .....	781,45	—	28,35	—
'33 .....	779,73	—	28,48	—
'34 .....	773,23	—	28,51	—
'35 .....	788,66	—	29,13	—
'36 .....	789,49	—	29,66	—
'37 .....	787,52	—	29,53	—
'38 .....	786,84	—	29,43	—
'39 .....	787,23	—	29,38	—
'40 .....	788,64	784,55	29,41	29,02
1841 .....	792,20	—	29,46	—
'42 .....	791,75	—	29,30	—
'43 .....	792,66	—	29,04	—
'44 .....	787,98	—	28,27	—
'45 .....	785,11	—	28,12	—
'46 .....	782,97	—	28,02	—
'47 .....	790,37	—	28,44	—
'48 .....	791,81	—	28,30	—
'49 .....	790,92	—	28,09	—
'50 .....	787,02	789,28	28,02	28,50
1851 .....	782,86	—	27,90	—
'52 .....	779,36	—	27,84	—
'53 .....	771,33	—	27,59	—
'53-54....	769,08	—	27,71	—
'54-55....	775,21	—	27,36	—
'55-56....	803,91	—	28,44	—
'56-57....	808,10	—	28,55	—
'57-58....	805,13	—	28,40	—
'58-59....	805,07	—	28,20	—
'60-61....	802,00	790,20	26,17	27,81

(AA.)—Average Value of the British 3 per Cent. Consols. From Paper 119, Session 1824, Marshall's "Tables," McCulloch's "Dictionary," and "Miscellaneous Statistics," published by the Board of Trade.

Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.
1786-90	75 10 10	1815	58 13 9	1838	92 17 6
'91	84 4 10	'16	62 1 2	'39	91 11 3
'92	89 12 8	'17	76 16 -	'40	89 7 6
'93	74 19 9	'18	78 1 5	'41	88 17 6
'94-95	66 11 10	'19	71 19 3	'42	91 16 3
1796	60 2 5	1820	68 11 3	1843	94 12 6
'97	50 1 -	'21	73 15 -	'44	98 17 6
'98	50 12 -	'22	79 3 9	'45	96 5 -
'99	59 10 5	'23	79 12 6	'46	95 10 -
1800	63 3 3	'24	91 11 3	'47	86 7 6
1801	61 6 6	1825	87 11 3	1848	84 7 6
'02	70 1 2	'26	79 5 -	'49	87 5 -
'03	57 3 3	'27	83 2 6	'50	94 5 -
'04	56 16 6	'28	85 17 6	'51	96 15 -
'05	58 14 -	'29	90 12 6	'52	97 7 6
1806	61 2 8	1830	86 10 -	1853	100 3 7
'07	62 17 3	'31	79 17 6	'54	93 1 3
'08	66 11 6	'32	83 15 -	'55	90 10 6
'09	68 1 8	'33	88 8 9	'56	92 8 9
'10	67 16 3	'34	90 5 -	'57	92 - -
1811	63 12 3	1835	91 - -	1858	97 - -
'12	58 18 8	'36	89 8 9	'59	95 - -
'13	58 15 9	'37	91 1 3	'60	94 - -
'14	66 11 4				

An UNDISCRIMINATING INCOME TAX RECONSIDERED. By WILLIAM LUCAS SARGANT, author of "Social Innovators and their Schemes," "Science of Social Opulence," &c.

I.—Introduction. House of Commons' Report. Conflicting Authorities.

On the 16th of April last year (1861), I read before the Statistical Society a paper on the principles of the income tax. Mr. Hubbard's committee of the House of Commons was at that time pursuing its inquiries, and in the following August made its report, pronouncing against the expediency of any alteration in the incidence of the tax. Since that time I have carefully considered that report, and the evidence on which it was founded.

An epitome of the blue book presented to the House, a short account of the ingenious and searching and perplexing questions put to the able witnesses by the distinguished members of the committee, might be a boon to those who shrink from the task of wading through the long double columns of the report, but I have preferred a task not so easily performed. My perusal of this blue book, and a reference to the evidence of May and June, 1852, given before Mr. Hume's committee, suggested to me many doubts as to the accuracy of the principles of taxation commonly propounded. Comparing the evidence of the highest authorities in favour of a discriminating tax, and the very various and inconsistent reasons adduced in support of it, I inferred that there was no agreement as to the rudimentary principles of taxation. All, indeed, appealed to Adam Smith's dictum, but each one interpreted it after his own fashion.

I found one authority stating that a man ought to be taxed in proportion to the income which he can afford to spend; and that as the income tax is only temporary, its incidence ought to be nearly the same as that of indirect imposts. I found another stating that the income tax ought to be regarded as permanent; and that, among many other advantages, it possessed this eminent one—that its incidence was quite different from that of indirect imposts, since it took toll from those fortunate men who, with large incomes and few wants, contributed little to taxes on expenditure. I found a third stating that men should pay in proportion to their ability; that that ability should be estimated, not according to present income, but according to the property possessed; property, however, being taken to mean, not merely land, houses, funds, and other external objects,



but also skill, abilities, and everything else *inherent* in the tax-payer: besides that every income should be regarded as an annuity, and should be taxed according to its present capitalized value. A fourth told me that savings ought not to be taxed, because when invested they yield an income which is afterwards subject to assessment; and that as it is impossible to make allowance for individual frugality, the Government ought to presume that savings will be made by those classes whose incomes are of short or uncertain duration; further, that justice requires each individual to pay, not an equal proportion of his income, but such a sum as shall in every case entail an equal sacrifice. Other opinions I found expressed: that capital should not be taxed in passing from hand to hand; that savings are capital, and should therefore be exempted; that professional education and waiting for practice are virtually capital, and give a claim to exemption; that the tax-gatherer should go to *persons, not things*; that he should go to *things, not persons*; that age *should* be taken into account; that age should *by no means* be taken into account.

II.—*Appeal to First Principles. A Fictitious Colony establishes a Government. The Cost of Governing is the Measure of Taxation.*

All these divers and conflicting opinions I find put forth by men who agree in desiring a reduction in the rate of tax, in favour of professional men, of traders, and of holders of terminable annuities. And as several of these witnesses are of the highest authority in political philosophy, I infer that there is something wanting at the root of the matter; and that the elementary principles of taxation are not yet agreed upon. I know the dangerous uncertainty of an appeal to abstract principles, but such an appeal is necessary in the last resort, and is, in truth, nothing more than the proceeding of Adam Smith, when, in his much quoted dictum, he compares the country to a great estate, each of the owners of which ought to pay for its management in proportion to the revenue he derives from it.

At the present day nothing is more unpalatable than an appeal to the origin of Government and the social contract; because it is felt that such notions are fictitious, and cannot be verified by experience. But we have in modern colonies, and especially in new American settlements, something going on which is analagous to a social contract, and what, at the same time, is sufficiently near to us to save us from gross errors of interpretation.

Let us, then, imagine a colony such as that of Salt Lake, recently planted quite in the wilderness; so far removed from a central power as to be practically independent; and at any rate at liberty to construct what government it pleases for local purposes. The first rude stage—the period of Lynch law—having passed away, the settlers meet together to agree upon mutual arrangements for protec-

tion from the Indians without, and depredators within. With the machinery agreed upon, with the militia and the police, the congress and the governor, we are not concerned; what we want to know is, how the taxes for supporting them would be levied.

How are a hundred thousand dollars to be raised annually? each man desires to know what share he will have to pay. First, there are two clearings, side by side, of equal extent and fertility, and exposed in the same degree to Indian attacks and domestic injuries; both the owners will be required to pay the same share of the 100,000 dollars. A third clearing is equal in every respect to the two former taken together; as much must be paid in respect of this one as of the other two. The owner of a fourth clearing feels himself more exposed than his neighbours, and asks for a double share of protection; he must pay double taxes. The owner of a fifth clearing relies on his natural defences and his own right arm, and as he wants no protection he is excused from contributing.

In all these cases there is one simple principle by which the contribution of each colonist is determined: everyone pays in proportion to the expense incurred by Government in protecting him. Just as he pays the storekeeper for the goods he buys, the lawyer for the advice he asks, the ploughman for the labour he hires, so he pays the Government for the protection he receives; and the amount he contributes is not regulated by the colonist's ability to pay, but by the cost incurred by Government on his behalf. This principle has been overlooked, or slighted, in most if not in all the reasonings I have seen. It has been stated, indeed, that a man pays for the protection he receives; but it has not been stated that, in the first instance, the amount he pays is only a reimbursement of the expense incurred by Government on his behalf.

I do not pretend that the simple state of things I have described bears any near resemblance to the complex condition of affairs in this country, But the illustration has suggested to me the propriety of inquiring, whether the principle I have mentioned may not be made use of in solving the knotty questions we have to deal with; whether each man among ourselves ought not, if it were possible, to contribute such a share of tax as would reimburse to his Government the expense incurred in protecting him and his property; whether by far the greater part of the public expenditure is not incurred for the purposes of protection; and whether as to that smaller part of the expenditure which is incurred for other purposes, such as education, promotion of art, and maintenance of the greatness and dignity, rather than the security of the country, other maxims ought not to prevail.

III.—*Should Taxation in the Colony be Modified according to Age, Tenure, Capitalized Value, Savings, Sacrifice Required, Benefit Received, Earned and Independent Incomes, Exemptions for Small Incomes, Graduation according to Wealth, Distinction between Current Expenditure and Permanent Improvements?*

At this point, we may, I think, advantageously inquire how far there might be applied to this primitive state of society, those rules of taxation which have been proposed for our guidance. The result of the inquiry, though not conclusive as to ourselves, may yet be suggestive.

1. First, it is alleged that the age\* of the tax-payer ought to be taken into account in his assessment; a man of thirty, it is said, having a greater expectation of life than a man of seventy, ought to pay at a higher rate. Is this rule applicable in the colony?

I have assumed, in the first instance, the existence side by side, of two clearings, equally large, equally fertile, equally exposed to injuries. I have said that the owners would be required to pay the same share of 100,000 dollars. But what if one of them were a man of thirty, the other a man of seventy? Would this make any difference? The older man might say to the other, my expectation of life is twenty years less than yours, and I am, therefore, bound to save more than you are. I cannot hope to enjoy my income more than ten years; you may hope to enjoy yours thirty years; the present value of my expectation is far less than yours. In short, my ability to pay, and my stake in the colony, are far less than yours; therefore, I ought to pay a proportionably less tax. The younger man might answer thus:—I am not curious to inquire into the truth of your political arithmetic. I am satisfied with this plain reply. The militia and the police, guided by the central authority, now perform for us certain important duties, which we have hitherto performed for ourselves. To defend your clearing, costs the Government just as much as it costs it to defend my clearing; you and I, in paying the same tax, pay each of us for what we receive. When your ironmonger, and your lawyer, and your labourer, furnish you with commodities and services at a reduced rate, in consideration of your advanced age, then the Government may be justly called on to reduce your assessment. This answer seems to me conclusive; and I think that in this early stage of society, when protection is the sole function of Government, the cost of that protection is the just foundation of all assessments, and that the age of the tax-payer is beside the question.

2. Secondly, let us consider the matter of tenure. Both of the

\* I do not pretend to be dealing here with the opinions of Dr. Farr and the actuaries.

twin clearings may have cost labour to the value of 15 or 20 dollars an acre, to bring them into their present condition. Now the owner of the one may have a reasonable hope that his estate will retain its value in perpetuity; whereas, the other owner may have become aware that an unfavourable change is taking place in the channel of a river, and that in a few years, perhaps in a year or two, his whole labours will be swallowed up. If B in this case says to A:—Your ability to pay taxes is greater than mine, because the shortness of my tenure obliges me to save: A will reply, as in the former instance, your estate costs as much to protect it as mine costs; and as the Government has taken this duty off your hands (a duty which previously cost you just as much as it cost me), and as the Government now expends on your behalf just as much as it expends on my behalf, your tax ought to be the same as mine. This reply seems to me conclusive, as regards this hypothetical state of society.

3. Incidentally, the question of capitalized value has been touched upon in both the above cases. In the first, the *older* man claims a reduction of assessment, on the ground that the present value of *his* expectation of income, is less than the present value of *the younger man's* expectation of income. In the second case, B claims a reduction of assessment, on the ground that the present value of his *precarious* estate, is far less than the present value of A's estate held *in perpetuity*. We have already seen that the two estates ought to pay alike, and we must conclude that, in the supposed condition of society, the present saleable value of an estate has no influence on the just assessment for taxation.

4. The same reply, I believe, would be rightly given to anyone who should claim a reduction of tax, on the ground that he had unusual reasons for desiring to save. A may say to B:—it is true that you have weighty reasons for saving a considerable portion of your income, whereas I may prudently spend the whole of mine. Taxes, you say, are more often levied on what a man actually spends; and you think that the most required by justice is, that they should be levied on what he can afford to spend. I reply, that the cost to Government of protecting your property is not affected by your rate of expenditure, any more than the cost to the storekeeper of the hardware and groceries he furnishes is affected by your rate of expenditure. Each plough, each policeman, each loaf of sugar, each soldier, costs a certain sum; and the settler to whom they are supplied must pay the cost of each.

5. As to savings, it is said, these ought not to be taxed, because they will be used as principal, and will thus furnish a revenue, which will become the subject of a tax in perpetuity; so that if they are now taxed, they will pay twice over. The reply in the colony will be, that if B saves part of his income, and invests it in another

clearing, this second clearing requires protection, and such protection must be paid for. The former tax was paid as a reimbursement of Government cost in respect to the first clearing; the latter tax will be paid as a reimbursement of Government cost in respect to the second clearing.

6. Two other questions seem capable of being decided in the same way. It is said that a just tax is not a tax which takes from every man the same proportion of his income, but a tax which imposes on every man the same degree of sacrifice. If, however, Government cost is the regulator, this notion, as applied to the colony, is false. It may be thought also, that everyone should pay according to the benefit he receives. An old man is more dependent on Government for protection than a young man is; a woman is more dependent than a man. But if the estates of the old man and of the woman are not more expensive to the Government than other estates are, no augmented tax should be paid by their owners.

7. A claim has been advanced for men who earn their incomes; a claim to pay less than is paid by men whose incomes are independent of their exertions. Now, in the colony, no such claim could be sustained. Earned incomes are generally of short duration, and are frequently precarious. I have already stated my reasons for thinking that neither shortness of duration, nor precariousness, could be admitted as a ground of reduction. And if it be thought that a man who has an independent income, is more favoured by fortune, and is, therefore, a fairer subject of taxation, I submit that such a consideration cannot for an instant be admitted, if we are to maintain the just principle, that a man shall pay for what he receives. The only way of sustaining the proposition to levy an additional tax on independent incomes, is to show that they cause an additional expense to Government.

8. There is also a question as to the practice of exempting certain persons, wholly or partially, on the ground of their inability to pay. Mr. Pitt exempted, for a time, all fathers with more than a certain number of children; Sir R. Peel exempted all persons who had less than 150*l.* a-year; Mr. Gladstone reduced the favoured class to persons having less than 100*l.* a-year, though charging a diminished rate from 100*l.* to 150*l.* a-year. Now, a settler with a large family, and a settler with small means, would require Government protection, and would cause a certain expense to Government. As regards mere *justice*, therefore, such persons have no claim to exemption. From considerations of charity, of compassion, of political expediency, this exemption may be allowed, but certainly not from consideration of justice.

9. Again, it has been proposed by some persons to vary the rate

of tax according to the amount of each man's income, so that if the owner of 100*l.* a-year paid 3*d.* in the pound, the owner of 500*l.* should pay 6*d.*, and the owner of 10,000*l.* a-year perhaps 2*s.* in the pound. This graduation is, of course, very distasteful to all wealthy men. But if we were to discuss it simply on the ground of expediency there would be a good deal to say in its favour; as, for instance, that an annual tax of 1,000*l.* to a man enjoying 10,000*l.* a-year, only cuts off certain superfluities, the want of which is merely imaginary, and the absence of which would not be felt after the first year. The scheme, however, is at once condemned as unjust, and therefore of the highest possible inexpediency, if we admit my principle—that men should pay in proportion to the cost of the protection they receive.

Suppose a number of clearings of equal extent, and such as to impose equal cost on the Government to protect them: that one settler had a single clearing, another had five, and a third ten. It might be proposed that the first settler should pay 3*d.* in the pound, the second 6*d.*, and the third 1*s.* The rich settler would say at once that he paid for what he received; that he would willingly pay for each of his clearings as much as was paid by anyone else for his, but that he could no more consent to be assessed at a higher rate for each clearing, than he could consent to pay an additional price for the commodities he purchased.

10. One other matter presents itself. I have hitherto regarded the taxes as a mere reimbursement of the current expense of governing the colony. The administration finds police and soldiers, and the central machinery for setting these in motion: the settlers find the money necessary; each one paying the cost incurred on his behalf. But suppose now, that certain public works are determined on. The colony is languishing, perhaps, for want of ready communication with the rest of the world, and it is resolved that labourers shall be employed to improve the river. Shall the funds for such a purpose be raised as the ordinary taxes are? An objection to this proceeding may be raised by the settler whose land is in progress of destruction. He may say:—your projected alterations leave my property as precarious as ever; two or three years will see the end of it, whereas four or five years will elapse before your project is completed; and even if I should be fortunate enough to save my land from being washed away long enough to allow me to enjoy some of the benefit of the amended channel, yet that must be for a very few years. But my neighbour will have the advantage in perpetuity. Certainly, he and I ought not to contribute the same share of the expense. Say that my expectation of income from my land is two years, that the expectation of B is ten years, that of C twenty years, that of D a perpetuity. Each of us ought to pay in proportion to this expecta-



tion, or, what is the same thing, in proportion to the present values of our respective expectations.

The distinction I have thus drawn, between Government expenditure for current purposes and Government expenditure for permanent improvements, may appear to be of little importance to us, among whom roads, canals, and railroads, are not executed by Government. But I have pointed out the distinction with a view to the exposure of what I regard as the fallacious proposal, to levy our ordinary taxes in proportion to the present, or capitalized value, of all incomes. I think that while such a proportionate assessment is fair for the purposes of *permanent* improvements—such as coast fortifications, or breakwaters—it is quite unfair for the purpose of the *current* expenditure of the administration.

IV.—*Another Stage of Progress. Income comes to be taken as the Test of the Cost of Protection. Temporary Incomes. Earned and Independent Incomes.*

Our fictitious colony has not at present much resemblance to an old country like England. Let us then carry it on a step further. As it grows, and clearings multiply, and farming ceases to be the altogether predominant business, it becomes impossible for individuals to make separate contracts with the authorities for protection and proportionate payment; all must now submit to the same rule of taxation. The farmers might still, if their own clearings were similarly circumstanced, pay according to the extent of their cultivated ground. But it might happen that there were different kinds of farming carried on. As in Australia, one colonist might raise wheat and green crops on a few scores or hundreds of acres; another might have flocks of sheep, ranging over a vast extent of country. The size of the settlements would cease to be a criterion of taxation; some substitute must be found.

Two plans offer themselves: first, that adopted by many of the United States in raising money for State purposes, and not for the Federal Government; the plan, I mean, of taxing all visible property: secondly, the plan of taxing all income, however produced; this income tax being either uniform or of a discriminating kind. But of the two, that would be the fairest in the eyes of the colony, which continued, as nearly as possible, to tax everyone so as to reimburse to the Government the cost of protecting him and his property.

Men accustomed to this simple rule of justice, would hardly be persuaded to depart from it in favour of any new rules, however ingenious. Finding the original plan of mere admeasurement to be now impracticable, they must, perforce, admit a substitute; but they would be apt to solve all knotty problems by a resort to the original

principle of payment in proportion to the cost of protection. If an old man pleaded for reduction of assessment, he would be answered that his caducity certainly did not lessen the cost of protecting him. If a man of temporary or precarious estate urged the same request, he would receive a similar reply. Men could not, indeed, be taxed according to the exact expense they respectively imposed upon Government; but they would be taxed on the *supposition*, that they respectively imposed a cost on Government proportionate to the income each of them enjoyed. No consideration of age, or tenure, or necessity of saving, or of savings effected, or of greater sacrifice required, would be seen to diminish the Government cost of protection, or would be, therefore, regarded as establishing a claim to reduction of assessment.

But as the colony advanced, and divers pursuits besides farming were commonly followed, various classes of persons would have to be called on by the tax-gatherer. There would be numerous stores, banks, offices, and town houses; and the owners of these, while receiving protection, would have to pay for it. In the first stage of the colony, when clearings paid according to their extent, a difficulty would have been felt in assessing the few existing town buildings, because these and the clearings would have had no common measure. But as soon as income is adopted for the assessment of lands, it is naturally adopted, also, for the assessment of town properties; and the desiderated common measure is found. It would be competent, indeed, for the citizens, or for the farmers, to allege, that in proportion to their incomes, they imposed, as a class, less cost upon Government than was imposed by the other class. But as no controversy on such a point has arisen among ourselves; as a rent in perpetuity is regarded by us as just equally taxable with interest of money in perpetuity; we may assume that rule as established; we may say, that in the colony all perpetual incomes will pay alike.

But now arises the question of incomes not in perpetuity. I considered, in the former stage of the colony, the case of a settler who had the certain expectation of having his land submerged: and I contended, that if he founded on this circumstance a claim for reduction of assessment, he would be told, that so long as his estate continued above water, it would entail on the Government an expense just as great as that entailed by any other estate of equal size; and that, therefore, his claim for reduction would be disallowed. With regard to this man, the same reasoning would prevail in the second stage of the colony. The only change is, that income has been substituted for extent of ground, as the measure of assessment; and it is now presumed that the Government cost of defending each estate and each town property, is proportionate to the income yielded. If a man now founds, on a precarious or short tenure, a claim for

reduction of tax, the previous answer will be given, viz., that the tax levied on him is only a reimbursement of the present Government cost of protecting his estate, and that this present cost is in no degree lessened by the certainty that in a few years the estate will cease to exist. A promise, however, will be given, that in case of taxation for permanent improvements, his shortness of tenure shall be allowed due weight.

Now, if a similar claim be set up in the town, on behalf of the owner of temporary or precarious houses; if it be urged that B's expectation of income is only three years, while A's expectation of the same income is perpetual; it will be answered that the Government cost of defending B's houses is just as great as the Government cost of defending A's property; that the temporary character of B's houses in nowise lessens the cost of defending them; and that, therefore, B must pay at the same rate as A.

At present, we have concerned ourselves principally with settlers in the country, though we have also considered the case of such persons as builders in the town. Both these classes have one characteristic—that their incomes are derived from industry in the use of capital—both classes are capitalists. But in a later period of the colony there may be two other classes to be dealt with; a class of persons such as mortgagees and Government annuitants, who have incomes independent of their exertions; and a class of persons such as lawyers and medical men, whose incomes are derived from professional exertions, with little use of capital.

As a representation of the independent class we may select a man whose clearing is bounded by the river, and is the only central part of the colony suitable for wharves. A considerable rent is the result; and this may have arisen either spontaneously, or from an outlay of capital; or in part spontaneously, in part from an outlay of capital: but in any case the income is independent of any present exertion on the part of the owner. I ask, then, whether this landlord ought to pay a higher rate of tax than is paid by his neighbours who earn their incomes. Still proceeding on the principle, that the cost to Government is the measure of each man's tax, what plea shall we imagine put forth to support the proposal of a higher rate? It might be said that the independent income would be of longer duration than any earned income. We are already provided with an answer—that this is a good reason for requiring a larger payment towards permanent public improvements, but no reason for requiring a larger payment towards the current public expenditure. Another plea might be, that the man of independent means was better off than his neighbour, and could afford to pay more. The answer is again ready to our hands—that the ability of the taxpayer adds nothing to the cost imposed upon Government; and that there is no

just claim upon a rich man to pay more than others for a given quantity of protection, any more than there is a just claim upon a rich man to pay more than others for a given quantity of wheat or cloth. So long as Government cost is taken for the regulator, a man of independent means cannot be called on to pay at a higher rate than is paid by a farmer or a manufacturer.

V.—*The Colonial Illustration applied to our Case. Adam Smith's Dictum. Actual Examples of Reimbursement of Government Cost. Adam Smith's Illustration imperfect. Permanent Improvements. What Principle, if not this one? Graduation.*

The whole of my reasoning, thus far, has been founded on the proposition, that in the supposed colony everyone's taxation ought to be proportionate to the expense incurred by Government on his behalf. But as this rule is deduced from the imaginary circumstances of a fictitious colony, there remains the question, whether it is wholly or partially applicable to ourselves.

The maxim commonly adopted is that of Adam Smith, who, regarding our country as a great estate, with many co-proprietors, says that each of these may justly be called on to contribute to the expense of management, in proportion to the revenue he enjoys from the estate. Is there, in my proposition, anything inconsistent with this celebrated dictum?

Adam Smith, indeed, uses more words than those I have quoted. He says, that the subjects of a State ought to contribute "in proportion to their respective *abilities*; that is, in proportion to the *revenue* which they respectively enjoy." The word *abilities*, stripped of the interpretation given to it by the second clause of the sentence, as the revenue enjoyed, has been construed by different writers so as to make it consistent with all kinds of modifications of the simple rule, that men should pay according to the revenues they respectively enjoy. Even those who desire to charge different rates of tax according to the age of the owner and the tenure of the property, confidently appeal to this word *abilities*, neglecting the interpretation put on it by Adam Smith himself. But neither the words nor the illustration will bear such an interpretation. For if an estate is held in equal shares, A, an *old* man, with one share, will not contribute less than B, a *young* man, with one share. C, with a share for his life, will not contribute less than D, who has a share in perpetuity.

I do not pretend, however, that the justice of the case is so clear in our complex condition of society, as in that fictitious condition where each man's cost to Government can be clearly ascertained. But though it is impossible to trace out all the ramifications of the principle, it may still be true that the Government cost is the just

measure of each man's taxation. A few additional words may help to convince us that it is so.

We can hardly doubt, that when Government incurs an unusual expense for individuals, or for an aggregation of persons, those who are benefited are justly called on to reimburse the outlay. If the proprietor of a theatre can induce the authorities to allow him a number of policemen to maintain order, he should be required to pay the cost of the men. But let us take a more important instance. We hear a good deal about the defence of our colonies; and we are told, that after deducting all charges for Gibraltar, Malta, and other military or naval positions, we incur, under this head, an annual expense of some two millions sterling.

It is argued that the colonies, having now perfect freedom of trade, and independence in all local matters, ought to pay for their own defence. But how much ought they to pay us? Unquestionably, just what that defence costs us in those cases where their quarrels are purely their own, and are not fastened upon them out of spite to the mother country. So in the case of our East Indian possessions. We do actually require that their public revenues should pay for the royal regiments we supply; and the actual cost of raising, sending, and maintaining these regiments, is precisely the just limit of our demand.

Now, if it were possible to divide the public expenditure, and to say, this portion is incurred for the protection of the land, this for the protection of houses, a third portion for the protection of trades, and a fourth for the protection of professions, we might then fix a different rate of payment for each class. It might then turn out that the property of men of independent incomes caused a *greater* Government cost, and must pay more; it might turn out that this property caused *smaller* Government cost, and must pay less. Such an apportionment is, of course, impossible; and the impossibility is put in a strong light by the fact exhibited in a recent number\* of the *Statistical Journal*, that of our whole public expenditure not more than one-seventh is incurred for the Civil List; and that the remaining six-sevenths are incurred for army, navy, and national debt. We cannot say that the external defence of the country, and the national debt, which was principally contracted for warlike purposes, appertain to one class more than another.

We are thus driven to accept Adam Smith's illustration, and to regard the whole country as one vast property, in which each of us has one or more shares. But it seems to me none the less true, that a reimbursement of Government cost is still the just ground and measure of each man's taxation. Just as A, who has one share in

\* *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxiv, p. 419.

an estate, pays a certain sum towards the expenses of management; B, with two shares, pays twice as much; C, with ten shares, ten times as much: so A, with 1,000*l.* a-year, accruing under the protection of Government, pays a certain sum towards the public expenditure; B, with 2,000*l.* a-year of the same class of income, pays twice as much; C, with 10,000*l.* a-year, pays ten times as much.

But it must be confessed, that Adam Smith's comparison of the country to an estate, furnishes only an imperfect illustration of the question at issue. The co-proprietors of the estate are all supposed to divide the net income of it, without any exertion to produce the income; the persons designated as A, B, and C, are also supposed to be landlords, or mortgagees, or annuitants. So far the parallelism is satisfactory. But then there are other persons deriving an income from the estate—farmers who pay the rents divided by A, B, and C; these persons pay no part of the expenses of management. There are persons also in the country who earn their incomes—farmers, manufacturers, professional men; no one proposes that these person shall be altogether excused from contributing to the taxes by which the expenses of Government management are defrayed. We must search elsewhere for the means of determining what share of those expenses the different classes ought to pay.

There is one kind of Government expenditure which is incurred principally for the benefit of certain classes. I have already pointed out, in one stage of the colony, that if the administration undertook to improve the navigation of the river, old men, and others having a short tenure in their property, might fairly demand at least a partial exemption from the taxes for executing the works, on the ground that it would be only for a short time, if at all, that they should benefit by the improvements. Now, let us conceive, that thirty years ago our Government had resolved to construct a system of railways for this kingdom, and had determined to do the work so gradually as to be able to raise the necessary funds wholly by taxation. Wild as is the supposition, it is conceivable; since an income tax of 1*s.* in the pound, from 1830 (the date of the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester line) to the present year, would have been sufficient. But an old man, whose income was not to descend to his family, or a professional man with his precarious income, might reasonably have objected, in 1830, to pay to this railroad fund at the same rate as landlords, fundholders, and other persons of permanent incomes. The old man might say, that before the first railroad would be opened he should be no more; the professional man might say, that though he might hope to see a great many of the lines completed, yet the benefit to him would be small compared with that conferred on persons whose property, transmissible to sons and grandsons, would be greatly increased in value by the



improved communications. In such a case the Government cost is not incurred equally for all portions of the taxpayers, and therefore the rate of taxation ought to vary.

On this principle, of proportion between Government cost and individual taxation, I have not much more to say, beyond asking the question,—if this be not the foundation of just taxation, what is the foundation? and what other defence have we against graduation?

Most of the different proposals I have mentioned—such as that of reducing the rate for old men, or the rate for owners under a short tenure,—are grounded on the notion that men should pay in proportion to their means; taking means to signify, not income, but the present value of the expectation of income. Two men, equally well off, are to pay equal taxes. Now, this might pass under what is called paternal Government, but it is not justice. Barbadoes is a flourishing colony; Jamaica is an unprosperous one: say, that each asks for the services of an infantry regiment: we might, out of *compassion*, excuse Jamaica part of the cost, but *justice* would not allow us to charge Barbadoes more than the cost. So at home, compassion and political expediency may lead us to excuse persons of small incomes part of the taxes necessary to reimburse the cost of protecting them; but justice will not allow us to demand from men of great wealth a larger proportion of their income than we demand from persons of competent means. Just as, in the first stage of the colony, B, with ten clearings, would only pay ten times as much as A with one similar clearing; so at home, B, with 100,000*l.* a-year, must pay no more than 5 per cent., so long as A, with 1,000*l.* a-year pays 5 per cent. Yet I think it is only on this principle of proportion between Government cost and taxation that this uniformity of rate can be safely maintained. "Justice, not expediency," is the watchword of the defence against graduation.

The very name, graduation, stinks in the nostrils of wealthy men; and they call it confiscation and socialism. Yet confiscation is sometimes just; socialism may have an element of truth in its composition. Why is graduation an indefensible confiscation? Why is graduation an indefensible part of socialism? Because, I reply, graduation is unjust; because graduation is a filching from rich men a payment for that which they do not receive; because it is a demand on rich men to pay a shilling for the loaf which men of moderate means are to get for ninepence. When I speak of graduation henceforth I will qualify it, not as confiscation or socialism, but as injustice. Yet I cannot derive this injustice from any principle but this—that each tax-payer ought to be assessed according to the cost incurred by Government in his defence.

I have enlarged to this extent on the principle in question, because all my argumentation is founded upon it. Among ourselves,

as in the fictitious colony, Government ought, as it seems to me, to levy, on each man, a tax such as to reimburse the cost of protecting that man from foreign and domestic enemies.

VI.—*Further application to our own Case. Some part of Government Expenditure is not for Protection. Permanent Improvements. Age of Tax-payer. Corollary, that uniformity from year to year is unnecessary. Tenure, &c., &c.*

I have already inquired how far, in an early stage of my fictitious colony, it would have seemed right to vary the rate of taxation according to the age of the subject, his tenure, the real sacrifice imposed on him, and other circumstances. I have stated my opinion, that in that state of society, no reduction would have been allowed on such grounds. But it remains to be seen whether the same unvarying rule is applicable to ourselves.

It must be remembered, that I am speaking here of taxation levied for the present expenses of Government; of taxation levied this year to furnish the ordinary expenses of this year; and especially that very large part of the year's expenses, which is incurred for mere protection, internal as well as external. I will afterwards show why I regard a small part of the annual expenditure in a different light, as what we may call superfluous; and I will at the same time give my reasons for thinking that the reduction of assessment which poor men may fairly claim in respect to this small superfluous expenditure, would be best made by deducting 100*l.* a-year from all assessments, instead of the present plan of assessing in full all incomes above 150*l.* a-year, and nearly in full, all incomes above 100*l.* a-year.

Now, as to taxation levied for the execution of permanent improvements, I repeat that men of considerable age, and men possessing only a short or precarious tenure in their incomes, would have a fair claim for reduction in case of such taxes. At the present moment we are busy with a system of fortifications; and these will not be so complete for many years as to be of any great advantage to us, while they will, in the long run, add much to the security of the property of the country. The course adopted of borrowing a large part of the necessary funds, properly divides the cost among a succession of people. If the whole funds had been raised by present taxation, it would, I think, have been unjust to impose an uniform rate on all persons, of whatever age or circumstances.

But to return to ordinary taxation for current public expenditure.

1. Ought an elderly man to pay less than a young man? In the colony, as I have shown, no such claim would be allowed. In the most simple stage, when each settler paid according to the admeasurement of his clearing, even the oldest man would not have

ventured on such a claim, because it would be manifest that his property would cost the authorities at least as much for protection as the young man's property would cost. When, from the necessities of a more complex state of society, income, instead of extent of land, came to be the measure, there would be nothing in the change to give the old man a claim for reduction, since the Government would still require everyone to pay for the protection he receives; and the cost of that protection would now be assessed, not according to the extent of the land, but according to the income it yielded. But this latter arrangement is just that under which we live. Each of us ought to pay taxes to such an amount as to reimburse the expense incurred by Government on his behalf, but the Government cannot render to each of us an account of the expense incurred on his behalf; it is agreed, therefore, that each shall pay according to his income. It is not disputed that this is a fair approximation to the truth, for men of the same age, and having the same tenure in their property. It is agreed that if two such men have 1,000*l.* a-year, and 10,000*l.* a-year respectively, the latter ought to pay ten times as much as the former. But if A and B have each 1,000*l.* a-year, A being a young man, and B an old man, the only pretence that can be set up for reducing B's assessment on account of his age, must be that B's age renders his property less costly to defend, a pretence that cannot be maintained.

If we take Adam Smith's illustration, and regard the country as a great estate, of which the young man and the old man are two of the joint proprietors, we arrive at the same result. Before any division of income from an estate, the whole expenses of repairs, insurance, and agency, must be deducted; and supposing these to amount, in any year, to 10 per cent. on the gross income, the old man, as well as the young one, would have his income reduced by 10 per cent. In the same way, each of us of whatever age, contributes under the income tax, in proportion to his ability, that is, in proportion to the revenue he receives.

I will just point out here, what is an obvious corollary of this proposition. It is generally said, in accordance with Mr. Warburton's opinion, that to make an indiscriminating tax fair, it ought to be levied at one uniform rate from year to year; and that to levy 6*d.* one year, 9*d.* a second year, and 1*s.* the third year, destroys the compensation which constitutes the fairness. But if the arguments and illustrations I have adduced, prove anything, they prove that this uniformity of rate from year to year is not necessary for fairness.

Everyone is bound to pay each year, the Government cost incurred in his behalf, during the year, just as every joint proprietor of an estate, is bound to pay each year, the current expenses of management during that year. The expenses of our Government

have risen even in times of peace, from fifty, up to sixty-five millions, just as the expense of managing an estate might rise in the course of years, from 10 up to 15 per cent. If the greater expense is really incurred for current management, and not for permanent improvements, the proprietors or tax-payers ought to defray the whole of it in the year; and the high rate is a misfortune which ought not to be thrown on posterity, or divided unequally among the present sufferers. I will point out, before I have done, what was the peculiarity of Mr. Warburton's reasoning, which led him to believe in the necessity of an uniformity of rate from year to year.

2. I conclude, then, that among ourselves, as in the colony, the age of the tax-payer ought not to be considered in fixing his assessment. I inquire now, whether a man's tenure of his property is in the same category. I have expressed my opinion, that in the colony, such was the case: that if a man had a clearing which would certainly be swept away in a few years, and might be swept away the next year, that would be no reason, in point of justice, for excusing him from paying this year, for the goods he bought or for the Government protection he received. Suppose, among ourselves, a sort of tontine, in which one class of proprietors had shares for five years; another class for ten years; a third for twenty years; a fourth in perpetuity; it certainly would not be expected by the five years' proprietors, that they should pay a smaller proportion of the current expenses, than was paid by the others, although as to permanent improvements, such a reduction might fairly be demanded. Nor can co-proprietors in the great estate of the nation, be permitted to pay different rates for the defraying of the current expenses of the State, on the ground that the incomes in respect of which they pay, are held on tenures of unequal length.

3. I inquired before as to the validity of other grounds on which it might have been proposed in the colony, to reduce the rate: as to the propriety of fixing the rate according to the capitalized value of the income; of taxing a man according to the expenditure he could afford; of excusing savings from taxation; of requiring from all persons, not the same proportion in money, but the same real sacrifice. It is quite unnecessary for me to go through these again one by one, because they may all be determined by the one principle, that everyone should pay in the year for what he receives during the year: and if, as I contend, that principle is true as to this country, as perfectly as it is true of the fictitious colony, the solution of all these problems is easy and certain. Once satisfied as to the principle, we must come to the conclusion that there is no validity in the grounds alleged for reducing the rate of taxation, when, as is commonly the case, the proceeds are to be applied to the current

expenses of administration, and not to permanent improvements, such as railroads or fortifications.

VII.—*Application of the Doctrine to the case of a Physician as compared with a Landowner.*

But after all these reasonings on the subject, we naturally inquire how this uniform rate works in actual life. Abstract argumentation is sometimes inevitable, but the concrete, after all, is the necessary test of truth.

A physician might say to me:—Here am I getting 1,000*l.* a-year; but I am past middle life, and I cannot hope to enjoy it long: whereas my neighbour who is a landowner, not only has the enjoyment of his 1,000*l.* a-year for his own life, but will have it as a provision for his children. Surely it is not just that we should pay alike.

In reply, we must concede at once, that the landowner is far better off than the physician with the same income. But when this superiority of fortune is alleged as the ground for imposing a heavier rate of taxation, there is, I believe, a tacit appeal to a false and dangerous sentiment. If we were to carry out a favourite scheme of some of our friends, and in order to get rid of indirect taxation, we were to levy a direct impost on all incomes whatsoever, the same comparison which is now made by the physician between himself and the landowner, would then be made by the artisan between himself and his employer: the artisan would think it hard that there should be levied upon him, a tax which would easily be paid by his employer, who, as the artisan sees, is always well dressed, well housed, and in the enjoyment of many of the superfluities, probably of many of the luxuries of life. This is the old cry, which always has been heard, and I suppose always will be heard, of the poor against the rich. Let the poor man have his loaf for 5*d.*, and let the rich man make up the difference to the bakers; let the poor enjoy the protection of Government for nothing, and let the rich supply the deficient revenue.

But is it really the business of Government to redress the inequalities of fortune? The notion that it is such is one that to us, as Englishmen, is altogether abhorrent. We are convinced that to mulct a man because he is rich, to employ the power of Government in filling up the gaps between class and class, would result, not in raising the proletaire to competency, but in dragging the rich down to the level of the proletaire. We have, indeed, found by fortunate experience, that we can safely use the intervention of authority to save destitute individuals from absolute want of the necessaries of life; but that has not shaken our conviction, that men are best left to make or mar their own fortunes, and that, in dealing with all classes, justice is the true guide of Government.

Our physician would, of course, disclaim any propensity to socialistic doctrine; and would assert that his suit was for justice alone. He would grant that he ought to repay the expenses incurred by Government on his behalf; and also that the landowner ought to follow the same rule. But he might still urge those pleas which I have already considered; and I should then have to show him that the age of the owner, the shortness and precariousness of the income, the power of prudent expenditure, the savings effected, the real sacrifice required, had none of them anything to do with the cost of Government for protecting him in the exercise of his profession; and further, that if we regard the country as a great estate, of which he is one of the many proprietors, these pleas would avail him just as little. The Government expenses during the year must be defrayed by those for whom they are incurred; the cost of managing the estate must be paid before any division of income takes place.

VIII.—*Points raised in the House of Commons' Report. Settled Property. Proposed Reduction of one-twelfth on Assessment of Land. Clerical Incomes. Houses. Mines and Quarries. Foreign Funds. Allowance for Life Insurance. Reduction on Trading Assessments under Clause 133.*

Having thus stated what I conceive to be the principles on which taxes ought to be levied, I will mention as briefly as possible, some applications of them which have occurred to me in reading the House of Commons' Report.

First, as to land and settled property generally. It has been contended that a tenant for life ought to be regarded as a short annuitant, and should be placed in the category of those from whom a reduced rate ought to be demanded. The question whether this ought to be so is of less interest to me, because I am convinced that no incomes, except those annuities which are purchased for a sum of money, and which, therefore, consist in part of a return of the principal invested, ought to have any reduction of rate. But even if the contrary opinion were to prevail, I should still hold that life tenants ought to have no reduction. Money, as well as land, is generally settled, in order to prevent the dissipation of the principal, and to secure the transmission of it to the children of the life tenant: so that the law does, rather clumsily, what a prudent father does without the law. The life tenant, therefore, is without the motive for saving, which is imposed on him whose income ceases with his health or life. The cases, constantly recurring, of land settled on the eldest son, are, no doubt, different. But the practice of transmitting the landed estate to the eldest son, by settlement or by intestacy, is altogether artificial, and was unknown to ancient Greece and Rome; having arisen in feudal times, and being still



kept up with great prudence, for the purpose of sustaining the social and political influence of the aristocracy. The practice is one with which I find no fault, because I believe that in our present condition, the subsistence of a territorial aristocracy is necessary to the security of our free institutions. But although the hereditary transmission of land and the custom of primogeniture are highly important to the public weal, yet the first and direct advantage is the one reaped by the aristocracy itself; and it would be a strange concession if we were to allow those who have continued and carried out this custom of primogeniture for their own benefit, to obtain also by its means, a remission of taxes.

Another claim set up for the landed interest is of less importance, and is founded on very different considerations. In Mr. Hubbard's scheme, submitted to the Committee, the rent of land is to be assessed at only eleven-twelfths of its amount; the other twelfth being allowed for inevitable out-goings. Unquestionably, it is the net, and not the gross income which ought to be taxed. But against the out-goings of one-twelfth, must be put the advantage gained by the landlord, from the fact stated to the Committee, that farmers' profits are too lightly assessed. Sir R. Peel reduced the assessment formerly made, and it is stated that, in cases of compensation, farmers estimate their profits at a much higher rate than that at which they are assessed to the income tax. But the lower the tax, the higher the rent which the farmer can afford to pay; and, therefore, this advantage may very well counterbalance the alleged taxation on out-goings. An allowance has to be made also for the fact, that, as no tax is levied on incomes under 100*l.* a-year, no farmer pays tax unless his rental reaches 200*l.* a-year, so that in some parts of the country little tax is paid by farmers. If, as I assume, the income tax falls, not very indirectly, on the rent, it is in the power of the landlord, by splitting his estate into moderate holdings, say of 200 acres or less, to put the tax into his own pocket. This should be remembered when it is proposed to lower the landlords' assessments.

Again, a considerable amount of discussion took place in the Committee, as to clerical incomes. The first great question was, whether clergymen who, of course, have their tithes only for life, ought to pay at a full or a reduced rate. If a clergyman has his tithes only for life, why should he pay more than a Government officer, or a trader, who has his income for life? On the other hand, it was contended that Government could not be robbed of its rights; and that land must pay the same tax in whatever hands the usufruct might be. For myself, I cut the discussion short, by saying that the Government cost of protection is the same, whether the usufruct is in lay or clerical hands; and that justice, therefore, requires the same payment.

One alteration, however, does seem necessary. A good deal of college and ecclesiastical land is let on the improvident custom of fines; and, as if to punish the corporations guilty of this imprudence, the authorities levy an aggravated tax. First, there is required from the recipient a statement of all fines received, and on the amount of these the full tax is levied. Next, the tax-gatherer goes to the land itself, and requires from the tenant the full tax on the estimated rental, the landlord having, of course, sooner or later, to refund the tax to the tenant. This reduplication of impost is quite indefensible.

Houses, again, are unfairly assessed. Mr. Hubbard, after careful inquiry, proposed that only five-sixths of the rack-rent should be taxed; the other sixth being left as a fund to cover insurance, repairs, and ultimate renewal. The evidence given by several experienced witnesses pretty well supports this estimate, regarded as an average. But it appears, that such an average is, in this case, unnecessary and unjust. A well-built villa of 100*l.* or 200*l.* a year, causes very little cost to the owner, when it is once let on lease to a respectable tenant: the rent, therefore, is nearly a net income. A small house, at 3*s.* a-week, with constant change of occupaney, and careless tenants, will often yield as little as 2*s.* a-week to the landlord. The allowance of one-sixth, which would be excessive for the villa, would be far too little for the cottage. Add to this, that in large towns, where the compounding of rates is a common practice, and a very useful one, the rack-rent includes all the local taxes, amounting sometimes, at the full rate, to 6*s.* or 7*s.* in the pound; and that it is on this rack-rent, including rates as well as repairs, insurance, and renewal-fund, that the income tax is levied. There are two obvious modes of correcting this injustice; the one is, to put landlords into Schedule D as traders; the other, a more simple one, is, after deducting all local taxes, to make an abatement in an inverse ratio to the amount of rent; giving the greatest percentage of abatement to the lowest rent. A differential scale could easily be constructed.

Mines and quarries also are treated very roughly. It is astonishing to find one of the witnesses proposing, as a piece of justice not to be hoped for, that the proprietors should be allowed to pay tax on the net income they receive. At present, it seems, a sum of money is spent in Cornwall in opening a mine: for a time there is no return; as soon as the sales of ore amount to something beyond the present working expenses, that excess is reckoned as profit, and is taxed to the full amount, without any allowance for past losses, or for a replacement of the capital invested. When the mine is worked out the capital is gone; and if the speculation has been successful enough to replace it out of the dividends, the owners have paid income tax

on the whole of the replaced capital, as well as on the net income produced.

The holders of foreign funds seem, on the general principle of justice I before laid down, to be entitled to ask relief. The protection which a holder of French *Rentes* receives in respect of that property, comes principally from the French Government; and our Government cannot fairly claim a payment for expenses which it has not incurred. Our own practice, too, condemns us; for the French holder of Consols pays income tax here on his dividends; and if the French Government were to levy an income tax, and to follow our precedent, the unfortunate French holder of Consols would pay the full tax twice; once in London and once in Paris.

One other matter was greatly discussed in committee: the treatment of purchased terminable annuities. But before saying anything on that topic, I will just mention two cases of actual exemption, and the evidence given upon them.

First, as to life insurance. Some years ago, the alleged unfairness of fully taxing temporary or precarious incomes, was much discussed. As the necessity of saving from such incomes was greatly insisted on, an Act was passed, exempting persons from tax on that part of their incomes, up to one-sixth of the whole, which they paid as premiums on life insurance; and about four years ago the same privilege was extended to persons insuring with legally authorized friendly societies. The claims under these two heads, in Schedules A, B, and C, were no less than 22,555 in one year; and the amount of tax returned was nearly 25,000*l.*, or rather more than 1*l.* for each claim, on the average. If the principle of justice for which I am contending were alone to regulate the tax, this exemption could not be maintained; because Government had incurred the same expense in protecting the incomes of the insurers, as in protecting the incomes of their less provident neighbours. But the practice of life insurance is so very valuable a one, and is of such national importance, that I cannot regret the concession on that score, of the moderate sum of 25,000*l.*, to the Schedules I have mentioned.

The second exemption is of a very different kind. We all know that traders are required to make their returns each year on the average of three previous years' profits. But by the 133rd section of the Act it is provided, that if the profits of the past year are less than the average profits of the three preceding years, the trader shall pay only on the last year's profits; so that if in a variable business, my profits for the last three years had been 9,000*l.*, or 3,000*l.* a-year, and my profits for the last year had been only 100*l.*, I should have to pay on only 100*l.* Mr. Hubbard, in his "Observations," gives an example of the tax actually paid by a mercantile house during ten years; and it appears, that while the triennial average was nearly

8,000*l.* a-year, the assessment was only 4,000*l.* a-year,—just half of what fundholders and landowners would pay if enjoying the same income. No doubt, there are to be found traders who have an eye to this clause, in making up their balance sheet. The exemption appears to me quite indefensible.

IX.—*Terminable Annuities. Charge for Life on an Estate. Purchased Terminable Annuities. The Dead Weight. The Principle of Terminable Annuities. Cases of avowed Evasion. Lands Improvement Company. Mr. Newmarch's Cases. Mr. Gladstone's defence of Present Practice. Improvidence of that Practice. Case of Life Annuities not so plain. Supposed Case of Two Sisters.*

I now come to the topic of terminable annuities purchased for a sum of money. In the House of Commons' Committee, vast discussion and wonderful ingenuity were exercised on this topic. Witnesses were harassed with captious questions and insoluble problems. Yet, it seems to me, after reading the evidence at my leisure, that no new light was elicited; that the purchased annuity is clearly divisible into interest and a replacement of capital; and that, so long as landlords, fundholders, and traders are taxed, on income only, and not on principal, so long ought annuitants to be treated in the same way. The only objection fairly sustained by the evidence, related to life annuities, bought with principal but not with capital, and bought with the intention that the whole annuity should be spent as it accrued. As to the taxation of such life annuities, there is room for conflicting opinions.

It is essential to keep carefully in mind, that we are here concerned with purchased incomes only. It is natural enough to apply the name annuity to every income payable annually, or at shorter periods—fractions of a year. We speak of an annuity payable by a landowner to his mother or sister.

Some members of the Committee inquired curiously, whether, in case of a discriminating tax, a sister enjoying an annuity charged on the rents of an estate, ought to pay the full rate, or the reduced rate of tax. The general, but not universal answer was, that she should pay the full rate, because the annuity was merely a share of rent, and the Government could not be debarred, by any private arrangement, of its claim to a full rate upon the rent of land. Those who agree with me, that the tax is merely a payment for protection, will say, that as the creation of the annuity in nowise relieved the Government of the cost of protecting the land, so it could not relieve the owner or owners of the land from the obligation of paying tax just as if no annuity existed. But the real question seems to me to lie between the brother and sister; and to be, whether, after the brother

had paid the full tax on the whole rental, he was entitled to stop the full rate from his sister. Dr. Farr and the Actuaries, who contend for a capitalization of income, would say, I presume, that he ought to stop only the reduced rate; and that, as reversioner, he ought to sit down with the loss of the difference.

At present, however, we are concerned only with annuities purchased for a sum of money. Mr. Hubbard brought before the Committee a well-known example of Government annuities. When the income tax was imposed, in 1842, the Government was paying, in long annuities, an annual sum of 1,300,000*l.*; the payment was to cease in 1860; the principal represented was 17,500,000*l.*; the income tax being imposed on the whole of the annuity has since been paid to the full; the result being, that between 1842 and 1860 there was paid, in respect of these annuities, no less than 600,000*l.* beyond what would have been paid, if the same capital had been invested in Consols. This sum of 600,000*l.* we must say, I fear, was unjustly appropriated by the Government for the public service. No one will suppose that Sir R. Peel, when he constructed his budget in 1842, intended to act unjustly; nor can his successors be much blamed for following in his steps, while they can shelter themselves under the plea that many men of distinguished ability deny the alleged injustice.

The principle of terminable annuities is so well known, that it is almost superfluous to advert to it. Say, first, that I borrow 10,000*l.* and undertake to repay it by instalments of 1,000*l.*, with 5 per cent. interest on all capital remaining unpaid. The first year I pay 1,500*l.*, the second year 1,450*l.*, the last year 1,050*l.* But it is agreed, on borrowing a second 10,000*l.*, that instead of these diminishing amounts, I shall pay an uniform sum each year; a sum, viz., somewhere between 1,050*l.* and 1,500*l.* Now, while the original agreement was in force, the sum I paid in the first year was 1,000*l.* of it principal, and 500*l.* interest; in the last year the principal paid was still 1,000*l.*, the interest being only 50*l.* And there would be no more pretence for taxing each payment of 1,000*l.* principal, than there would be for taxing the whole 10,000*l.* principal, if it had been repaid in a lump at the end of the ten years. But under the second agreement, when I pay an uniform sum every year, the principal is just as much repaid during the ten years as it was under the first agreement. At the end of the tenth year, the lender has got back his 10,000*l.* principal, with 5 per cent. interest on the principal remaining unpaid each year. Yet, in this second case, the Government levies the tax on everything received, that is, on principal as well as interest.

The attention of the Committee was directed to the Drainage Act, in illustration of the principle in question; and several cases

were adduced in which an avowed evasion of the Act exhibited the unfairness of its application generally. The first case was that of the Lands Improvement Company, which was constituted under an Act of Parliament, in 1853. The managers, finding it advantageous for the borrowers to refund their loans by uniform payments during twenty-five years—that is, by a terminable annuity,—and being advised that, notwithstanding a clause in the original Act, they would not, without litigation, escape a tax on the whole annuity, resolved to apply to Parliament for an explicit exemption from tax on that part of the annual payment which was a refunding of principal advanced; and they succeeded in their application. Mr. Napier furnished the following particulars:—

“At that time we were lending money at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of simple interest, or 6*l.* 14*s.* per cent. of periodical payment; 6*l.* 14*s.* per cent. for twenty-five years, paid back our capital, with interest at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. If the 7*d.* in the pound was deducted from the whole half-yearly payment of 33*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* upon the 1,000*l.* for twenty-five years, the entire deduction, at the end of twenty-five years, would be 48*l.* 18*s.* If the income tax were only deducted upon that which we contended was right, namely, upon the interest of our money, it would be 19*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*; so that, in fact, we were to be taxed at the rate of nearly 3 per cent. upon our capital, and instead of getting back our 1,000*l.*, we got back 1,000*l.* less 30*l.* Such a state of things, of course, would have made it impossible to have continued our business.”

Mr. Napier might have added, that when the income tax was doubled, the company's loss would have been 6 per cent. on its capital. However, in 1855, an Act was obtained exempting the company from tax on capital, and since then the assessment has been justly made on interest alone.

Another illustration was furnished by Mr. Newmarch, who showed how a lender might, without the shelter of a special Act, evade payment of tax on the principal refunded in an annuity. Mr. Newmarch gave two examples. The first case was a loan of 30,000*l.*, at 5 per cent., secured upon a life estate, for which loan the borrower was to pay an annuity, for seven years, of 5,642*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* When the money was advanced, the lender divided the stipulated annual payments into three portions: one for repayment of principal, a second for payment of premiums on life insurance, the third for payment of interest. By means of this clear separation of the elements of the annual payment, the tax-gatherer was compelled to limit his assessment to the interest, amounting during the seven years to 5,861*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*: in the absence of such separation of the elements he would have assessed the whole amount paid, which



during the seven years was nearly 40,000*l.*, or almost seven times the actual assessment.

Mr. Newmarch supplied another schedule, showing an equally successful evasion of this unjust impost. In this case, the sum of 5,000*l.* was advanced on a mortgage of county rates; and the repayment was covenanted to be made, not by equal annual instalments, but by equal annual payments of 250*l.* principal, and 5 per cent. interest on principal owing. This was not an annuity in form, though it was such substantially.

All these cases are founded on the maxim, that principal ought not to be taxed in annuities, so long as it is not taxed in land, mortgages, and funds. It is much to be desired that that should be done for all, by law—which is now done for a few, by statute but just evasion.

Mr. Gladstone, by questions which he put, suggested an attempted defence of the present practice. He mentioned certain Government annuities created in 1855 for thirty years; and asked whether, as in that year there was an income tax of 1*s.* 4*d.* in the pound, the purchasers of those annuities did not take the tax into account in the price they paid. Mr. Hubbard replied, that the tax was to have ceased in 1860; and that in the five or six earliest years of the annuity, the principal repaid, and the consequent tax upon principal, would be very trifling. But even if it were otherwise, this would be no mitigation of the injustice committed towards the holders of the annuities which expired in 1860, and which had been purchased so long back as 1823; a period too near the conclusion of peace and the then passionate repeal of the hated income tax, to allow any thought of the renewal of such a tax. It is true, generally, that every formalized injustice is partly corrected by the efforts of the sufferers; but it does not cease to be an injustice.

But there is improvidence as well as injustice in this tax upon capital, and indeed there is improvidence in every money transaction which is tainted with unfairness. In the case of the loan of 1855, Mr. Hubbard contended that that part of it which was borrowed on terminable annuities, was a very extravagant bargain, as the interest to be paid, the actual price of consols being considered, was no less than 5 per cent. Now as terminable annuities are in practice the only available sinking fund, and as it is highly desirable that we should be constantly extinguishing a portion of the capital of the national debt, it is unfortunate that the error of Sir R. Peel, uncorrected at present by his successors, should have made it impossible to borrow on terminable annuities at a low rate. It would seem to be the true policy of the treasury, to take measures for giving to terminable annuities such facilities of transfer, and such clear fairness of taxation, as to secure to them something like the same currency

with Consols. So far is this from being the case, that as Mr. Hubbard informs us, the Dead-Weight was at one time unsaleable.

I have already said, that the topic of *life annuities* purchased with money, is more open to discussion. It is true, no doubt, that the periodical payments may be separated into interest and repayment of principal; and that to tax the whole annuity, involves a tax upon the original purchase money. On the other hand, such annuities are generally bought as incomes to be spent. Now, under the system of taxation, direct or indirect, on expenditure, a system which preceded the income tax, and which will, no doubt, replace it whenever it ceases, the holders of life annuities had formerly, and will again have, to pay on the whole of their income; and as they had resolved to turn principal into income and to leave no fortune behind them, the purchase of life annuities is merely the accidental form of carrying out their resolution. The case is the same as if they had reckoned how long they had to live, and had spent a portion of their principal every year; and under this arrangement, the whole of their principal would have had to pay taxes on expenditure, if no income tax had been imposed. The holders of these annuities therefore, so far as they spend the whole of their incomes, are no poorer in consequence of the recent substitution of an income tax in place of expenditure taxes. Their annuities in short, were bought with principal but not with capital: with stock set apart for self-maintenance, not with stock set apart to be used in business.

The circumstances are quite different when the bank buys annuities for a term of years. The price here consists of an advance of *capital*, and in the absence of an income tax, the income annually received by the bank would not pay expenditure taxes, because that part of it which replaces the purchase money is capital, and is set apart to be again employed in business. I repeat, therefore, that the case of life annuities is open to dispute, if, as I assume, they are generally bought with the intention that they should be used as self-maintenance.

In the course of Mr. Newmarch's examination, Mr. Gladstone put to him a highly ingenious problem, to show that a reduction of the tax on life annuities would be unfair. He assumed that a gentleman had twin daughters: that he provided for the one by buying for her an annuity of 1,000*l.* at the National Debt Office, and for the other by a charge on his estate of 1,000*l.* a-year. Under the varying rate, the purchased annuity would pay a reduced tax; the charge on the estate would pay the full tax. Yet both the incomes are for life only, and both, in the absence of an income tax, would be worth the same sum in the market.

The Government, no doubt, as in a former case I adduced, ought to require the full tax from the possessor of the estate, because the

protection afforded ought to be paid for. I think also, that the possessor of the estate is justly entitled to deduct the full tax from the annual payment, because the sister is virtually an owner for the time being. But I have already expressed my doubt whether the sister who had a Government annuity, ought not on other grounds to pay the full tax.

But if we suppose that the two annuities were created on the lives of the sisters, in favour of the Bank of England and for a term of years, then the problem regains its significance. The solution seems to be, that if the creator of the annuities chooses to secure one on a property, the protection of which is more expensive to Government than is the protection of the other, the annuity secured on the expensive property must suffer accordingly. The father ought to buy a somewhat larger annuity to cover the difference.

This problem of the two sisters, was afterwards taken up by Mr. Lowe, and much of the time of the Committee was occupied with it, without any perceptible addition to the truth discovered.

X.—*Strictures on Distinguished Opinions. Mr. Warburton's Uniformity from Year to Year not really necessary. Purchased Annuities. 2. Dr. Farr's and the Actuaries' supposed Redemption as Illustration. Ought to Capitalize the Tax as well as the Income. 3. Mr. Mill's—that should not Tax Savings. Possible Result. But Savings are not made by Persons of precarious Incomes generally, because these are insufficient. A Surplus is necessary before People can save.*

It remains for me to make a few remarks upon the opinions propounded on this intricate topic, by several of the most distinguished statisticians.

1. I have already referred to the evidence given by Mr. Warburton, and reported in June, 1852, to the House of Commons. It has been commonly stated, and as I find, accurately stated, that Mr. Warburton regarded it as an essential feature of a just income tax, that the rate should be uniform from year to year. The actual tax, if 7*d.* one year, 9*d.* another year, and 1*s.* 4*d.* a third year, was, according to him, utterly unfair. If this opinion be true, the tax is condemned past redemption; since it would be found impossible to levy an unvarying tax to supply the variable needs of war, of peace, and of armed neutrality. The peculiar excellence of an income tax is its elasticity, and its consequent fitness to fill up an occasional gap in the exchequer; thus preventing the necessity of disturbing the relations of commerce by temporary augmentations of custom duties. Make the tax uniform from year to year, and you destroy the usefulness it possesses.

But this uniformity, as I have already noticed, is, on my principle, unnecessary for the demands of justice. Where the proceeds are to be applied to the current expenses of the year, and not to the execution of permanent improvements, I see no reason why the rate should not vary, as the demands of the treasury vary. Government lays out a certain sum this year in protecting the nation's great estate; that sum should be raised during the year: a smaller sum will be laid out next year; the smaller sum should be raised.

This difference of opinion, as to the necessity of uniformity in the annual rate, goes to the root of the matter. If such a necessity exists, an income tax always has been, and perhaps always will be, entirely unjust.

In another respect, Mr. Warburton seems to me mistaken; I mean in allowing no distinction between purchased terminable annuities and incomes from other sources. To him an income is an income, and must be taxed while it lasts.

2. As regards Dr. Farr and the Actuaries he represents, I have already given my reasons for dissenting from their views. These are clearly stated by Mr. Hume in his proposed report to the House of Commons, in June, 1852.

	Assessed Value.
	£
"A has 1,000 <i>l.</i> a-year in long annuities .....	6,875
"B " " in Consols, at par.....	33,333
"C " " from land, worth 30 years' purchase .....	30,000
"D " " from land, during his life.....	16,667
"E has the reversion of rents of 1,000 <i>l.</i> a-year after the death of D	16,666
"F has houses returning in current rents 1,000 <i>l.</i> a-year.....	16,000

"These values serve to represent the sums for which such annuities, rents, securities, and estates, which are all designated property, would sell; and they also express the extent of loss against which the holders are protected by the laws and institutions of the country. Your Committee repeat, that they know of no more accurate indication of the ability of the respective proprietors to pay the tax, than is furnished by the values of their respective properties."

The first item—the income from purchased terminable annuities—has been already fully discussed. The reasoning as to the other items may be tested by a supposition of Dr. Booth's paper, recently published in the *Statistical Journal*.

Let us imagine that Government proposed to the owners of these various incomes, to redeem their income tax; that tax having been made permanent at 1*s.* in the pound. What sum would each person pay? The owner in perpetuity of the land would pay thirty years' purchase; the holder of Consols thirty-three and one-third years'

purchase; the house owner sixteen years' purchase. The supposed reversioner of an estate would properly pay his sixteen and three-fifth years' purchase, in consideration of having his estate free of income tax when he should get possession at a future day. Such a composition would be perfectly just, on the supposition of an uniform annual rate in perpetuity; and uniformity in the annual rate would be necessary to make the composition just. Mr. Hume's schedule, excluding the long annuity case, which stands on ground of its own, would be a safe guide to the authorities who arranged the composition; yet, as it seems to me, it has no bearing on the question—what each person ought to pay annually in the absence of a composition.

But I will carry this fictitious redemption one step further. It might be inconvenient to some of these persons to lay down so large a sum as thirty or sixteen years' purchase of the tax; and an option might be given to pay a fixed annual sum in perpetuity. What would each pay? The owner of Consols would pay the most, because the Consols are arbitrarily set down at par, while the land is set down to yield  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. But if we say that the land and the Consols yield the same rate of interest, viz., 3 per cent., then each of them will be taxed at 1s. in perpetuity. The life tenant of the land and the reversioner would make up the 1s. between them. In short, the perpetuities would pay just as they do now. But the temporary incomes are differently circumstanced; if they are to pay in perpetuity, their rate must be lower. The owners of houses which were worth sixteen years' purchase would pay at 6d. in perpetuity. We might add to these a professional man, with an income worth eight years' purchase, and who would pay at 3d. in perpetuity.

This arrangement, however, would not be feasible; because the physician would have no security to give for the payment of the composition after his death; and the houses would furnish security for their owner, for a term of years only, and not for a perpetuity. These temporary incomes, therefore, must necessarily pay either a composition at once or an annual rate so long as the incomes subsist; and this annual rate will be precisely 1s. in the pound. The present value of 1s. in the pound annually on the houses is 16s.; the present value of 1s. in the pound annually on the medical income is 8s.; and these present values of the tax which the owners of these incomes will annually pay, bear the same proportion to the present values of the tax which the owners of land and Consols will pay, that the present values of the houses and medical fees bear to the present values of the land and Consols. Dr. Farr seems to me to have made a fatal error, in overlooking the fact, that when he capitalized the annual values of the properties, he ought also to have capitalized the annual taxes paid upon them.

3. Mr. J. S. Mill's opinions are worthy of particular attention. He is strongly opposed to Dr. Farr's plan, as involving palpable arithmetical fallacies. His own leading conception is, that savings from income ought not to be taxed; because, when invested, they yield an income which will itself be subject to tax. A curious case might occur under such a rule of exemption if carried out individually. A man might have a property of 1,000l. a-year; and saving the whole of the income, and reinvesting at 5 per cent., he might, in a long life, increase his property to 10,000l. a-year, without ever having paid a penny for the protection afforded to it by Government.

To this opinion of Mr. Mill I have already objected. If I have this year an income of 1,000l., I ought to pay the expense incurred by Government in protecting that income. The fact of my having saved 500l. of it, has in nowise diminished the Government expenditure on my behalf; and if, next year, my income is increased by 25l., I ought to pay for the protection of this 25l.

But even if savings ought not to be taxed, how are we to assess them so as to grant the exemption? Mr. Mill confesses that it is impossible to deal with each case *individually*; but he thinks the principle may be applied to *classes* of persons. He contends that certain classes may be *presumed* to save; these classes consisting of persons who have the strongest motives for saving, in consequence of the temporary or precarious nature of their incomes. He would exclude, however, the life tenants in settled property.

Mr. Mill's first proposition then is, that savings ought to be exempted. But he exhibited in his evidence a decided wish that professional men should, if possible, have a greater reduction on their whole incomes than traders. He was asked whether he desired this on the ground that the savings from professional incomes are greater than the savings from trading incomes. He confessed that professional men do not save a greater proportion of their incomes than traders save. But as he would deal with classes, not with individuals; and as the class of professional men has the stronger inducement to save, in consequence of the more precarious character of the income earned; he would *presume* that professional savings exceed trade savings, and would wish their taxation reduced accordingly.

Now it may, perhaps, be thought impossible to prove that one class saves a greater proportion of its income than another class; though I have no hesitation in saying, that within my own range of observation, numbers of fortunes are saved by traders, and few indeed by professional men; almost nothing by divinity, little by medicine, an occasional fortune by law. But if Mr. Mill had heard the evidence given by other witnesses, he would have been slow in



founding any argument on a presumption flatly contradicted by the testimony of competent judges.

The Committee examined three medical men—Mr. Lewis, Mr. Fergusson, and Dr. Webster. All these gentlemen strongly advocated the claims of the Faculty. In order to support Mr. Mill's presumption, they ought to have asked for a reduction of the tax of their brethren on the ground, that in consequence of the temporary and precarious character of their incomes, they were obliged to save a large proportion of them; and that these savings ought to be exempted. I am sincerely sorry to say that their argument was a very different one. Instead of dwelling on the savings effected by the Faculty, these gentlemen asserted that the incomes earned are generally miserably small; and that it is so late in life before a man gets so much as a decent maintenance, that to save at all was impossible; and that only a small number even of life insurances are effected. If, therefore, savings are to constitute the ground of reduction, medical men are out of court.

Evidence again, was given as to the solicitors of the kingdom. Mr. Cookson, President of the Incorporated Law Society, said that the greater number of the profession have very limited means. He stoutly fought their battle for a reduced rate; but he did not rest their claim, as according to Mr. Mill, he ought to have rested it, on the ground that the temporary and precarious character of their incomes caused them to save a large proportion of them; and that these savings ought to be tax free until they were invested. He rested their claim on the ground, that of the 10,000 attorneys in England and Wales, 9,000 feel painfully the pressure of the tax; and he demanded relief, not for 1,000 richer members, by whom, no doubt, the savings of the profession are effected, but for the 9,000 poorer members whose capital is so small, that they are obliged to ask their clients before-hand for any heavy fees to counsel or any considerable probate duty; and who earn so little that a marvellous number of them apply for any vacant clerkship or secretaryship. It is useless for Mr. Mill to *presume* savings, when there is direct evidence that they do not exist.

No evidence was tendered as to the working clergy: but all who are acquainted with the subject, will agree, that in no other class is there a more life and death struggle with poverty. A clergyman is *ex officio* a gentleman, and is bound to make a decent appearance, and to bring up his family as ladies and gentlemen. Ask any one who goes behind the scenes, who knows something more than the outside suit of decent black, who has to do with schools for the families of clergymen, who is concerned with societies privately conducted, for distributing to the most necessitous (I blush to mention it) the cast off clothes of the laity; and you will be sur-

nished with tales of distress that are appalling. As to savings for the future, men do not put by part of their income until they have provided the necessaries of life. Men buy bread and clothes in preference to Consols and India Bonds.

Mr. Mill, I think, in presuming the fact of savings on the part of persons having temporary or precarious incomes, overlooked a highly important feature of the case. That *other things being the same*, such persons are more bound to save, and are more likely to save, than are the possessors of permanent incomes, is undeniable. But other things are not the same. The evidence I have quoted shows that, as regards professional men, the temporary and precarious incomes are also in most cases, small incomes. Now, in order to effect accumulation, there must be not only the motive to save, but also the means of saving; there must be not only the desire to accumulate, but also the surplus income from which to accumulate. A labourer on 15s. a-week, with a wife and a young family, can scarcely save anything, and ought not to save anything considerable, because he cannot do so without cruelly pinching his family. To live worse than a pauper now, lest one should become a pauper hereafter, is a folly. A clergyman on 150l. a-year, with a wife and family, can save only by living like a miser; by sacrificing present life to the future means of living. To presume savings from the labourer and the clergyman, from men steeped in poverty, is to overlook the facts of every day life.

Another objection to Mr. Mill's opinions, and one urged upon him in Committee, was this:—that as savings are in fact, made generally by persons with surplus incomes, and not by persons with narrow though precarious incomes, the result of exemption granted to actual savings would be to benefit the comparatively rich. But if for this reason, *actual* savings ought not to constitute a ground for exemption, *presumed* savings certainly cannot constitute such ground.

XI.—*Mercy as well as Justice required. Present Exemption of Incomes under 100l. a-year; Justice of this. Proposed Deduction of 100l. from all Assessments. Graduation an apparent result. Answer. My own Inconsistency.*

Such, then, appears to me to be the justice of the case. Having regard to justice only, and excluding the small part of the Government expenditure which is directed to purposes other than protection of the subject, taxes ought to be levied in proportion to the incomes enjoyed under the protection of the State. But justice is not the only principle on which Government is conducted and ought to be conducted; mercy is as much the duty of nations as of individuals. Nor can it be alleged that in the administration of this country mercy has been forgotten; the six or seven millions

annually spent in relief of the poor, are sufficient to rebut such an accusation.

But this quality of mercy, which the nation strains so far as to save the unthrifty, and even the dissolute, from the resulting destitution, ought to be extended to the really poor among the middle classes; and it is so extended when persons having less than 100*l.* a-year are exempted from income tax. There would be a real hardship in taking this tax from the middle classes of a lower grade of fortune than this; for it is a harsh, unbending tax, and sins against Montesquieu's advice, so to levy taxes that they shall be little felt. A destitute family can avoid many expenditure taxes, by confining its consumption to the necessaries of life; but the arbitrary demand for so many pounds, shillings, and pence, must be satisfied.

And I think there is more than mercy in the case. I have hitherto regarded the Government expenditure as incurred for the protection of the subject; and so it is principally, but yet not entirely. There are local rates for the relief of the poor; ought the middle class poor to be made to contribute? A considerable sum is spent by the general Government, and most usefully spent, in promoting education. Is it right to call on the poor surgeon, and the poor clergyman, and the poor widow, to contribute to the education of the labourer's children, when they are at their wits end how to educate their own children? Our army and navy, again, are principally employed in securing us and our dependencies from violence, but not altogether; some part of their expenditure is incurred, and long may it be incurred, in promoting the greatness and glory of the nation. Now a poor solicitor, or a poor tradesman, may be as patriotic as his richer neighbour; and yet he may feel that until his family is decently provided for, no part of his means ought to be diverted even to so good an object as the greatness of his country. Money laid out for his protection he ought to repay, but he may be excused if he claims to be exempted from taxes to supply what he must regard as the superfluous expenditure of the Government. The means for that expenditure ought to be supplied by persons of competent incomes. Now, if the whole national revenue were supplied by one tax, it would be necessary to reduce the rate on small incomes; but as only a small part of the revenue is supplied by the income tax, it is right to exempt small incomes altogether.

Many persons however, are dissatisfied with one part of the manner of exemption. A man with 105*l.* a-year feels it very hard that he should pay 2*l.* to 4*l.*, while his neighbour with 100*l.* a-year pays nothing. On the face of the subject, it appears that the fair arrangement would be to tax every one on the excess above 100*l.* a-year, so that 105*l.* would pay tax on 5*l.*; 200*l.* would pay on 100*l.*; 1,000*l.* would pay on 900*l.*

This obvious and hackneyed alteration, was mentioned in Committee, but was not much discussed. The principal objection made, was, that the alteration would cause a great number of claims, so small as not to be worth enforcing. At the present rate of 9*d.* in the pound, an income of 105*l.* would pay only 3*s.* 9*d.* Too much was made of this. I have noticed that such small matters as Easter Dues and Vicarial Tithes are regularly collected, though some of the claims may not exceed 1*s.* Traders also, collect all their accounts, however small some may be. The explanation is this:—all who have paid considerable rates or taxes, know that it is the considerable amounts which are first looked up, in order that the collector may soon pay in a large proportion of his whole liabilities. Then the moderate amounts are got in; and, last of all, when the collector has time of little value, the half-crowns and shillings are carefully gathered up.

But there is another consideration of a more serious character; and that is the alteration of incidence which would follow the proposed mode of exemption. The relief granted to the income of 105*l.*, would cause an additional burden to some one. The reduction of all assessments by 100*l.*, would cause so great a diminution in the proceeds of the tax, that a higher rate would have to be imposed. The income of 105*l.* therefore, would not gain the whole exemption on 100*l.*, because he would pay at a rather higher rate than before on the 5*l.* still assessed; this, however, would be a trifle. The income of 1,000*l.* being assessed at only 900*l.*, would escape one hundred ninepences, but would pay a much larger sum than this 3*l.* 15*s.*, because he would be charged at a higher rate on the 900*l.*

There is a certain boundary, somewhere between 100*l.* and 1,000*l.*; and all incomes on one side of this boundary would be gainers by the proposed exemption; all the incomes on the other side would be losers. For the sake of illustration, say that the loss to the revenue being about a million, it would take another 1*d.* of income tax to replace it, so that we should now have to pay at 10*d.* instead of at 9*d.* Then neglecting the present reduction on incomes between 100*l.* and 150*l.*, the man who has 105*l.* a-year, and now pays 105 ninepences (or 3*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.*), would then pay five tenpences (or 4*s.* 2*d.*), and would be a gainer of 3*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* The man who with 1,000*l.* a-year now pays 37*l.* 10*s.*, would still pay 37*l.* 10*s.* All persons having a less income than 1,000*l.* a-year, would be benefited; all persons having more than 1,000*l.* a-year, would be injured. An income of 2,000*l.* would pay 4*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* additional; an income of 10,000*l.* would pay 37*l.* 10*s.* additional.

If, still for the sake of illustration, we state the loss to Government by the change at something more than two millions, we should be taxed at 11*d.* in place of our present 9*d.* When I assumed the

additional tax at 1*l.*, I found that the boundary line between the gainers and the losers was 1,000*l.* a-year; now I assume the additional tax at 2*l.*, I find that the boundary line is 550*l.* a-year. All persons with incomes under 550*l.* would be gainers, all with incomes over 550*l.* would be losers.

It must be confessed that a plan which calls upon rich men to pay more in order that poor men may pay less, and not only to pay more, but to pay a larger proportion as the income increases, has something of the odious appearance of graduation; and it would require careful consideration, before we adopted any plan, which seemed to countenance the notion, that there should be one price of Government protection for the rich and another price for the poor. But, on the other hand, it is one thing to adopt graduation as one of the canons of taxation, and another thing to accept graduation in a particular case, as an incidental result of a scheme otherwise desirable. Besides, I recommend this plan of exemption altogether on the score of justice; we also abstain from graduation on the score of justice. It can hardly be true, that the exemption is just, and the graduation it involves is unjust. The explanation, I believe, is this:—the owner of 2,000*l.* a-year would have his assessment increased by the exemption; the owner of 10,000*l.* a-year would have his assessment increased in a still higher proportion. But the standard by which the increase is measured, is the present assessment, and this present assessment I hold to be unjust, because it over-taxes small incomes from 100*l.* a-year upwards. If this unjust assessment had never been made, no comparison would have arisen between it and the new assessment.

If, then, this apparent graduation may be disregarded, we should do well, I think, in adopting this simple plan of taxing everyone on the excess of income above 100*l.* a-year. This would give all the relief asked for by Mr. Cookson and others, on behalf of the lower class of incomes; and it would justly excuse the poorer of the middle classes from contributing to that part of the Government expenditure, which such persons may fairly regard as superfluous, however desirable.

Finally, I may be asked how I can reconcile my present opinions with those I professed last year. I am obliged to confess that I cannot reconcile them. In one respect only am I consistent; I *then* differed from Mr. Warburton, I *now* differ from Mr. Warburton; but even this degree of consistency is purely a matter of accident. The essential difference between my two sets of opinions is easily explained. I did not then apprehend the principle on which all my present argumentation is founded; the principle that every man ought to pay taxes in proportion to the cost incurred by Government for his protection.

XII.—*Summary.*

In a paper which I read before the Statistical Society, in April, 1861, I maintained the opinion that the income tax ought to be a discriminating one, and ought to be levied at a different rate on temporary and on permanent incomes. I still think that the income tax ought to be a discriminating one, but in a different mode, as to different classes, and for different reasons. After reading the evidence before the House of Commons' Committee, I am of opinion that the most useful measure of relief would be simply to deduct 100*l.* a-year from every assessment whatever, so that an income of 105*l.* should pay only on 5*l.*

The ground on which I rest my case is this:—I divide the whole expenditure of Government into two unequal portions, the larger consisting of that part necessarily incurred for the protection of person and property, both from internal and external depredators; the smaller consisting of that part, advantageously but not necessarily incurred, for education, for promotion of the fine arts, for the pomp and glitter of royalty, for the maintenance and increase abroad of the greatness and glory of the nation.

1. The necessary expenditure is by far the larger portion, if we include in it the interest on the national debt, nearly all of which was contracted with more or less wisdom and more or less frugality, in external military and naval operations. Persons who hold that this debt was unjustly or improvidently contracted, may regard part or the whole of the interest as belonging to the head of superfluous expenditure.

Now, I hold that everyone ought to reimburse to the Government that part of the necessary expenditure which is incurred on his behalf. What that part is, it is impossible to calculate individually; it is assumed that it is proportionate to each man's income. Further investigation may show that an *earned* income involves more cost to Government than an *independent* income costs—or the reverse may be the case.

The error that has vitiated most reasonings on this topic, is this: Assessments having been made in proportion to men's incomes, it has been inferred that the burden ought to be laid on in proportion as persons are able to bear it; whereas, as I contend, the income is taken merely as the nearest measure of the cost incurred by Government on such man's behalf.

This principle of justice—this rule that each man should pay for Government protection just as he pays for the commodities he buys, does away at once with all the proposals to modify assessments according to age, tenure of income, and savings effected or presumed; because an old man, a man of temporary income, or a frugal



man, causes just as much present cost to the Government, as a young man, a man of permanent income, or a man who spends his income.

Much light is thrown on this part of the subject, by dividing Government expenditure into the current expenses of the year, and permanent improvements, such as fortifications. The arguments used in favour of modifying the assessments of old men, &c., have great force as applied to permanent improvements effected by Government.

Another inference is inevitable. It has been held by Mr. Warburton and others, that an undiscriminating tax is just, but only on this condition, that the rate should be uniform from year to year. Clogged with this condition, the opinion has no practical value; since the income tax has not hitherto been uniform from year to year, and is not likely to become so. My view of the principle of taxation does away with this apparent necessity for uniformity.

2. Now, as to that part of the Government expenditure which persons of narrow means may fairly regard as superfluous, I hold, with regard to local rates, that persons of very limited means ought to pay for police, for administration of justice, for cleansing of streets; because the cost of these things is incurred for the benefit of all; but I cannot see the justice of rating such persons for the relief of the poor. The poor law funds ought, I think, to be supplied altogether by persons who have no difficulty in maintaining and decently educating their own families.\* So with respect to the expenditure of the general Government; the same class ought not to be taxed for education, promotion of the fine arts, and maintenance of the glory of the nation.

On this ground I rest my defence of the proposed deduction of 100*l.* a-year from every assessment,—a change that would relieve the lowest class of incomes considerably, and would throw the charge of the superfluous expenditure more upon the richer men, who could scarcely complain of this moderate addition to their burdens. I do not regard the deduction of 100*l.* a-year from all assessments, as precisely that measure of relief which the struggling classes are entitled to; a more minute investigation might lead us to adopt a different scale. I do not think, however, that this relief can be too great; and I advocate the granting it, because I see little practical difficulty in the way, and because I see that it would satisfy the loud demand for a change which justice itself requires.

I am convinced besides, that the present tax is unjustly levied as regards houses, mines, quarries, and purchased terminable annuities; I am not clear, however, as to purchased life annuities. I further think that Section 133 gives an unfair reduction to traders.

\* In point of *justice merely*, the poor law funds ought to be raised by those who are likely to benefit by them; that is by the labouring classes. Those funds, so raised, would constitute a great National Benefit Society.

EXTENT of PAUPERISM in the DISTRESSED UNIONS in LANCASHIRE and other parts of the NORTH of ENGLAND, 1861-62. By FREDERICK PURDY, Principal of the Statistical Department, Poor Law Board.

SINCE the manifestation of Distress in Lancashire, and in some other Manufacturing districts, which has been ascribed to the outbreak of civil war in North America, and to the great diminution in the shipments of raw cotton to Europe which followed that event, the Poor Law Board has laid before Parliament, monthly returns of the number of paupers receiving relief in those Unions which have, up to the present time, most severely suffered by the suspension of their ordinary manufacturing pursuits. The "Cotton Famine" being, according to popular belief, the predominant cause of the distress.

The data for the table at page 382 and 383, have been abstracted from the Official returns alluded to; and represent the total number of Paupers, both in-door and out-door, in receipt of relief on the last day of the last week in each month, from November, 1861, to July, 1862, inclusive; lunatic paupers, in asylums, and vagrants, however, are excluded from the statement; those two classes constitute but a small portion of the total pauperism. On the 1st January, 1861, in the Union-County of Lancaster, for example, the asylum lunatics numbered 1,461; and the vagrants 204; together 1,665.

The Unions ranged in the statement under Cheshire and Lancashire, contain the great Cotton manufacturing district of England; there are considerable variations in the proportion of their respective inhabitants who are engaged in the cotton trade; and considerable varieties, also, in the character of the manufactured product. To these causes, the unequal pressure, borne by some parts of the district, is attributable. Thus, in the unions of Oldham and of Preston, both having the same amount of population, and, according to the census of 1851, about the same number of adults employed in manufactures; it will be observed that at the latest date, the pauperism in Oldham was 1 in 27; and in Preston 1 in 9, of the population. The pauperism of Preston was *threefold* that of Oldham. In the populous union of Chorlton it was less, by *one-half* per cent., than that of Oldham; but, in 1851, Chorlton employed only 16·7 per

Note.—Mr. Purdy has been good enough to prepare this Paper at my request, at short notice, with a view of placing before the Fellows the latest and most complete abstract of the official returns of the distress arising out of the Cotton Famine.—ED. S. J.

cent. of the adult population in manufactures; while the ratio in the Oldham Union was 39·8.

The ratio of persons employed in the various branches of industry, according to the Census of 1861, cannot be stated at present; because, the labours of the Commissioners, charged with the collection and publication of those important statistics, are not yet completed. The industrial statistics of 1851 are printed, in respect of every union in England and Wales, in tables (B) and (C) of the series of returns issued by the Poor Law Board, under the title of "Poor Rates and Pauperism."

Statements have been recently made, both in and out of Parliament, as to the number of persons who, in this country, are dependant upon the Cotton manufacture. Some of those accounts differ so widely from what we actually know of the number of operatives engaged in this industry, that their authors appear to be misinformed; or to have omitted from their statements some important qualifications. In May, 1861, according to a return\* prepared at the Home Office, under the supervision of one of the Factory Inspectors, there were in Cheshire and Lancashire 356,487 persons employed in every description of Cotton factory, viz. :—

Males (children and adults) .....	152,553
Females „ .....	205,934

These numbers were taken at a time when the greatest activity prevailed in the cotton trade.

Most of the wives of the operatives and all their children, legally capable of work, find employment in the mills; and will be included in the numbers set out above. Of the Males employed, 101,015 were returned as over 18 years of age. If we assume that these were all heads of families, and multiply that number by 4·8, which is the proportion of persons to each family in England, we find that there were 484,872 persons directly dependant for their subsistence on the cotton factory wages of the district. In round numbers they may be stated as *half a million*.†

The numbers thrown out of employment by the injury done to collateral and subsidiary trades, through the stoppage of the cotton-mills, it is not possible to estimate with any degree of certainty.

On inspecting the numbers for July, it is noticeable that there were five Unions, in the cotton manufacturing districts, much more

\* House of Commons, No. 23, "Factories," session 1862.

† Mr. Potter has stated in a letter published in the "Times" of the 4th July, that *four millions* depend upon the Cotton manufacture "for the very necessities of life."

deeply pauperised than the others. In the next statement these five places are ranged according to their relative burdens; and, the steps exhibited, with which they approached their present condition. This is shown by setting out month by month, *the rate per cent. of increase in pauperism*, when compared with that which prevailed at the corresponding periods of the *previous year*:—

*Five most Pauperised Unions.—Percentages of Increase of Pauperism in each Month over same Month in previous Year.*

Unions, &c.	1861.		1862.						
	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Preston .....	72	109	191	252	245	243	273	281	304
Blackburn .....	70	93	115	210	279	268	291	324	338
Manchester .....	45	64	79	93	107	108	115	129	189
Ashton-under-Lyne ..	27	40	137	153	178	265	385	448	582
Stockport.....	55	59	144	204	197	226	272	306	400

*Note.*—Thus in July, 1862, the pauperism at Preston was 304 *per cent.* higher than in July, 1861.

It would appear from proposals made in Lancashire, and in other parts of the kingdom, that a fear was entertained that our great manufacturing county would be unable to afford the necessary relief to the poor, who, deprived of their usual means of subsistence, must seek the aid of public charity, or of private benevolence. Fortunately, the district upon which the main cost will be incident, is one where the development of wealth has been immense.

Taking the annual value of Real property, assessed under Schedule A, for the purposes of the property tax, as the best exponent of the rateable value, it will be found that in seventeen years, Lancashire has increased 53 per cent. in this item of her wealth.

The figures under the principal heads are shown in the following table; they have been extracted from two returns, presented to Parliament by the Commissioners for Inland Revenue.

*Annual Value of Real Property in the County of Lancaster, Assessed to the Property Tax in the Years ended at April, 1843 and 1860.*

Years.	Lands (including Tithes).	Messuages.	Quarries.	Mines.	Iron Works.
	£	£	£	£	£
1843.....	1,676,145	4,777,536	21,038	348,007	1,174
'60.....	1,605,790	7,019,978	34,667	633,420	5,068

  

Years.	Canals.	Railways.	Other Property.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
1843.....	71,590	593,515	9,507	7,498,512
'60.....	197,499	1,564,366	393,063	11,453,851
Increase in 17 years .....	—	—	—	3,955,339

The highest poor rate known up to the present time, in any place in Lancashire, is that of the Preston Union. It is estimated by the Chairman of the Union, that the whole expenditure in relief, for the current year, will amount to 50,000*l.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* in the pound on the assessable property, throughout the Union.\*

It has been computed, upon the assumption that the highest weekly expenditure hitherto attained throughout Lancashire, will represent the average for the year, that the expenditure for relief to the poor in the parochial year 1862-3, will be 630,000*l.*† for the whole of the Union-County.

A well informed public writer has maintained, as a probable view in reference to the present distress, that "The manufacturers and merchants of Lancashire are deriving a balance of profit from the war in the United States, and the check to the importation of the raw material. At no single point has any scarcity of stocks yet been shown, the total on hand at most marts being still such as to check a full response to the upward movement of prices here. The amount of over-trading carried on during the years immediately preceding 1861, must therefore have been beyond all former experience even in the wild speculations of this country, and it is palpable that the events which are now causing distress among the Manchester operatives, have converted that which would have brought ruin upon a large number of employers and shippers into a trade which

\* See Report in the "Times," of the 7th August.

† The details are given in the "Manchester Guardian," for the 5th August.

"has yielded, as far as they are concerned, highly remunerative returns. Of course all such estimates are idle; but there are persons who believe that the pecuniary difference to Lancashire has amounted to between 20,000,000*l.* and 40,000,000*l.* sterling. Whatever the amount, it must have been enormous, and there is consequently every reason to hope that the wealth of the district will be found able to continue to make the sacrifices that have already been commenced, and that may be essential during the winter. It is believed, moreover, that the pressure of these sacrifices will induce an increased readiness to meet the outlay for new machinery for the more general use, not only of Indian cotton, but of the various fibres that may be adopted as substitutes. It is asserted in some quarters that much reluctance to run any risk even in this respect has been manifested, but when it is found that it is only by such means that employment can be created so as to lessen the relief rates, an impulse will be imparted to the exercise of ingenuity and the embarking of capital, which may have a most important and salutary bearing on the industrial skill of the country."\*

It may be remarked as regards the other Unions, that the distress in Coventry and Nottingham arose upon the French Reciprocity Treaty coming into operation; and, that the pauperism in both unions has considerably declined from the highest point recently attained; though, it is still much above its average level. Stoke-upon-Trent, Birmingham, Ecclesall, Bierlow, Leeds, and Sheffield, suffered by the stoppage of their export trade to America; but, the table satisfactorily shows, that, with the approach of summer, the pauperism in all those unions greatly diminished; and, that in respect to Leeds, it is now so low, as to indicate a very active demand for labour in the great centre of the woollen trade.

\* "Times" City article, 9th August.



Statement of the Number of Persons (exclusive of Lunatics in Asylums and Vagrants),  
of each of the Nine Months,

1 Unions, &c.	2 Population in 1861.	3 4 5 6 7 Number of Persons				
		3 1861.		4 1862.		
		November.	December.	January.	February.	March.
<b>CHESHIRE.</b>						
Macclesfield.....	61,517	2,602	2,871	3,015	3,148	2,696
Stockport .....	94,361	2,123	2,308	3,721	4,494	4,573
<b>LANCASHIRE.</b>						
Ashton-under-Lyne .....	134,761	2,220	2,486	4,293	4,639	5,158
Barton-upon-Irwell .....	39,050	853	924	936	950	917
Blackburn .....	119,937	4,519	5,278	7,233	9,274	10,060
Bolton.....	130,270	3,750	3,895	4,169	4,251	4,232
Burnley .....	75,588	1,632	1,694	1,998	2,516	2,638
Bury .....	101,142	2,151	2,542	3,204	3,693	3,549
Chorley .....	41,679	1,530	1,748	1,952	2,039	1,900
Chorlton .....	169,573	2,892	3,144	3,528	3,813	3,884
Clitheroe .....	20,476	765	779	870	947	867
Haslingden .....	69,782	1,070	1,423	1,656	1,987	1,673
Liverpool, parish .....	269,733	15,684	15,864	18,024	42,618*	28,217
Manchester, township.....	185,040	7,757	9,494	11,356	11,904	12,773
Oldham .....	111,267	2,109	2,167	2,652	2,942	2,922
Preston .....	110,488	5,641	7,021	9,859	11,574	11,507
Prestwich.....	20,476	674	731	812	816	801
Rochdale .....	91,758	2,373	2,572	3,667	4,135	4,239
Salford .....	105,334	3,150	3,731	4,307	4,334	4,411
Warrington.....	43,788	1,435	1,583	1,704	1,709	1,731
Wigan .....	94,559	2,765	2,843	2,945	3,052	2,969
<b>NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.</b>						
Nottingham.....	75,753	5,382	5,609	6,206	6,154	6,075
<b>STAFFORDSHIRE.</b>						
Stoke-upon-Trent, parish	71,292	2,491	2,610	2,915	2,843	2,830
<b>WARWICKSHIRE.</b>						
Birmingham, parish .....	212,510	12,771	13,284	13,311	11,627	10,654
Coventry .....	41,647	4,049	4,285	4,556	4,715	4,425
<b>YORK, W. R.</b>						
Ecclesall Bierlow .....	63,618	2,955	3,241	3,330	2,916	2,788
Leeds, township .....	117,553	3,246	3,434	3,559	3,528	3,413
Sheffield .....	128,929	8,153	8,935	9,645	8,494	7,726
Totals .....	2,801,881	106,742	116,496	135,453	165,112*	149,681

\* The excessive number of this week was entirely due to the increase occasioned at Liverpool

Note.—The figures above are abstracted from a paper of the past session, viz., House of

in receipt of Relief in the Distressed Unions of the North of England, in the last Week  
ended with July, 1862.

8 Unions, &c.	9 10 11 Receiving Relief.				12 Increase per Cent. in Paupers in July, 1862, as compared with July, 1861. Per cent.	13 Ratio per Cent. of Paupers to Population, last Week of July. Per cent.	14 Unions, &c.
	1862.						
	April.	May.	June.	July.			
<b>CHESHIRE.</b>							
Macclesfield	2,837	2,984	2,972	2,959	28	4.81	
Stockport	5,081	5,406	6,038	7,241	400	7.67	
<b>LANCASHIRE.</b>							
Ashton-under-Lyne	6,758	8,434	9,632	11,964	582	8.88	
Barton-upon-Irwell	912	918	963	1,137	48	2.91	
Blackburn	9,998	10,685	11,543	12,028	338	10.03	
Bolton	4,235	4,449	4,491	4,446	41	3.41	
Burnley	3,354	3,317	3,398	3,570	170	4.72	
Bury	3,708	3,734	3,866	4,400	126	4.35	
Chorley	2,003	2,190	2,402	2,369	84	5.68	
Chorlton	3,893	4,279	4,509	5,417	96	3.19	
Clitheroe	1,020	1,030	1,025	1,000	70	4.88	
Haslingden	1,657	1,663	1,769	2,354	176	3.37	
Liverpool, parish	18,214	16,734	15,572	15,351	16	5.69	
Manchester, township	12,296	12,795	14,255	16,817	189	9.09	
Oldham	3,042	2,969	3,065	4,180	150	3.76	
Preston	10,895	11,826	12,145	12,525	304	11.34	
Prestwich	780	830	876	948	55	4.63	
Rochdale	4,477	4,371	4,396	5,129	156	5.59	
Salford	4,506	4,455	4,640	5,221	109	4.96	
Warrington	1,670	1,642	1,642	1,686	39	3.85	
Wigan	3,172	3,619	3,626	3,777	43	3.99	
<b>NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.</b>							
Nottingham	5,736	5,099	4,785	4,512	22†	5.96	
<b>STAFFORDSHIRE.</b>							
Stoke-upon-Trent, psh.	2,637	2,576	2,505	2,513	6	3.52	
<b>WARWICKSHIRE.</b>							
Birmingham, parish	10,068	9,971	9,543	9,314	10	4.38	
Coventry	3,053	1,799	1,270	1,416	56†	3.40	
<b>YORK, W. R.</b>							
Ecclesall Bierlow	2,586	2,286	2,168	2,101	29†	3.33	
Leeds, township	3,414	3,264	3,143	3,070	1	2.61	
Sheffield	7,387	6,750	6,411	6,400	21†	4.96	
Totals	139,389	140,075	142,650	153,845	75	5.49	

by the prevalence of easterly winds, which stopped the principal business of the port.

† Decrease.

Commons, No. 502. The last column of ratios, however, was computed for this table.

STATISTICS of the GENERAL HOSPITALS of LONDON, 1861.

THE tables which follow embody the facts for the Year 1861, forwarded from the several General Hospitals of London, in pursuance of the resolutions passed at a meeting held at Guy's Hospital on 21st June, 1861, at the instance of Thomas Turner, Esq., Treasurer of the Hospital.\*

1. That this meeting considers it of the utmost importance that the metropolitan hospitals should adopt one uniform system of registration of patients.

2. That this meeting recommends, that at every metropolitan hospital, there be kept one or more books, which shall comprise the following particulars relating to the patients:—the Age, Sex, Social Relation (Mar., Single, Wid.), Occupation, Name of Disease, or Injury, Date of Admission and Discharge, Result, Days in Hospital, and a column for remarks.

3. That in the case of those hospitals which have not yet adopted a system of

\* The following gentlemen were present at the meeting:—From St. Bartholomew's Hospital, Dr. Edwards; Guy's Hospital, Dr. Barlow and Dr. Steele; St. Thomas's Hospital, Dr. Barker; The London Hospital, Dr. Little; St. George's Hospital, Dr. Dickenson; King's College Hospital, Dr. Guy and Mr. Blyth; The Middlesex Hospital, Dr. Stewart and Mr. Moore; St. Mary's Hospital, Dr. Broadbent.

TABLE I.—General Results. (No distinction

Hospital.	Remaining	Admitted	TOTAL.	Discharged
	1st January, 1861.			during the Year.
	No.	No.	No.	No.
St. Bartholomew's .....	559	5,565	6,124	4,409
Guy's .....	493	4,867	5,360	2,553
St. Thomas's .....	443	3,992	4,335	1,946
London .....	351	4,169	4,520	2,054
St. George's .....	335	3,646	3,981	1,605
† Middlesex .....	223	2,042	2,265	1,813
St. Mary's .....	131	1,691	1,822	1,016
Westminster .....	143	1,522	1,665	1,373
King's College .....	120	1,332	1,452	726
University „ .....	100	1,286	1,386	655
Royal Free .....	79	1,190	1,269	760
Charing Cross .....	98	923	1,023	843
Metropolitan Free .....	8	146	154	65
Great Northern .....	5	145	150	132
Totals .....	3,088	32,418	35,506	19,950

† The figures given for this hospital are those supplied to the Statistical Department of the Board of Trade. Through the absence from England of the registrar of the other hospitals could not be obtained.

registration embracing the above particulars, it is recommended that they employ a register book containing all the annexed particulars in printed columns:—

Number of Patient. | Date of Admission. | Name. | Residence (Street and Parish). | Medical Officer. | Ward. | Age. | Male. | Female. | Soc. Relat. (M. S. W.) | Occupation. | Name of Disease or Injury. | Date of Discharge. | Result. | Days in Hospital. | Remarks.

It is further suggested that the first set of headings commencing with "Number," and terminating with "Ward," be printed on the left hand page, and that the remainder be placed on the right hand page of the Register; and it will also be found convenient if each page of the register book should be ruled to contain either 25, 50, or 100 horizontal lines, each line to give the particulars of an individual case.

4. That this meeting recommends, that as far as practicable in the column of the register book headed Disease or Injury, the nomenclature employed by the Registrar-General be adopted, with the additions contained in the forms submitted by Miss Nightingale to the International Statistical Congress.

5. That the Council of the *Statistical Society* having kindly undertaken to publish in their *Journal* some of the leading statistics of the metropolitan hospitals, if provided annually with the necessary information, the authorities of the several metropolitan hospitals be requested, at the close of each year, to draw up and communicate to that Society a summary of the statistics of the hospital for the year; such summary to comprise the data tabulated in the manner represented on the accompanying form.

6. That it be suggested to the authorities of the several metropolitan hospitals, that it will be of great public advantage if they will also publish annually a full report of the statistics of disease treated within the hospital, following, as far as practicable, the arrangement and nomenclature employed by the Registrar-General and by Miss Nightingale in the paper referred to in the third resolution.

7. That in the opinion of this meeting, it is essential there should be in every hospital an officer charged specially with the duty of attending to the registration of patients.

THOMAS TURNER, *Chairman.*

of Sex, or of Medical or Surgical Cases.)

Relieved.	Unrelieved.	Discharged for Special Reasons.	Died.	Remaining 1st January, 1862.	Hospital.
No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	
—	293	303	597	522	St. Bartholomew's
1,431	309	126	458	483	Guy's
1,461	77	19	380	452	St. Thomas's
1,474	23	264	350	355	London
1,682	26	36	318	314	St. George's
—	—	—	239	213	Middlesex †
384	50	62	174	136	St. Mary's
—	—	—	149	157	Westminster
348	86	23	143	126	King's College
422	42	11	144	112	University „
301	20	36	80	72	Royal Free
—	—	—	77	103	Charing Cross
58	3	4	10	14	Metropolitan Free
—	—	—	12	6	Great Northern
7,561	929	884	3,131	3,065	Totals

of the Board of Trade. Through the absence from England of the registrar of the other hospitals could not be obtained.

TABLE II.—Medical and Surgical

Hospital.	Medical Wards.					
	Remaining 1st January, 1861.	Admitted during the Year.	TOTAL.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Remaining 1st January, 1862.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
St. Bartholomew's .....	219	2,181	2,400	1,781	408	211
Guy's .....	221	2,120	2,341	1,834	303	204
St. Thomas's .....	179	2,044	2,223	1,770	264	189
London .....	103	1,256	1,359	1,098	161	100
St. George's.....	116	1,675	1,791	1,478	195	118
Middlesex .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	61	893	954	784	109	61
Westminster .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
King's College .....	57	655	712	557	95	60
University „ .....	52	614	666	530	89	47
Royal Free .....	25	297	322	265	34	23
Charing Cross .....	39	435	474	390	51	33
Metropolitan Free .....	2	76	78	65	6	7
Great Northern .....	2	24	26	22	4	—
Totals .....	1,076	12,270	13,346	10,574	1,710	1,033

TABLE III.—Average Number of

Hospital.	All Cases.				Medical	
	Average Number Resident.			Mean Residence.	Average Number	
	Males.	Females.	Total.		Males.	Females.
St. Bartholomew's .....	—	—	555	36	—	—
Guy's .....	297	212	509	35	127	93
St. Thomas's .....	276	184	460	39	108	93
London .....	213	112	325	29	55	46
St. George's.....	177	145	322	27	61	62
Middlesex .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	77	56	142	31	29	36
Westminster .....	—	—	134	32	—	—
King's College .....	64	56	120	33	30	29
University „ .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Royal Free .....	34	45	79	28	12	15
Charing Cross .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Metropolitan Free .....	5	7	12	27	2	3
Great Northern .....	8	2	10	26	—	—
Totals .....	1,151	828	2,668	Average 31	424	382

Cases, without distinction of Sex.

Hospital.	Surgical Wards.					
	Remaining 1st January, 1861.	Admitted during the Year.	TOTAL.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Remaining 1st January, 1862.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
St. Bartholomew's .....	340	3,384	3,724	3,224	189	311
Guy's .....	272	2,747	3,019	2,585	155	279
St. Thomas's .....	264	1,848	2,112	1,733	116	263
London .....	248	2,913	3,161	2,717	189	255
St. George's.....	219	1,971	2,190	1,871	123	196
Middlesex .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	76	798	874	734	65	75
Westminster .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
King's College .....	63	677	740	620	54	66
University „ .....	48	672	720	600	55	65
Royal Free .....	54	893	947	852	46	49
Charing Cross .....	59	490	549	453	26	70
Metropolitan Free .....	6	70	76	65	4	7
Great Northern .....	3	121	124	110	8	6
Totals .....	1,652	16,584	18,236	15,564	1,030	1,642

Patients and Mean Residence.

Hospital.	Cases.		Surgical Cases.			
	Resident.	Mean Residence.	Average Number Resident.			Mean Residence.
			Males.	Females.	Total.	
St. Bartholomew's .....	—	28	—	—	—	44
Guy's .....	225	35	170	114	284	34
St. Thomas's .....	201	33	168	91	259	50
London .....	101	30	158	66	224	28
St. George's.....	123	24	116	83	199	29
Middlesex .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	65	26	48	29	77	35
Westminster .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
King's College .....	59	31	37	24	61	35
University „ .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Royal Free .....	27	29	22	30	52	28
Charing Cross .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Metropolitan Free .....	5	21	3	4	7	32
Great Northern .....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals .....	806	Average 28	722	441	1,163	Average 35



TABLE IV.—Rate of Mortality.

Hospital.	All Cases.			Medical Cases.			Surgical Cases.		
	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.
	Pr. ent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Pr. ent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Pr. ent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
St. Bartholomew's ....	—	—	10·7	—	—	18·7	—	—	5·6
Guy's .....	10·4	8·5	9·4	16·3	11·6	14·1	6·4	4·4	5·6
St. Thomas's .....	10·0	9·2	9·7	14·8	10·5	11·8	5·1	5·0	5·3
London .....	7·9	9·2	8·4	14·0	11·5	12·8	5·9	7·6	6·3
St. George's .....	10·1	6·9	8·3	13·2	8·6	10·9	7·4	4·4	5·6
Middlesex .....	—	—	11·7	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	11·8	8·1	10·1	13·6	9·6	11·5	10·2	5·9	8·3
Westminster .....	—	—	9·6	—	—	—	—	—	—
King's College.....	13·8	7·1	10·7	20·3	8·6	14·5	9·1	6·4	8·0
University „ .....	—	—	11·2	—	—	14·5	—	—	8·2
Royal Free .....	6·2	6·1	6·0	11·9	9·4	10·5	7·0	3·3	4·8
Charing Cross .....	—	—	8·3	—	—	11·7	—	—	5·3
Metropolitan Free ....	5·0	7·0	6·8	7·8	7·1	7·9	2·6	7·8	5·7
Great Northern .....	—	—	8·2	—	—	16·4	—	—	6·6
Average .....	—	—	9·5	—	—	12·9	—	—	5·6

TABLE V.—Admissions and Deaths in General and in Special Wards.

Hospital.	General Wards (Medical and Surgical).			Special Wards.		General and Special Wards.		
	Admitted.	Died.	Rate of Mortality.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Rate of Mortality.
	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	No.	No.	Per cent.
St. Bartholomew's ....	4,702	525	11·17	863	13	5,565	538	10·7
Guy's .....	4,072	458	11·25	795	nil	4,867	458	9·4
St. Thomas's .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
London .....	—	—	—	No account kept.	—	4,169	350	8·4
St. George's.....	3,646	318	8·3	nil	nil	3,646	318	8·3
Middlesex .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Mary's .....	1,582	168	10·6	109	3	1,691	171	10·1
Westminster .....	1,514	149	9·6	nil	nil	1,514	149	9·6
King's College.....	1,295	143	11·04	37	nil	1,332	143	10·7
University „ .....	1,247	144	11·54	41	nil	1,288	144	11·2
Royal Free .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Charing Cross.....	925	77	8·3	nil	nil	925	77	8·3
Metropolitan Free ....	146	10	6·8	nil	nil	146	10	6·8
Great Northern .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals .....	19,129	1,992	Average 10·4	1,845	16	25,143	2,358	Average 9·4

Note.—In all these tables the blanks (—) must be understood to imply an absence of information. The information comprised in Table V respecting Special Wards, was supplied by the several hospitals in answer to a circular letter sent by the Honorary Secretaries of the Statistical Society. The inquiry was suggested by the wide differences existing in the rates of mortality in hospitals having many circumstances in common.

## MISCELLANEA.

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## I.—Tenth Italian Scientific Congress.

A CIRCULAR, dated Sienna, 8th April, 1862, announcing the meeting of the Tenth Italian Scientific Congress in that city, in September (1862), has been received by the Society. The circular is signed by the *President-General* Professor Francesco Puccinotti, and the *Secretaries-General* Professors Giovanni Campani and Valerio Castellini, and the following is a translation of its principal contents:—

“The Italian Scientific Congresses, prevented from meeting by the political events which have taken place in the Peninsula during the last fourteen years, are now returning to new life under the happy auspices of a politically regenerated Italy.

“It being necessary now to give effect to what was determined by the Extraordinary Congress of the Italian scientific world held in Florence in the past autumn, scientific reunions (renovated and considerably amplified and extended in accordance with the new general regulation there decreed) ought in the present year to be revived in this city—formerly chosen, as it was, for the seat of the tenth re-union at the Ninth Scientific Congress assembled at Venice in 1847.

“The gratifying duty now devolves upon us of publicly announcing, that the Communal Council of Sienna, for the purpose of offering to the scientific gentlemen who will be there assembled, some token of their high consideration, that may accord in a marked manner with the general scope of their re-union—have determined to place at the disposal of the General Presidency the sum of 3,000 Italian lire (about 125*l.*) to defray the expense of any inquiries or experiments that the Congress may desire to undertake or elucidate.

“For the information of those who may take part in the Congress, it will be as well to call their attention to those parts of the regulation which hereafter must be literally observed. They are as follows:—

“Art. IV. The Congress is divided into two principle sections, viz. :—

“1. Physical, Mathematical, and Natural Sciences.

“2. Moral and Social Sciences.

“The first section comprises nine classes:—1. Physics and Mathematics; 2. Chemistry and Pharmacy; 3. Mineralogy, Geology, and Palaeontology; 4. Botany; 5. Zoology, Comparative Anatomy, and Physiology; 6. Medicine; 7. Surgery; 8. Agriculture and Veterinary Surgery; 9. Technology.

“The second section is sub-divided into five classes:—1. Archaeology and History; 2. Philology and Languages; 3. Political Economy and Statistics; 4. Philosophy and Law; 5. Education (or System of Teaching).

“ Art. V. It is decreed that the following are eligible to be Members of the Congress:—Those who are associates of academics, or of other institutions that publish their proceedings; the directors of schools or scientific establishments; all instructing professors and professors by appointment; and the official superiors of learned bodies. Gentlemen who may not be Italians, will, on the proposition of three members of the Congress, be permitted to take part in the proceedings.

“ Art. VI. At each Congress, any Italian scientific gentleman who may wish to join it, must state to which class or classes he intends to attach himself, and pay at the time of admission a subscription of 20 lire (about 16s. 8d.)”

“ The Congress will be inaugurated at Sienna, on the 14th of September next, and terminate on the 27th of the same month. In the meantime it is notified that the following honourable gentlemen have been nominated Assessors:—

“ Count Augusto de Gori, Senator of the Kingdom, President of the Royal Academy of Critical Physiology of Sienna, Member Ordinary of the Italian Society of Political Economy, and Corresponding Member of the Royal Academy of Agriculturists.

“ Count Scipione Borghesi, Senator of the Kingdom, Member Ordinary of the Royal Academy of Critical Physiology.

“ Lastly, we respectfully ask the representatives of Literary and Scientific Institutions; the superior civil authorities, both judicial and administrative; the heads of special departments; and the directors of industrial undertakings, to take part in whatever may specially concern them in the present convocation.”

## II.—Railways in India, 1861-2.

“ MR. JULAND DANVERS, Government Director of the Indian Railway Companies, has just presented to the Secretary of State in Council an elaborate Report on Railways in India for the year 1861-2. The subject has at present considerable interest, as well because it is indicative of advancing civilization and commercial enterprise in our Eastern dominions, as because English capital, seeking investment, has for some time past set very much in that direction. From the report of Mr. Danvers, therefore, we cull some of the more important particulars.

“ He states that the progress in the works on the railways in India has been steadily continued during the past year; that an expenditure of about 7,000,000*l.* has been incurred, and 760 miles of *new line* have been opened for traffic. Of the *East Indian Railway*, 1,364 miles in length, 563 miles had been opened in January, 1862; of the *Great Indian Peninsula*, 1,266 miles long, 437 miles had been opened; of the *Madras*, 850 miles long, 298 $\frac{3}{4}$ ; of the *Bombay and Baroda*, 310 miles long, 132 $\frac{1}{2}$ ; the *Scinde*, 114 miles long, had been wholly opened; of the *Great Southern*, 78 $\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, 48 had been opened; and of the *Calcutta and South-Eastern*, 29 miles long, 16 had been opened. The *first Punjab*, 252 miles long; the *second ditto*, 280 miles; and the *Eastern Bengal*, 110 miles, are all in course of construction, and no part of them has yet been opened. It will be remembered that the works on three sections of railway which had been sanctioned were suspended, viz., the branch of the East Indian Railway from Allahabad to Jubbulpore, the extension of the Punjab line from Lahore to Delhi, and the section between Sholapore and Bellary on the Bombay and Madras line. Arrangements have recently been made with the East Indian Railway Company, who have funds for the purpose, to commence operations on the first of these lines, and the Punjab Railway Company have been authorized to take measures for issuing shares to the extent of 2,500,000*l.* for the second, and to raise such an amount at once as shall be sufficient to allow the more formidable works, such as bridges, to be commenced this year. Advantage has been taken of the suspension of the last section, half of which appertains to the Great Indian Peninsula, and

half to the Madras Company, to make a more extended examination of the country through which the line passes, for the purpose of ascertaining whether a more advantageous route than that originally decided upon may not be found.

“ The approaching completion of the main lines has drawn the attention of Government and of the public to various schemes, which, either directly or indirectly, should prove valuable auxiliaries to the railways. The first of these is a system of *cross roads* to connect the railway stations with the existing high roads of the country. This work has been vigorously undertaken by the local authorities in various districts. The Home Government has also recently sanctioned the execution, by the direct agency of local officers, of a light railway from the iron works on the Kumaon Hills, to Koorjah in the Doab. It was mentioned in a former report that Mr. Hardy Wells had been deputed to examine and report upon the subject, and this line is one of a system of railway and road communication in the provinces of Rohilcund and Oude submitted by him to the Government of India. The other projects have been taken up by persons of enterprise in this country.

“ Some idea of the work done in this country in connection with Indian railroads, may be formed from the fact that up to December last 2,459,928 tons of materials had been despatched to India by the railway companies. On this service 3,012 ships were employed, of which thirty-nine have been lost. The value of the materials sent out was about 12,000,000*l.*, and the amount paid for insurance about 318,750*l.*, being on an average 2*l.* 12s. per cent. The total amount of losses sustained in the transport, is about 250,000*l.*, being less than 2 $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. on the value of the materials despatched. The losses were in each case fully covered. But, besides recovering from the underwriters 250,000*l.* for the materials lost, the companies also received considerable sums for general averages, so that the difference between the aggregate amount paid for premiums on insurance and the amount of losses, was very small.

“ On the 1st of January, 1861, the number of *proprietors* in the Indian railways was 17,118, and the paid-up capital, 25,887,050*l.* The year before it was 15,224, and the paid-up capital, 22,920,000*l.* During the past year, the shareholders have increased to 19,469, and the share capital to 31,308,909*l.*, in addition to which, 11,756,249*l.* is held in debentures by 6,621 persons. These facts show that the Indian railway interest in this country has become a very important one. It is a noteworthy circumstance that, out of 31,329 persons employed on the open lines, on the 30th of October last, 32,148 were *natives* of the country.

“ The financial position of the companies is more satisfactory than could have been expected at the commencement of the year. It was at that time apprehended that the companies themselves would be unable to raise the necessary funds for their operations during the year, and power was given to the Secretary of State in Council by Parliament, to raise money in this country to meet any deficiency. Certain sections of line were also suspended, in order that the expenditure might be so limited as to afford better facilities for raising the amount absolutely required to prevent loss and delay on lines in course of execution. After a time, however, the state of the money market improved; and the growing confidence of the public in the resources of India, consequent on the actual improvement in its finances, was practically demonstrated by the steady demand which arose for Indian securities, including railway stock and debentures. Between the 1st of May and the end of December, 1861, a sum of 4,618,611*l.* had been raised by the companies, and this has been since increased by upwards of 4,000,000*l.* The Government were thus relieved from the necessity of raising any money on their behalf. While the sum thus raised by the companies has been more, the *expenditure* has been less than was expected. It was calculated that 6,000,000*l.* would be spent in India, and 2,000,000*l.* in England. In India the actual expenditure had been about 5,150,000*l.*; in England, 1,700,000*l.* The probable expenditure by the railway companies for the year 1862-3, may be taken to be 7,100,000*l.* Towards meeting this outlay, there was a balance to the credit of the companies on the 1st of May, of about 2,400,000*l.* There should be a balance of about 1,000,000*l.* on the 1st of

May, 1863. To provide the whole amount thus required, about 6,000,000*l.* will therefore have to be raised during the present year. Of the sum of 8,668,617*l.* raised during the past year, 3,745,838*l.* was by shares, and 4,922,779*l.* by debentures. At the beginning of the official year, the share capital was 27,559,688*l.*, the debentures 6,835,770*l.*, total 34,395,458*l.* The whole amount of capital now issued, accordingly reaches 43,065,890*l.*, consisting of shares or stock 31,308,611*l.*, debentures, convertible into shares, 6,922,919*l.*, debentures, not convertible, 4,833,300*l.* Works, which will cost about 57,500,000*l.*, have been sanctioned; a sum of 53,500,000*l.*, has been guaranteed, and the remainder will be guaranteed as required. Of this 43,000,000*l.* has been raised, and of this last, 40,600,000*l.* has been expended.

"In giving 57,520,000*l.* as the amount estimated to complete the undertakings, Mr. Danvers guards himself against encouraging the expectation that this sum may not be exceeded. Past experience would unfortunately lead to the impression that very likely it will. A double line of rails will in some places be necessary to meet the requirements of the traffic, and the same reason will probably be brought forward to justify the purchase of additional locomotive power and rolling stock. It is true that these causes for increased capital may not be considered unsatisfactory, for such outlay ought at once to produce a corresponding increase in the receipts. There are, however, no data upon which to found an exact calculation, *the average cost per mile*, upon the whole, is about 12,360*l.*; but before the railways are completely finished, including a small allowance of double lines, 13,000*l.* will probably be nearer the mark, which would make the total capital required upwards of 60,000,000*l.* The sum paid by the railway companies out of their profits towards the liquidation of guaranteed interest, only amounted to about 1,250,000*l.* The balance, more than 5,000,000*l.*, is recoverable by Government from *half* the net receipts in excess of 5 per cent. The annual amount due from the Government for interest is now upwards of 2,000,000*l.*

"The *annual earnings* of the railways for the year ending the 30th of June last (the latest date to which the account of net receipts have been received), did not amount to a sixth of this sum, but a great portion of the capital to which the guaranteed interest applies is, of course, still altogether unproductive. The lines yielding the above profits do not represent half the capital which has been expended, and the work they are doing is moreover but a fraction of what they will do. The detached portions of line which are open, the imperfect communication between many stations and the existing roads of the country, the unsettled arrangements for conducting the traffic, and the still experimental state of the question of rates and fares, render it very difficult, if not impossible, to anticipate, by estimates or calculations, the results that may be obtained when the various works are fully completed.

"Mr. Danvers remarks that the question of rates and fares naturally leads to an inquiry into the effects they will have upon the *price* in the market of the produce of the country, more especially cotton. He gives a detailed account of imports of cotton into this country during the last three years, showing how greatly the supply from India has been increased in consequence of the price which the commodity has commanded in Lancashire. The charge for conveying *cotton by railway* is now from 1*d.* to 1½*d.* per ton per mile. The mode hitherto adopted of carrying it by bullocks and in country carts, involves an expense of about 3*d.* or 3½*d.* per ton per mile, and the cotton is so much injured during its transit, that the cost of conveyance really amounts to about 4½*d.* per ton. The railway charges of 1*d.* and 1½*d.* exhibit, therefore, a very favourable contrast, and will enable the merchant to reduce the price at Manchester to 4*l.* or 4*l.* 10*s.* a ton, or nearly a halfpenny per pound for all cotton brought from a distance of 300 miles in the interior."—*Times*.

### III.—Census of South Australia, 1861.

THE *South Australian Register* has the following interesting article on the formal report of the Census Commissioner:—

"We have just received from the Chief Secretary's office a large volume of nearly 200 pages, embodying the whole of the information collected on the taking of the census in April, 1861, and accompanied by a valuable introductory report, written by Mr. J. Boothby, the superintendent of census. It represents, apparently with great accuracy, the present state of the colony in all the following matters:—Ages of the people, occupation of the people, civil or conjugal condition of the people, education of the people, nationalities of the people, year of entering the colony, dwellings of the people, sick and infirm, and the aborigines.

"Most of the subjects here dealt with have been noticed during the course of their publication in separate returns; but our readers will doubtless find a *résumé* of the whole work useful and interesting. Commencing with the area of the province, we find its computed area to be about 200,000,000 acres, and the estimated area of the occupied districts altogether amounts to above 35,000,000 acres. The number of *acres actually alienated* from the Crown to the end of December, 1860, was 2,233,052, leaving 196,885,512 acres remaining in the Crown's possession, of which 27,063,917 acres were *leased* for pastoral and other purposes, and 173,590 acres were *surveyed* and open for sale. The furthestmost points from the capital reached by the collectors were, it is said, to the north, about 500 miles; to the west, 400 miles; to the south-east, 300 miles; and 90 miles to the south. 'The duty of collection in those very remote districts devolved upon the mounted police, and the success attending that portion of the enumeration is mainly owing to the zeal displayed by the members of that force engaged in its performance.' The total population on the 8th April, 1861, was, as our readers are aware, 126,830, concerning which it is said the increase since 1855 was 41,641 persons; natural increase, 20,628; excess of immigration over emigration, 20,407. The natural increase during the last six years has, therefore, it is remarked, added nearly a fourth to the population, and immigration has given the same increase. At these rates it follows that the population will double itself in less than twelve years; but without the aid of immigration, trusting alone to the natural increase, it will take about twenty years.

"With regard to the *distribution of the people*, it is said:—'It is a matter for congratulation, as indicative of future progress, that 85 per cent. of the population are *country residents*. The rapid settlement of an energetic people upon the agricultural lands of the province, employed directly or indirectly in its cultivation, and the opening up of new sources of mineral and pastoral wealth in the outer districts, cannot fail to produce a fitting reward to their industry and enterprise, and to advance the general prosperity. It will be seen that the *rural population* has increased since 1855 by a number equivalent to the total addition to the colonists during the last six years, a comparison of the number of residents in Adelaide and the country districts in 1855 and 1861 respectively giving the following results:—

	1855.	1861.	Increase.
City residents .....	18,259	18,303	44
Country ,, .....	66,930	108,527	41,597

"During the last six years the rural population has increased by 41,597 persons, or 62 per cent., and now bears a proportion of 85·57 of the total population,



against 78.56 per cent. of the population in 1855; whilst the residents in the city have remained nearly stationary in numbers, and in proportion to the total population have decreased from 21.44 per cent. to 14.43 per cent. Although, doubtless, many who were formerly residents in the city have removed into the interior to minister to the wants of many rapidly-increasing centres of population, a preference for the surrounding villages and suburbs (which have increased to a large extent) as places of residence for persons engaged in the city during the day, has had its effect in preventing an increase in the number of citizens.

"In reference to the question of 'sex,' we learn that of all the Australian colonies South Australia shows the least disproportion in the number of the sexes—the males numbering 65,048 and the females 61,782. This near approach to equalization, maintained throughout the marriageable ages, has been brought about by extensive assisted female immigration, the advantages of which, in increasing the ratio of natural increase to the population by the percentage of births over deaths, will be disclosed in the coming ten years. An interesting fact bearing on this subject is mentioned in the following paragraph:—'The proportion of males to females is of all ages 51.29 per cent. of the former to 48.71 of the latter, or an excess of 2.58 per cent. of males. At the early age (under 5) it is only slightly in favour of the males, viz., .19 per cent. This seems to indicate that here—as has been proved to be the case elsewhere—more female than male children outlive the period of infancy, as the total number of births of boys always exceeds that of girls, in this colony the difference being as much as 108 boys to 100 girls. In childhood,—5 to 14 years,—the numbers more closely approximate, the difference being only .06 per cent. In the next period of age—15 to 20, and even up to 25 years of age—the females predominate; but of the whole adult population the males exceed by 2.81 per cent.—a considerable improvement upon the position at the census of 1855, when the excess of adult males was nearly 5 per cent.

"With regard to age, the census shows the following result:—In a population of 126,830 souls, 19.11 per cent. are in infancy; 24.56 per cent. are in years of childhood; 10.66 per cent. are between 15 and 21; and 45.67 per cent. of the whole number are adults, of whom 21.24 per cent. are males, and 21.43 per cent. are females. In 1855 the proportion of adult males was 25 per cent. and of adult females 21 per cent. The 'occupations of the people,' are dealt with in a chapter which gives some interesting particulars concerning the extent of labour employed in farming. It is said:—

"It may here be stated that the return of cultivated land in the season of 1855-6 gave thirty-eight acres to each farmer; in 1860-61 the cultivated land was sixty acres to each agriculturist. It appears that, whilst the number of farmers has increased one-third only, the breadth of land under crop has more than doubled during the last six years. This extension of operations may indicate progress in the agricultural interest; but as we find that there is now only one farm servant to every fifty-three acres cultivated, where six years ago there was one labourer for every thirty-nine acres under crop, it follows that less labour is now bestowed upon the land than in 1855, and leads to the supposition that less produce, and consequently less profit, awaits agricultural operations than would be the case were a greater amount of labour expended in the tillage of our farms.

"With reference to the above, it should be borne in mind, on the one hand, that farmers' sons 'assisting on farms' are included amongst the 'farm labourers,' of whom, therefore, a large number are youths from 10 to 14 years of age, physically incapable of performing the work of an able-bodied man; and, on the other hand, that a certain proportion of persons tilling the small parcels of land of which they are proprietors, tends to swell the list of farmers, as they would be so returned, although probably acting during a great part of the year as employes rather than as employers.

"The stockholders in 1855 numbered 237, against 392 in 1861—an increase of 65 per cent., and their station employes have increased from 1,338 to 3,099, or nearly 132 per cent. The proportion to the whole population in 1855 of persons engaged in squatting was 1.85 per cent., against 2.75 per cent. in 1861. In addi-

tion to the above, nine females returned themselves as stockholders, and 394 females as employed on stations as hutkeepers, station servants, &c.

"The educational returns show that about one-half of the children between 5 and 15 can read and write, about one-fourth can read only, and less than one-fourth are wholly uneducated—a much more favourable state of things than in England and Wales, where more than one-half—58 per cent.—of the children between 8 and 15 are totally uneducated. The next period, 15 to 21 years, show proportions still more encouraging; for nearly 85 per cent. can read and write, viz., 11,413 out of 13,526 persons, or 5,458 out of 6,459 males, and 5,955 in 7,067 females; 698, or 5.16 per cent. only are totally ignorant of the art of reading; therefore, a less percentage at this than any other period of age. Amongst adults, it is also gratifying to record that only 4,825, or 8.33 per cent., are unable to read; the number able to read and write is 44,718, or 77.20 per cent.; of these, 25,214 are males, and 19,504 females; 2,792 males and 4,920 females at this period of age can 'read only.'

"With reference to the nationalities of the people, concerning which we recently published some ample details, the following remarks are made:—'As to the periods of the colonists' residence (exclusive of those born here) it appears that 10.63 per cent. arrived prior to 1840; 3.95 per cent. between 1840 and 1846; and 24.25 per cent. in the next five years, showing that 38.83 per cent. of the present residents are colonists of more than ten years' standing. Between 1851 and 1856, 36.24 per cent., and since 1856, 22.18 per cent. of the present residents arrived in the colony. That so large a proportion of its population are residents of lengthened experience of its climate and capabilities, is a fact worthy of record; and whilst it should afford encouragement to those who have but recently made South Australia their home, may with advantage be made known to those in the old country desirous of improving their social and domestic condition by emigration. It appears that of the colonists above ten years' standing, the Germans come next in number to the English and Welsh, then the Irish, and afterwards the Scotch. Two-thirds of the total immigrants from Ireland having arrived during the last ten years, now places the Irish above the German population in numbers; half of the latter have, however, been more than ten years in the province.'

"We now come to portions of the report concerning which no information has been yet published. The first chapter is on 'Dwellings,' and is accompanied by tables showing the number of houses in the colony, the number of rooms contained in each, and the description of material used. We learn that in 1861 each inhabited dwelling had on the average 5.1 inmates, against 5.04 in 1855, showing that the considerable addition to the population has been met by a corresponding increase in house accommodation, and that of a superior class, as exhibited in the following return of the number of dwellings of each description:—

	1855.	1861.
Stone, brick, &c. ....	9,101	17,192
Wood .....	4,709	8,045
Slab and mud .....	3,087	2,667
	16,897	27,904

"Concerning this table, it is said an increase of substantial buildings in the city was to be expected, but the extent to which improvements of this nature have been effected in the country districts is very great. The following is a comparative table:—

	City.		Country.	
	1855.	1861.	1855.	1861.
Stone, brick, &c. ....	3,420	4,123	5,681	13,069
Wood.....	235	184	4,474	7,861
Slab and mud .....	118	45	2,969	2,622
	3,773	4,352	13,124	23,552

" Amongst the inquiries instituted for the first time on the taking of the last census, was one relating to the number of *sick and infirm people* in the colony. The result of this inquiry was that the number of persons incapable from sickness of following their usual vocations, was 1.03 per cent. of the whole population. The *deaf, dumb, and blind* formed 10 per cent. of this number, and the crippled and maimed .07 per cent. Another matter new to the census returns is that in reference to the *aborigines* of the colony. An attempt has been made to ascertain their numbers and condition, and this, through the instrumentality of the police, has been done with, it is supposed, a considerable approach to correctness. The following table shows the result of the inquiry:—

	Children.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Counties .....	230	206	1,022	799
Pastoral districts ...	227	187	1,620	1,605
Total .....	457	393	2,642	2,404

" This small number of aborigines is supposed to include all there are in the colony, except, perhaps, a few in the Far North. A number nearly equal to one-fourth of the healthy adult males are in the employ of settlers."

#### IV.—Decreasing Production of Gold in Victoria (Australia).

THE *Melbourne Argus*, of March, 1862, has the following analysis of the Gold Fields Statistics for 1861:—

" The Gold Fields statistics for the year 1861, enable us to ascertain the productiveness of this branch of our resources, and the extent of the forces employed to obtain a given result. The total quantity of gold *exported* last year was 1,967,420 ounces, and the number of persons actually engaged in mining pursuits was 100,463. Making a liberal allowance for the quantity of gold conveyed out of the Colony by private hand, which evaded payment of the Export Duty, and placing the highest value on the *gross produce*, we cannot estimate the aggregate earnings of our Mining population at more than 8,000,000*l.* sterling, which divided among 100,000 diggers, only gives 80*l.* per head per annum. But even this sum must be considerably in excess of the net earnings of each individual, since from the gross product must be deducted the interest on the Mining Plant

employed, the cost of the fuel consumed by the steam-engines, and of the timber required for stabling, the maintenance of the horses used in connection with the whims, pumps, and puddling-machines, and a large sum to represent the deterioration of plant, and casualties.

" Probably 70*l.* a-year would approximate more closely to the average earnings of each miner, and the bearing of this fact upon the value of Labour generally in this colony, is too important to be overlooked. The *income of the digger* has constituted a standard by which the wages of day labourers have been adjusted ever since the discovery of the gold fields. The fluctuations in the wages of the latter have been determined by those of the former; and the close relation which has existed, and continues to exist between the decline in the rate of wages and the average earnings of the miners, as a class, will become apparent by a comparison of them at the undermentioned rates and periods:—

	1854.	1857.	1861.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Farm labourers, per week .....	1 15 -	1 5 -	- 15 -
Stock-keepers, per annum .....	65 - -	50 - -	40 - -
Masons, per day .....	1 12 -	- 16 -	- 14 -
Carpenters, ,, .....	1 8 -	- 14 -	- 11 -
General labourers, per day.....	- 12 6	- 9 -	- 7 -
Miners, per annum .....	130 - -	83 - -	70 - -

" The distribution of population on the gold fields, and the proportion borne by the *mining* to the *miscellaneous* population, as well as by the European to the Chinese diggers, disclose some interesting facts. Of the 333,964 persons estimated to be resident in the six mining districts, *one-third* are shown to be engaged in mining pursuits.

" In the Castlemaine district, nearly 50 per cent. of the diggers are *Chinese*; in Sandhurst and Ararat only 10 per cent.; in Maryborough nearly 20, and in Ballarat and Beechworth 25 per cent. Only eight Chinamen are returned as engaged in quartz mining, while the numbers of Europeans thus engaged is 14,000.

" The richest *Quartz reefs* in the colony are those which are included in the Beechworth district, and the poorest in Ballarat; but the enterprise exerted in developing their wealth, appears to be in the inverse ratio to their richness; for while the reefs in the first named district yield on an average 1 oz. 13 dwts. 23 grs. to the ton, and those of Ballarat only 8 dwts. to the ton, yet there are 123 steam-engines, with an aggregate of 2,251 horse power employed in quartz mining operations in the Ballarat, and only 17 steam-engines, with an aggregate of 222 horses, similarly employed in the Beechworth district. There are 165 distinct quartz reefs proved to be auriferous, and an area of 167 square miles of auriferous earth in the Beechworth district, against 117 reefs and 86 miles in the Ballarat district; these figures go to prove that whilst capital and machinery have found remunerative employment in bringing to light the mineral treasures of a district relatively poor in quartz reefs, there is a wide field open to both in a more distant and much richer locality.

" Another discrepancy presents itself in connection with this branch of the subject; and that is the relatively small number of persons engaged in *Quartz mining* in Beechworth as compared with Ballarat, the numbers being 2,927 and 4,085 respectively. Other districts appear to be equally remiss in prosecuting this branch of enterprise, for while the statistics before us show that there are 400 distinct auriferous reefs in the Maryborough district, and that the average yield is upwards of one ounce to the ton, we do not find the value of the machinery

employed at all commensurate with the magnitude of the field operations, although the district contains more quartz miners than either of the other five.

"The approximate value of all the *mining plant* in the colony is stated to be 1,411,012*l.*, and additional machinery is proposed to be erected upon ground recently leased from the Crown, at an outlay of 683,190*l.* Half of this is intended to be employed in the Sandhurst district, and in corroboration of the strictures we have made in reference to the slow progress which is exhibited in working the quartz reefs in the Beechworth district, we may state that only six leases for eighteen acres of ground were in force on the 31st of December last, although it includes 165 reefs, and the average yield is the highest in the colony.

"Indeed, the chief value of these statistics is, that while they denote pretty accurately both the results of mining enterprise in this colony and the means employed, they indicate at the same time the directions in which we are expending capital and labour with the least prospect of return, and those, which although of superior promise, are altogether overlooked. As a map of the mining industry of Victoria, these annual returns are full of interest and instruction, and the best proof which can be afforded of the magnitude and stability of this interest, is to be found in the fact that the value of the *Plant* erected on our gold fields for mining purposes, will shortly amount to 2,000,000*l.* sterling."

#### V.—Agriculture in Holland.

WE obtain the following interesting summary from the *Mark Lane Express*:—

"A recent report to the Foreign Office contains some interesting particulars on the *Agriculture of Holland*, a country from which we import large quantities of live stock, dairy products, wool, and agricultural produce generally. An abstract of the information furnished will, therefore, be useful to our readers.

"The superficial area of the Netherlands is estimated at nearly 8,000,000 statute acres, of which 1,722,500 are under tillage, 2,968,200 in pasture, 555,400 in wood, and 1,747,000 on uncultivated land. The rising price of agricultural produce and the increase of population have of late years greatly encouraged the application of labour and capital to the reclaiming of heath or bog land, and continued additions are made by the artificial means of enclosure from the sea and from the estuaries of the great rivers. No portion of the soil of the kingdom is placed beyond the possibility of being reclaimed by its elevation, since the highest ground in it, with the exception of a very small portion in the southern part of Limburg, does not exceed 360 feet above the mean level of the sea. The manner in which the land is protected from the irruption of the waters by dykes is too well known to need description here. The products of the soil are in the main similar to those of the British Isles; some valuable crops, however, which are either unusual or altogether unknown to us, such as *madder*, *tobacco*, *hemp*, and *chicory*, are to be found in the Netherlands. Rye is the grain most raised, occupying an extent of land in proportion to that sown with wheat, barley, and oats together, as eight to nine, and furnishing the principal food of the lower orders, as well as a considerable portion of the ardent spirits they consume. It is estimated that the quantity of grain grown in the Netherlands is adequate to the consumption of the country, in the shape of food, for the population of three million and a-half. The *average production of wheat to the acre* appears to be 21 bushels, oats 33½, barley 29, and rye 15 bushels. Buckwheat is an extensive crop; the annual produce 3,132,000 bushels, acreage yield nearly 21 bushels. The quantity of potatoes grown in 1859 was 31,000,000 bushels, and the average per acre 121 bushels. About 2,000,000 bushels of colseed are raised, the yield being about 25 bushels to

the acre. Root crops are receiving more attention. The average yield of mangold-wurzel is 10 tons the acre; of clover 1½ tons. A large smooth-seeded variety of *spurrey* is cultivated to the extent of about 50,000 acres, being found superior to the other pasture grasses in remaining green till a late period in autumn, and often throughout the winter, and it yields 2½ tons to the acre. It is the most nourishing, in proportion to its bulk, of all forage, and gives the best flavoured milk and butter. Spurrey has been recommended for culture in England, but such a plant would never pay the expense of seed and labour even on the poorest soil in this country, for we have many better plants. Chicory averages about 7½ tons to the acre in Holland, and tobacco in Utrecht about 1½ tons per acre.

"To give a further idea of the productive powers of the land, a statement is given showing the average produce for ten years, of the different *crops upon a farm of 182 acres*, cultivated upon an improved rotation system, in North Brabant. This farm obtained the first prize offered by the Royal Agricultural Society of the Netherlands in 1858. The soil is heavy clay, of alluvial origin, and very fertile. It is perhaps necessary to remark that an extract of the farm accounts was furnished with the report, showing that it yields an ample return for the capital, labour, and skill expended upon it. The average yield per acre on this farm for ten years was—wheat 31 bushels, rye 35½, barley 51½, oats 65½, beans 42½, peas 28, colseed 26 bushels, flax 11*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* per acre, madder 2 tons, mangold-wurzel 21½ tons. One piece of ground yielded in 1857 at the rate of 32 tons 16 cwt. of mangold-wurzel per acre.

"The *rent of land* in the Netherlands is naturally various, depending upon the quality of the soil, the situation of the farms, the conditions of the leases, and the character of the landholder. There is generally an eager competition for farms, which in some parts of the country is taken advantage of by letting them to the highest bidder in sealed tenders. In the province of *Groningen* much of the land is held by a *fixed tenure*, and it is in that part of the country that the farms present the most striking appearance of prosperity, and the value of land has made the greatest advance. In South Holland, pasture land not in the immediate vicinity of a large town lets from 3*l.* to 3*l.* an acre. Close to the Hague grass-land belonging to the corporation pays a net rent of 5*l.* an acre, after deducting the land-tax and polder (or drainage) expenses, which together amount to about 9 per cent. on the gross rent. A farm in a newly-reclaimed polder in the same province, about four or five leagues distant from several towns of large population, of 188 acres, is let at 196*l.* The highest rent paid in Zeeland is 4*l.* per acre. In Friesland, arable land on the clay brings from 168*s.* to 102*s.* pasture from 34*s.* to 68*s.*; on the sand 24*s.* to 34*s.*, land from which turf has been dug 14*s.* to 24*s.* In Groningen, clay land (arable) lets for 27*s.* to 75*s.*, sandy soil 24*s.* to 41*s.*, turf-land for the buckwheat crop 88*s.* to 96*s.*, and the best grass-land at 81*s.* the acre. In North Holland good land favourably situated brings from 48*s.* to 84*s.* for grass, and the best arable 72*s.* to 132*s.*, while garden ground in the neighbourhood of Haarlem, where a large quantity of flower roots is raised for exportation, lets as high as 12*l.* an acre.

"The *wages of agricultural labourers* vary in North Holland from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.* per day in summer, and from 10*d.* to 1*s.* 10*d.* in winter. In Groningen hands are stated to be scarce and wages high. Day labourers earn 1*s.* 3*d.* per day in summer for 8½ hours' work, in winter 1*s.* for 7 hours; women, 6*d.* to 7*d.* for 7½ hours' work in summer and 6 hours in winter. Permanent labourers are generally paid by piecework, at rates fixed by custom. A foreman is generally kept on board, receiving 7½*d.* per day for the summer half-year and 6*d.* for the winter. Others are employed at yearly wages, besides their board, of 6*l.* 6*s.* to 8*l.* 8*s.*; and some have two or three perches of land besides, for growing potatoes, &c., for their families. The whole annual outlay for labour on one farm of 192 acres is stated at 292*l.*; on another of 190 acres at 250*l.*, of which 170 was for permanent labour, and 80*l.* for harvest, weeding, &c.

"In the four farms which competed for the Agricultural Society's prizes in 1858 the *amount of capital employed* on each was respectively at the rate of



10*l.* 6*s.* 1*d.*, 7*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*, 5*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.*, and 4*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.* per acre. Two of these were in South Holland, one in Groningen, and one (which obtained the first prize) in North Brabant.

"Besides the Government, provincial, and commercial taxes, the land is liable to charges on account of the management of the water administration and polders. These last in some districts are to a considerable amount; in many polders in North Holland as much as 10*s.* 3½*d.* per acre. Another burden upon land in Holland is the titho charge, where it has not yet been redeemed. More than one attempt has been made to pass through the legislature a measure for the compulsory redemption upon equitable terms of this charge, so obstructive to all agricultural improvement, but hitherto without success.

"The live stock in Holland in 1859 consisted of the following—horses, 236,732; horned cattle, 1,232,199 (of which 884,946 were cows); asses and mules, 3,000; sheep, 795,897; pigs, 259,031; and goats, 111,404. The very large proportion of cattle to other descriptions of animals is a noticeable feature. Pleuro-pneumonia has committed great ravages in the herds of Holland in the last few years, a subject to which we may have occasion to revert hereafter."

#### VI.—Trade of Persia, 1860.

We obtain the following from the *Times*:—

"Some trade reports from British consuls have recently been issued by the Board of Trade, and among them a report from the Acting Consul-General at Tabreez, giving an account of Azerbaijan, the most important province of Persia. Its capital, *Tabreez*, of which the population is estimated at 200,000, is the principal emporium of Persian trade. The imports through and from Turkey into Azerbaijan amounted, in 1859, to nearly 2,000,000*l.*, dyed and printed cotton goods being the largest item (comprising several descriptions of British coloured cotton manufactures), and British grey calicoes the next; large quantities of the latter are cut up at Tabreez into small pieces, dyed blue, and then sent to Russia as Persian manufactures. Broadcloths, and most of the miscellaneous goods, are from Germany. Indigo is an article of great consumption in Tabreez, and is imported direct from India.

"The exports to Russia amounted, in 1859, to nearly 800,000*l.*, half of them smuggled; they include the higher qualities of British prints, Swiss manufactures, European and Persian silks, tea, and rum. A small quantity of silk pieces is manufactured in Tabreez, coarser, but more durable than European silks; felt carpets also, and other coarse carpets. The growth of wheat and barley is large. The cotton is of inferior quality. There is coal, but it is not used; and copper and iron viens, but they are almost entirely neglected, and a supply obtained from Russia. The climate of the province generally is healthy and bracing, the soil fertile, and the inhabitants hardy, active, and industrious.

"The revenue is nearly 500,000*l.*, but this sum is said to be far from representing the amount really collected from the taxpayers. The revenue of each village is farmed or assigned to a Government officer in 'tecool' (a kind of fief), but the taxes are underrated to him; two-thirds are taken by him and one-third by the proprietor of the village. The taxes include one-third of the grain produce, a tax on gardens and on fields used for the cultivation of tobacco, cotton, or madder roots, a house tax of 10*s.* 2*d.* on every family, a tax of 2*s.* 3*d.* on mares and mules, and of 4*d.* on sheep and goats; besides which the villagers have to furnish gratis to the teecool-holder a certain quantity of lambs, fowls, eggs, milk, wood, &c., and a certain number of labourers if required. But the peasantry are patient so long as they are not reduced to absolute starvation. The *internal transit duties* are a

serious obstacle to the extension of commerce; every small town levies its duties on the goods that pass through it. The want of cart roads is also a great hindrance; everything is transported on mules, horses, camels, or asses.

"If these things were remedied, cart roads constructed, and a moderate duty made payable once for all on importation or exportation, the trade of Persia would rapidly develop itself to a very considerable extent; and next to Persia, Great Britain would derive most benefit from these reforms. As it is, the consumption of British manufactures in Persia has increased nearly fourfold within the last twenty years."

#### VII.—The Trade in Oranges.

We obtain the following from the *Gardeners' Chronicle*:—

"Oranges are imported in boxes containing from 250 and more, and in chests holding 500 to 1,000. The quantity of this fruit imported has been steadily increasing for some years past. In the three years ending with 1842 the average imports were 334,070 boxes; in the five years ending with 1850 they had increased to 380,000 boxes. Since then the quantity has been computed in *bushels*. The average annual imports in the five years ending with 1860 were 977,440 bushels. The quantity taken for consumption has now reached upwards of 1,000,000 bushels, and, assuming each bushel to contain 650, this would give 650 millions of oranges, or about 22 for each soul of the population in the kingdom. The appended figures indicate the source of supply of this fruit to Great Britain in bushels:—

	1855.	1860.
Portugal .....	265,222	218,480
Azores .....	369,060	627,709
Spain .....	72,928	158,674
Sicily .....	85,327	140,983
Other quarters .....	13,615	8,564
	806,153	1,154,410

"The Azores or Western Islands, from whence the finest or St. Michael oranges come, it will be seen furnish us with the largest supply. The imports from thence have *doubled* in the last five years.

"The expense of walling and planting an acre of orange garden is stated to be about 15*l.* for the wall, 8*l.* for 65 trees, and 2*l.* for labour. It yields half a crop of beans or Indian corn during seven years, but no oranges; from eight to eleven years half a crop of oranges is obtained. Afterwards a full crop, which is sold for 10*l.* to 15*l.* Each tree on arriving at maturity will produce annually, on an average, 12,000 to 16,000 oranges; one grower is said to have picked 26,000 from a single tree. The trees bloom in March and April, and oranges are gathered for the London market as early as November. The Portuguese never eat them before the end of January, at which time they possess their full flavour.

"In the season of 1851, which produced by no means an unusually large crop, not less than 353 cargoes of oranges, containing about 200,000 large boxes, holding 800 oranges, were shipped from the Western Islands. Fayal formerly exported a great many oranges, but the insect pest, which appeared in 1840, in a few years killed all the trees there. Terceira annually exports about thirty cargoes, and St. Mary a few cargoes, but St. Michael is the great mart.

"In 1801 the value of the fruit imported from thence was but 10,000*l.*; in 1850, 65,000*l.*; and in 1859, 81,123*l.* It was estimated that the produce of fruit in this island during 1859 was 252,000,000 of oranges and 40,000 lemons; of these all the lemons and 49,000,000 oranges were consumed on the island. The export of oranges from St. Michael was 179,379 boxes in 1852; 123,327 boxes in 1855-6; 100,079 in 1856-7; 179,922 in 1857-8; and 130,858 boxes in 1858-9. The trade has been suffering for several years from severe depression, owing to the low prices obtained for the fruit in England. In the season 1858-9 the growers obtained an average of 10*s.* 5*d.* per box, which is considered a very fair remunerative price by the proprietors of orange gardens. More than half the orange crop is shipped in the months of November and December. The value of the fruit imported now reaches nearly 600,000*l.* annually."

### VIII.—The Extent of the Deficit in the Cotton Supply.

THE following letter in the *Times*, from a "Cotton Broker," at Liverpool, dated 23rd July, 1862, is inserted as a useful statement of the facts at that date:—

"On the 5th and 11th of February (1862), you were kind enough to insert two letters of mine upon the then relative cheapness of East Indian cotton as compared with American, the feasibility of its being used by our spinners with a proper alteration of their machinery, and the great necessity there existed of their doing so with the almost certain stoppage of the American supply during this year, and thereby encouraging the importation of cotton from India, to supply the deficiency which would be caused by the entire absence of a crop which previously had supplied four-fifths of the consumption of the world.

"Subsequent events have fully proved the advice to be correct which I then presumed to give spinners and manufacturers. A fair trial soon enabled them to ascertain that East Indian cotton was capable of supplying the place of American cotton, and that yarn of finer numbers than they ever contemplated could be produced from Surats when their skill and ingenuity had been brought fully into play by the necessity of their position. Hence the fact that from the 1st of January last to the present date, spinners have purchased in this market and consumed 438,000 bales of Surat cotton, and only 198,000 American; while last year, during the same period, they consumed 1,130,000 American, and only 115,000 Surats. Thus the capability of East Indian cotton being made available as a substitute for American, is, I think, settled, and the great improvement in its quality that has latterly taken place, and which the present high scale of prices will still further stimulate, gives every encouragement that from India alone we shall ultimately receive such a supply as will make us independent of the United States of America, and which now appears so necessary for the future welfare of our manufacturing interests,—considering the great uncertainty that now exists, first as to the probable duration of the civil war in America, and secondly as to the possibility of its causing a permanent curtailment in the growth of cotton in the Southern States.

"At the close of last year the estimated consumption of the world was over 5,000,000 bales per annum, *four-fifths* of which was supplied by America. At the present moment *nearly one year's* American crop has been withheld, and even so far how serious is the result! How necessary, therefore, it is that our true position should be clearly understood, so that the danger being evident the remedy may be sought for, and by timely application save us from still greater peril and injury.

"So far this year, compared with the same period of 1861, the import of American shows a decrease of 1,400,000 bales, while East Indian cotton during the

same period only shows an increase of 160,000 bales, while the quantity now at sea for Europe from America is *nil* against nearly 300,000, and that of East Indian to arrive by the end of October, is 402,000 bales against 391,000 bales at the same period last year.

"Last week in your columns it was stated that private telegrams had been received from Bombay, advising a further shipment of 115,000 bales of cotton *in one week* to this country, and that it was expected, that when the advices would be received hence of the late important rise in prices, that still further extensive shipments would be immediately made.

"Now, as I am assured you will be glad to correct any error which may inadvertently be inserted in your columns, I take the liberty of stating that the Bombay letters and circulars by this same mail have to-day been received, and, instead of 115,000 bales stated to be shipped in one week, it appears that only 28,000 bales were shipped in two weeks ending on that date against 72,000 bales during the same period last year; and that only about 85,000 bales were then in stock, and on ship-board; also that the monsoon which either had, or was about setting in, would almost prevent any cotton being received coastwise or from the interior until the beginning of October, so that it was quite improbable that over 100,000 bales more could be shipped in sufficient time to arrive here before the close of the present year.

"Thus the prospective supply from India for the remainder of this year, will be no greater than we received during the same period last year. Then we received 495,200 bales of *East Indian* cotton, while this year, with the cotton now afloat and the probable quantity yet to be shipped to arrive before the 31st of December (1862), the quantity will barely exceed that amount.

"I have been privileged by the perusal of letters received by the most eminent of India houses, from their firms of Bombay, and also by conversation with several gentlemen from India now here, who are well acquainted with that country, all of whose testimony fully confirms and corroborates this view of the supply to be received from India this year.

"You will therefore perceive how critical is our present position, and how necessary it is that every effort should be made to stimulate the bringing down of cotton to the ports of India, so as to admit of immediate shipment; for after a period of ten months, during which the spinners and manufacturers of Europe have been working 'half-time,' the supply of cotton on hand and that on the way is still miserably small, and quite incompatible with the necessities of the world, as the following figures will show:—

Visible Stocks in Europe, and American and East Indian at Sea,  
July, 1862.

	1862.	1861.
Great Britain .....	180,000	1,150,000
France .....	40,000	350,000
Germany .....	5,000	75,000
Russia .....	5,000	40,000
Spain .....	1,500	10,000
Italy .....	1,500	15,000
	233,000	1,640,000
At sea:—		
In spinners' hands .....	50,000	180,000
American .....	—	300,000
East Indian .....	402,000	391,000
Total supply .....	685,000	2,511,000

" Thus the stock now on hand in Europe, and of East Indian and American to arrive by the end of October, is only 685,000 bales, against 2,511,000 at the same period, 1861. Such a comparatively small supply for the next three months will naturally strike those who may even not be conversant with the trade how critical is our position at the present moment, and how necessary it is that renewed efforts should be made to obtain from India, now our only hope, as large a proportion as possible of the supply of cotton which Europe now requires to meet the consumption of cotton goods going on.

" Permit me to thank you for the able manner in which you have so frequently of late discussed this question, and for having so clearly pointed out to *spinners* that the question rests with themselves alone; for did they but entertain a wise appreciation of their position we should not have witnessed, as of late, wealthy and extensive firms, with large stocks, purchased at prices considerably under the present rates, sending back their cotton to be re-sold at Liverpool, preferring to secure the profit which a re-sale would secure them, although they can only do so by stopping their mills and throwing out of employment their operatives, who are thus left without occupation or support other than they can obtain from parochial relief. Can anything be more discouraging to importers, and will such a course induce greater efforts throughout the world to meet their necessities?

" The existing machinery in Europe, if worked full time, would require nearly 100,000 bales of cotton *per week*. What then is to be our position if (as now seems most probable) the American war should last another year? Still greater distress, misery, and ruin throughout the manufacturing districts would be certain to ensue. This can only be averted by immediate and decisive steps being taken to secure all the cotton it is possible to obtain from India. It is an extraordinary fact that, long as that country has been under the government of Great Britain, so little is known either by Government or by the commercial public as the annual growth of cotton in India. Various estimates are current. Some place it from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 bales, while others who have been long in India, place it at from 2,000,000 to 3,000,000 bales per annum.

" The importance of the coming crisis will be well understood by a consideration of the following table, showing the actual exports of cloth and yarn from this country to foreign countries in the first eleven months of 1860 and 1861, and in the first five months of 1862:—

Exports.	Cloth.	Yarn.
	yards.	lbs.
Eleven months, 1860 .....	2,473,305,938	180,586,663
„ 1861 .....	2,378,084,212	168,642,773
Five months, 1862 .....	753,896,280	44,487,215

### ABSTRACT OF THE REGISTRAR-GENERAL'S RETURN

OF THE

MARRIAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE FIRST QUARTER

(JANUARY—MARCH) OF 1862, AND OF THE BIRTHS AND DEATHS

DURING THE SECOND QUARTER (APRIL—JUNE) OF 1862.

THIS Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,199 Registrars in all the districts of England during the spring quarter that ended on June 30th, 1862; and the MARRIAGES in 12,562 churches or chapels, about 4,625 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 637 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on March 31st, 1862.

The leading facts that are disclosed in this return are of a mixed character; they are *favourable generally*, as regards the health and growth of the population, but they are not without indications of a diminished prosperity in important districts of the country. The *marriage-rate*, which had been low during the whole of the year 1861, *continued low* in the first quarter of the present year. Births were numerous in the three months that ended 30th June. A *birth-rate above* the average degree of activity has prevailed during the last fifteen months. The *mortality was below* the average; and it is satisfactory to add, that the healthy summer of 1860 inaugurated a period which has been extended through two years, and in which the *mortality has not* in any quarter reached the average. Atmospheric agencies of a beneficial character have been at work in that time; but public bodies that have projected and successfully carried out local improvements may claim the credit of having contributed in a great degree to produce this result.

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, returned in the Years 1856-62, and in the QUARTERS of those Years.

Calendar YEARS, 1856-62:—Numbers.

Years .....	'62.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
Marriages No.	—	163,745	170,156	167,723	156,070	159,097	159,337
Births..... „	—	695,562	684,048	689,881	655,481	663,071	657,453
Deaths..... „	—	435,337	422,721	440,781	449,656	419,815	390,506

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year 1856-62.

(I.) MARRIAGES:—Numbers.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March .....No.	33,976	33,401	35,150	35,382	29,918	33,321	33,427
June ..... „	—	41,966	43,777	42,042	39,890	41,267	38,820
Septmbr..... „	—	39,892	40,541	39,803	38,599	38,669	39,089
Decmbr. .... „	—	48,486	50,688	50,496	47,663	45,840	48,001



## QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1856-62.

## (II.) BIRTHS:—Numbers.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March.....No.	182,005	173,170	183,180	175,532	170,959	170,430	169,250
June.....,,	185,638	184,718	174,028	175,864	169,115	170,444	173,263
Septmbr.....,,	—	171,500	164,121	168,394	157,445	161,181	157,462
Decmbr. ....,,	—	166,174	162,719	170,091	157,962	161,016	157,478

## (III.) DEATHS:—Numbers.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March.....No.	122,192	121,713	122,617	121,580	125,819	108,665	103,014
June.....,,	107,555	107,721	110,869	105,631	107,142	100,046	100,099
Septmbr.....,,	—	100,986	86,312	104,216	98,142	100,528	91,155
Decmbr. ....,,	—	104,917	102,923	109,354	118,553	110,576	96,238

MARRIAGES.—In the first three months of this year, 67,952 persons were married in England. They married at the rate (per annum) of 1·360 in 100 of the population, whilst the average of corresponding quarters in the years 1852-61 is 1·405. But the marriage-rate was not so low as it had been in the same quarter of 1858, when it declined to 1·252, and when, to quote the words of the report for that period, “the stagnation of trade in the manufacturing districts had cast a shadow over the prospects of the people, and they did not marry.”

The population of Lancashire has undoubtedly increased during the last five years, and while this circumstance is borne in mind, it may be stated that the marriages in that county in the winter quarter of 1858 were 4,157; in that of 1860 they were 5,524; and in the same quarter of this year 4,887.

It may be anticipated, that when the marriage results in Lancashire for the

ENGLAND:—Annual Rate Per Cent. of PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, during the YEARS 1856-62, and the QUARTERS of those Years.

## Calendar YEARS, 1856-62:—General Percentage Results.

YEARS .....	'62.	Mean '52-'61.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
Estmtd. Popln. of England in thousands in middle of each Year....	20,341	—	20,119	19,903	19,687	19,471	19,257	19,043
Persons Married Per ct.	—	1·684	1·628	1·710	1·704	1·604	1·652	1·674
Births....,,	—	3·420	3·457	3·437	3·504	3·366	3·443	3·453
Deaths....,,	—	2·221	2·164	2·124	2·239	2·309	2·180	2·051

## QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1856-62.

## (I.) PERSONS MARRIED:—Percentages.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	Mean '52-'61.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March....Per ct.	1·360	1·405	1·352	1·422	1·464	1·252	1·410	1·414
June.....,,	—	1·709	1·676	1·766	1·716	1·646	1·722	1·638
Septmbr. ,,	—	1·616	1·572	1·614	1·602	1·570	1·592	1·626
Decmbr. ,,	—	1·991	1·904	2·012	2·026	1·934	1·880	1·992

## (II.) BIRTHS:—Percentages.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	Mean '52-'61.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March....Per ct.	3·644	3·588	3·505	3·707	3·631	3·576	3·604	3·580
June....,,	3·666	3·571	3·687	3·512	3·588	3·498	3·555	3·655
Septmbr. ,,	—	3·285	3·377	3·267	3·389	3·204	3·316	3·276
Decmbr. ,,	—	3·231	3·264	3·230	3·414	3·205	3·304	3·267

## (III.) DEATHS:—Percentages.

Qrs. ended last day of	'62.	Mean '52-'61.	'61.	'60.	'59.	'58.	'57.	'56.
March....Per ct.	2·447	2·489	2·463	2·481	2·515	2·631	2·298	2·179
June.....,,	2·124	2·201	2·150	2·237	2·155	2·210	2·087	2·111
Septmbr. ,,	—	2·220	1·989	1·718	2·097	1·997	2·068	1·896
Decmbr. ,,	—	2·171	2·061	2·043	2·195	2·406	2·269	1·997

June quarter are ascertained, the effect of a season of depression worse than that of 1858 will be manifested in the returns more conspicuously.

By comparing the numbers of marriages in the winter quarters of 1861-2, it will be seen that there was an increase in London and in the ten other divisions of England, with the exception of the Eastern Counties, where there was a decrease, of the North Midland counties, where the number was stationary, and of the North-western counties, where there was an important decrease in consequence of a reduction of the marriage-rate in Lancashire, which forms the chief part of the division.

In Liverpool the marriages decreased from 827 in the winter or March quarter of 1861 to 785 in that of 1862; in Wigan from 228 to 186; in Bury from 210 to 173; in Chorlton from 131 to 93; in Salford from 143 to 125; in Manchester from 952 to 830; in Ashton from 275 to 225; in Oldham from 215 to 172; in Rochdale from 223 to 169; in Haslingden from 170 to 142; in Burnley from 185 to 128; in Blackburn from 259 to 216; in Preston from 265 to 220. In the iron district of Ulverstone, in the north-west of Lancashire, the marriages appear to have been fairly maintained; and the report of the Registrar of Dalton in that district is cheerful amid the gloom. He says:—“There is no distress in

the sub-district; men are fully employed, and wages are good according to the price of food."

**BIRTHS.**—The number of children born in the spring quarter (ending 30th June) was 185,638. The birth-rate, was 3·666 to 100 of the population. The average rate is 3·571. If last quarter is compared with the corresponding quarter of 1861, it will be found that the birth-rate was nearly the same in the two periods. But assuming that there was an increase of population within the last

**CONSOLS, PROVISIONS, PAUPERISM, and TEMPERATURE, in each of the Nine QUARTERS ended 30th June, 1862.**

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.		Mean Temperature.
			Beef.	Mutton.		Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the last day of each week.		
						In-door.	Out-door.	
1860	£	s. d.	d. d. d.	d. d. d.	s. s. s.			
30 June	94½	52 8	4¾—6¾ 5¾	5½—7½ 6½	125—160 142	107,050	692,384	50·5
30 Sept.	93¾	59 1	4¼—7 5¾	5¼—7½ 6¾	125—145 135	101,680	667,680	56·2
31 Dec.	93¾	56 9	3½—6¼ 4¾	4¾—6¾ 5¾	115—130 122	115,158	673,680	42·6
1861								
31 Mar.	91½	55 1	4—6¼ 5½	5½—7¾ 6¾	140—155 147	131,501	758,441	39·9
30 June	91½	54 9	4¼—6½ 5¾	5¼—7¼ 6¼	120—140 130	117,802	713,785	51·8
30 Sept.	91½	52 1	4¼—6½ 5¾	4¾—7 5¾	85—110 97	112,932	693,649	60·4
31 Dec.	93¾	59 3	4—6¼ 5½	4¾—6¾ 5¾	110—130 120	128,533	716,096	45·5
1862								
31 Mar.	93½	60 1	4—6¼ 5½	4¾—6½ 5¾	130—155 142	143,926	804,272	41·1
30 June	93¾	56 8	4—6 5	5—7 6	180—200 190	127,863	781,858	53·3

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 19,812,000 (in 1861), 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, 1862, to—Insane Persons, 31,554; Vagrants, 1,542. The rest of the paupers on that day amounted to 817,800.

year in each of the eleven divisions, there was a decrease of the birth-rate in London in last spring quarter on that of the same quarter in 1861; there was also a decrease in six other divisions; whilst the birth-rate increased or was tolerably well maintained in Lancashire and Cheshire, in Yorkshire, in Durham, Northumberland, and Wales.

The general result, that the birth-rate exceeded the average, appears to be chiefly due to the northern parts of the kingdom.

London returned 24,851 births last quarter; Lancashire with a less population returned 25,886. Births were numerous in Liverpool.

**INCREASE OF POPULATION.**—The births in the quarter exceeded the deaths in the same time by 78,083; and the population, if it had been free from disturbance by migration, would have increased at the rate of 858 persons daily.

Last quarter 47,112 persons, of whom about 14,296 were of English origin,\* and nearly twice that number were Irish, left ports in the United Kingdom at which there are Government Emigration Officers, for the United States, the Colonies, and other parts.

The emigration to the United States has, during a succession of years, suffered a rapid rate of reduction, but last quarter the number of persons who went thither slightly exceeded that of the same period in 1861. But the emigration to British North America has in late years been constantly on the increase; and that to the Australian Colonies gained last quarter a considerable accession. Notwithstanding these fluctuations, the return shows that the United States still received more than half of the emigrants who sailed from these shores.

**PRICES, THE WEATHER, AND PAUPERISM.**—The average price of Consols was 93½, which is higher than it had been in any quarter since the middle of 1860. The average price of wheat per quarter was 56s. 8d. It was higher than that of the same period in either of the two previous years. The mean price of beef sold by the carcase at Leadenhall and Newgate markets was 5d. per lb.; the best quality was 6d., and cheaper than it had been, taking the average quarterly prices, for a considerable time. The highest and lowest prices of mutton, if the means are taken, were 5d. and 7d., and were lower than the prices of the June quarter in the last two years.

MR. GLAISHER in his report on the weather (see appendix) states that at Greenwich the warm weather which set in on the 24th of March, continued till the 7th of April; it was followed by a cold period of eight days duration, after which, on the 17th, very warm weather began and with occasional interruptions continued till the 8th June. On the 25th April the mean temperature was 12°·6 in excess of the average of that day, and on several days in May also the excess was remarkable. Cold weather commenced on the 9th of June and continued till the end of the month. The mean temperature of April was higher than that of any April since 1851; that of May was higher than it had been in this month since 1848; whilst the June of this year was the coldest that has occurred since 1854. The mean temperature of the three months was 53°·3, which slightly exceeds the average of the same period in twenty-one years. The amount of rain at Greenwich was 7·4 in. More than the average quantity fell in April. Snow fell throughout the greater part of the country on the 12th and 13th of April; at Guernsey and Brighton on the 14th April; and at Grantham on 9th May. The heaviest falls of rain were at Stonyhurst, Allenheads, and Cocker mouth. At the first of these places the amount in the quarter was nearly 15 inches.

Some remarks on the progress of vegetation and the state of the crops have been made by observers at several of the meteorological stations.

\* From a Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners: the number returned as of English origin was 12,425, while the birthplace of 6,166 emigrants was not distinguished; in the above statement a proportional number of these has been added to those returned as of English origin.

The tables of pauperism exhibit heavier totals. The quarterly averages of the number of in-door paupers relieved on the last day of each week in the June quarter of 1860 were 107,050; in that of 1861 they were 117,802; and in that of the present year 127,863. In the same three periods the out-door paupers rose according to the following numbers:—

692,381; 713,785; 781,858.

STATE OF THE PUBLIC HEALTH.—The total number of deaths registered in the three months was 107,555. In the same period of 1860-1 the numbers were respectively 110,869 and 107,721; whence it appears that in an increasing population decreasing numbers were entered in the records in the last two spring quarters. The annual rates of mortality in the three seasons now compared were 2.237 per cent.; 2.150; 2.124. The average obtained from returns in ten years is 2.201 per cent. The weather generally was favourable to health; and in many parts the purifying agency of rain was supplied in aid of sanitary expedients, or perhaps as a partial remedy for the want of them.

DEATHS in the Spring Quarters, ended 30th June, 1855-62.—Numbers.

DEATHS, &c.	1862.	Total 1852-61, (10 Years.)	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.	1856.	1855.
In 125 Districts and 23 Sub-districts, comprising the Chief Towns .....	56,684	536,082	55,882	56,651	53,517	55,302	51,367	51,962	53,562
In the remaining Districts and Sub-districts of England and Wales, comprising chiefly Small Towns and Country Parishes ...	50,671	512,777	51,839	54,615	52,114	51,810	48,679	48,187	52,481
All England .....	107,555	1,048,859	107,721	110,869	105,631	107,112	100,046	100,099	106,043

AREA, POPULATION, DEATHS, and MORTALITY per Cent. in the Spring Quarters, ended 30th June, 1852-62.

GROUPS.	Area in Statute Acres. (England.)	Population Enumerated. (England.)		Deaths in 10 Spring Quarters, 1852-61.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. of 10 Spring Quarters, 1852-61.	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in the Spring Quarter, 1862.
		March 31st, 1851.	April 8th, 1861.			
In 125 Districts, and 23 Sub-districts, comprising the Chief Towns .....	No. 2,149,800	No. 8,247,017	No. 9,806,780	No. 536,082	Per ct. 2.366	Per ct. 2.282
In the remaining Districts and Sub-districts of England and Wales, comprising chiefly Small Towns and Country Parishes .....	No. 35,175,115	No. 9,680,592	No. 10,259,444	No. 512,777	Per ct. 2.056	Per ct. 1.968
All England .....	No. 37,324,915	No. 17,927,609	No. 20,066,224	No. 1,048,859	Per ct. 2.201	Per ct. 2.124

The rate of mortality in the districts which comprise the chief towns was 2.282. In the small towns and country parishes it was 1.968. These rates may be compared with their respective averages, which were 2.366 and 2.056. The benefit was equally shared between town and country.

MARRIAGES Registered in Quarters ended 31st March, 1862-60; and BIRTHS and DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th June, 1862-60.

DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 31st March.		
			'62.	'61.	'60.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	37,324,883	20,066,224	33,976	33,401	35,150
I. London .....	77,997	2,803,989	5,752	5,316	5,665
II. South-Eastern .....	4,065,935	1,847,661	2,575	2,429	2,511
III. South Midland .....	3,201,290	1,295,497	1,642	1,557	1,662
IV. Eastern .....	3,214,099	1,142,580	1,438	1,500	1,486
V. South-Western .....	4,993,660	1,835,714	3,072	2,999	3,215
VI. West Midland .....	3,865,332	2,436,568	4,016	3,838	4,013
VII. North Midland .....	3,540,797	1,288,928	1,805	1,813	1,971
VIII. North-Western .....	2,000,227	2,935,540	5,711	6,198	6,370
IX. Yorkshire .....	3,654,636	2,015,541	3,832	3,763	4,017
X. Northern .....	3,492,322	1,151,372	2,120	2,013	2,057
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,834	2,013	1,945	2,183

  

DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	BIRTHS in Quarters ended 30th June.			DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th June.		
	'62.	'61.	'60.	'62.	'61.	'60.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	No. 185,638	No. 184,718	No. 174,028	No. 107,555	No. 107,721	No. 110,869
I. London .....	24,851	24,842	22,251	15,695	15,238	14,932
II. South-Eastern .....	14,859	14,856	13,650	8,148	8,252	9,214
III. South Midland .....	11,179	11,423	10,868	6,227	6,519	7,031
IV. Eastern .....	9,730	9,995	9,547	5,508	6,094	6,226
V. South-Western .....	15,282	15,577	14,524	8,809	8,614	10,055
VI. West Midland .....	23,439	23,444	22,313	12,355	12,722	12,969
VII. North Midland .....	11,667	11,795	11,495	6,533	6,960	6,912
VIII. North-Western .....	30,634	29,790	27,500	18,017	17,652	17,650
IX. Yorkshire .....	19,772	19,593	19,008	11,916	11,617	11,877
X. Northern .....	12,082	11,366	11,065	6,815	6,569	6,326
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	12,143	12,037	11,807	7,532	7,484	7,677



## REMARKS ON THE WEATHER

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1862.

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

The warm weather which set in on the 24th March, continued only till the 7th of April; the mean daily excess from the 1st of April was 5°. On the 8th of April a cold period set in, which continued till the 16th, the mean daily defect being 5°. This was succeeded by a period of very warm weather, which continued, with the exception of the 3rd, 9th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 21st, and 22nd May, and the 5th of June, until the 8th of June; the mean daily excess of the 53 days ending the 8th of June, was 3° nearly. On several days during this period the weather was above its average to large amounts, as on the 25th of April it was 12°·6 in excess; the 4th, 5th, and 6th of May were 8°·5, 11°·1, and 13°·6 in excess. On the 9th of June a cold period set in, which continued till the end of the month, the mean daily defect being greater than 4°. The average temperature for the month of April was 48°·4, being 4° higher than in 1861, and higher than in any April since 1854. That for May was 55°·4, being 3½° higher than in 1861, and higher than any May since 1848. In June it was 56°·3, being 3° lower than in 1861, and lower than any June since 1854.

The mean high day temperature in April was 0°·8 in excess, in May 2° in excess, and in June 4°·1 in defect of their respective averages.

The mean low night temperature in April was 3°·2 above, in May 3°·8 above, and in June 0°·9 below their respective averages.

Therefore both the days and nights in April and May were warm, the night more so than the days; and in June both were cold, the nights less in amount than the days.

The mean temperature of the air was 2°·1 in excess in April, 2°·6 in excess in May, and 2°·9 in defect in June; and this is the first month in the present year in which the mean temperature has been below its average.

The mean temperature of the dew point was 3°·1 in excess in April, 4°·9 in excess in May, and 1°·6 in defect in June; the mean for the quarter was a little more than 2° in excess.

The mean pressure of the atmosphere was 0·1 inch in excess in April, 0·04 inch in defect in May, and 0·08 inch in defect in June.

The fall of rain in April and May was 2·8 inches in each month, and in June was 1·8 inch; the total fall for the quarter was nearly 7½ inches, exceeding the average of the preceding 43 years by a little more than 1½ inch.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich for the three months ending May, constituting the three spring months, was 48°·9, being 2°·5 in excess of the average of the preceding 91 years.

1862. Months.	Temperature of								Water of the Thames	Elastic Force of Vapour.		Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.	
	Air.		Evaporation.		Dew Point.		Air— Daily Range.			Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.
	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.					
April.....	48·4	+2·6	45·8	+2·5	43·0	+3·1	15·8	-2·4	50·5	In. ·277	In. +·030	Gr. 3·1	Gr. +0·2
May.....	55·4	+2·9	52·8	+3·7	50·3	+4·0	18·5	-1·8	58·0	·365	+·065	4·0	+0·6
June.....	56·3	-1·8	52·7	-2·1	49·3	-1·6	17·8	-3·1	60·2	·352	-·022	4·0	-0·2
Mean.....	53·3	+1·2	50·4	+1·3	47·5	+2·1	17·3	-2·4	56·2	·331	+·024	3·7	+0·2

  

1862. Months.	Degree of Humidity.		Reading of Barometer.		Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.		Rain.		Daily Horizontal Move- ment of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass.				
	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Average of 21 Years.	In. Amut.	In. Diff. from Average of 46 Years.		Number of Nights it was			Low- est Read- ing at Night.	High- est Read- ing at Night.
										At or below 30°.	Be- tween 36° and 40°.	Above 40°.		
April.....	81	+ 2	In. 29·817	In. +100	Gr. 545	Gr. + 3	In. 2·8	In. +1·6	Miles. 269	5	12	13	20·5	48·0
May.....	84	+ 8	29·726	-044	534	- 4	2·8	+0·7	218	0	5	26	30·6	54·5
June.....	77	+ 3	29·718	-075	533	+ 2	1·8	-0·1	268	0	6	24	35·4	53·0
Mean.....	80	+ 4	29·763	-006	537	0	Sum 7·4	Sum +1·6	Mean 252	Sum 5	Sum 23	Sum 63	Lowest 20·5	Highest 54·5

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.

At *Helston* apple trees were in blossom on the 9th of April; lilac on the 24th; and laburnum on the 26th; swallows were seen on the 18th.

At *Clifton*, elm, horse chestnut, and sycamore trees were partially in leaf by the end of April; apple and lilac trees were in blossom about the middle of May; swallows arrived on April 26th; and the cuckoo the next day.

At *Berkhampstead*, up to April 30th, the spring was very favourable for the blossoming of fruit and vegetation generally; apple blossom is remarkably fine and plentiful, and other fruits, &c., are promising. The frosts about the middle of April did no material injury, except to young roses and tender shrubs, but from which they are now recovering.

At *Belvoir Castle*, wet and dull weather in June, caused considerable delay in preparing the land for turnips. Wheat appeared in ear very irregularly, commencing early in the month; the development of the ears was incomplete in many fields at the end of the month. The flowering was equally unsatisfactory. Barley has been checked in its progress, and looks unpromising. Oats not much better. Beans and peas look promising. Turnips sown in some places by the middle of June.

ENGLAND.—Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 30th June, 1862.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NAMES OF STATIONS.	Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermometer.	Lowest Reading of the Thermometer.	Range of Temperature in the Quarter.	Mean Monthly Range of Temperature.	Mean Daily Range of Temperature.	Mean Temperature of the Air.	Mean Degree of Humidity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey .....	29.640	67.5	35.0	32.5	23.3	9.1	51.3	88
Exeter .....	29.631	72.5	32.1	40.4	33.2	14.1	53.2	77
Ventnor .....	29.636	66.0	32.0	34.0	24.3	9.0	53.9	75
Barnstaple .....	29.634	73.0	32.0	41.0	33.6	13.3	53.2	84
Royal Observatory	29.612	81.5	26.7	54.8	40.7	17.4	53.3	80
Royston .....	29.617	80.6	26.3	54.3	42.0	17.8	52.2	85
Lampeter .....	29.579	74.2	26.8	47.4	37.3	16.7	52.0	85
Diss (Norfolk) ....	29.597	84.5	27.2	57.3	41.6	17.2	52.5	79
Derby .....	29.596	76.0	26.0	50.0	39.0	17.4	53.3	67
Liverpool .....	29.602	71.4	31.1	40.3	26.6	10.5	52.5	79
Wakefield .....	29.583	78.2	24.7	53.5	40.9	17.0	52.4	76
Bradford .....	—	70.0	28.6	41.4	27.6	10.4	51.9	—
Stonyhurst .....	29.586	71.9	24.7	47.2	36.8	14.3	50.7	81
Scarborough .....	29.584	69.0	30.0	39.0	29.3	10.6	49.6	90
North Shields ....	29.555	72.0	26.0	46.0	32.6	13.3	48.2	89
Alnwick .....	29.565	73.0	25.0	48.0	37.0	17.8	49.0	85

  

NAMES OF STATIONS.	10	11				12	13	14	15	16	17		18	
		WIND.									Mean Amount of Cloud.	RAIN.		
		Mean estimated Strength.	Relative Proportion of									Number of Days on which it fell.		Amount collected.
N.	E.	S.	W.		in.									
Guernsey .....	1.5	8	4	8	10	4.4	33	5.9						
Exeter .....	1.0	7	3	10	10	6.7	52	6.5						
Ventnor .....	—	3	6	8	13	—	35	6.2						
Barnstaple .....	1.3	4	5	10	12	5.0	50	11.0						
Royal Observatory	—	5	4	8	13	7.8	45	7.5						
Royston .....	—	8	2	7	12	7.2	58	6.0						
Lampeter .....	0.7	5	4	9	10	7.2	50	10.8						
Diss (Norfolk) ....	—	7	4	11	8	5.9	53	6.8						
Derby .....	—	4	5	7	14	—	57	8.4						
Liverpool .....	1.5	7	3	7	13	7.5	56	7.0						
Wakefield .....	1.7	7	5	8	10	7.2	51	7.4						
Bradford .....	1.7	7	4	8	10	7.1	60	7.2						
Stonyhurst .....	0.6	6	5	6	12	7.9	72	14.7						
Scarborough .....	—	6	8	7	9	—	23	4.6						
North Shields ....	1.9	8	5	6	11	6.6	62	7.6						
Alnwick .....	1.9	9	5	4	12	7.1	43	6.4						

Trade of United Kingdom, 1862-61-60.—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.

Merchandise (excluding Gold and Silver), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. (The unit 000's are omitted.)	First Three Months.					
	1862.		1861.		1860.	
	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to
<b>I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES:</b>	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland	1,715,	329,	1,601,	241,	1,553,	245,
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium	3,492,	4,193,	3,320,	4,356,	3,946,	4,933,
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain (with Gibraltar and Canaries)	5,876,	3,764,	6,068,	2,856,	4,758,	2,295,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta	834,	1,683,	1,043,	1,876,	810,	1,547,
Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt	3,436,	1,145,	3,308,	1,308,	2,666,	2,040,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco	93,	35,	79,	43,	29,	20,
Western Africa	283,	240,	152,	272,	330,	271,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Moorla Islands	—	25,	—	3,	9,	13,
Indian Seas, Siam, Java, Sumatra, Philippines; other Islands	243,	287,	235,	543,	310,	538,
South Sea Islands	—	—	—	—	—	3,
China, including Hong Kong	3,735,	777,	2,906,	1,853,	2,843,	1,467,
United States of America	5,319,	3,704,	14,046,	4,147,	11,088,	5,886,
Mexico and Central America	242,	108,	156,	206,	133,	155,
Foreign West Indies and Hayti	300,	553,	625,	563,	365,	342,
South America, (Northern,) New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador	308,	250,	212,	311,	129,	220,
" (Pacific,) Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia	1,160,	301,	996,	586,	1,117,	571,
" (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres	852,	1,290,	653,	1,676,	632,	1,531,
Whale Fisheries; Grnlnd., Davis' Straits, Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands	6,	5,	—	3,	—	—
<b>Total.—Foreign Countries</b>	<b>27,894,</b>	<b>18,698,</b>	<b>35,400,</b>	<b>20,843,</b>	<b>30,718,</b>	<b>22,077,</b>
<b>II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS:</b>						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	3,103,	3,830,	2,267,	3,204,	2,350,	4,158,
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	378,	1,621,	286,	1,466,	635,	1,921,
" " So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zea.	77,	421,	108,	375,	94,	391,
British North America	923,	268,	593,	329,	388,	512,
" W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	954,	712,	793,	597,	817,	563,
Cape and Natal	204,	487,	204,	465,	358,	467,
Brit. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	21,	94,	17,	112,	12,	97,
Mauritius	540,	138,	1,012,	129,	384,	130,
Channel Islands	142,	155,	140,	149,	147,	166,
<b>Total.—British Possessions</b>	<b>6,342,</b>	<b>7,726,</b>	<b>5,420,</b>	<b>6,826,</b>	<b>5,185,</b>	<b>8,405,</b>
<b>General Total</b>	<b>34,236,</b>	<b>26,424,</b>	<b>40,820,</b>	<b>27,669,</b>	<b>35,903,</b>	<b>30,482,</b>

IMPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — First Five Months (January — May) 1862-61-60-59-58.—Computed Real Value (Ex-duty), at Port of Entry (and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit), of Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom.

(First Five Months.) FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.	(000's omitted.)	1862.	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
		£	£	£	£	£
<b>RAW MATLS.—Textile.</b> Cotton Wool ....		5,702,	18,909,	18,752,	12,044,	13,173,
Wool (Sheep's)..		3,268,	2,849,	3,308,	3,063,	2,479,
Silk .....		6,162,	4,184,	4,137,	4,568,	2,279,
Flax .....		1,050,	611,	769,	881,	415,
Hemp .....		524,	358,	393,	567,	282,
Indigo .....		734,	425,	676,	707,	490,
		17,440,	27,366,	28,040,	21,830,	19,148,
“ “ <b>Various.</b> Hides .....		814,	638,	1,218,	747,	540,
Oils .....		1,128,	976,	1,010,	939,	979,
Metals .....		1,490,	1,055,	1,301,	1,151,	1,119,
Tallow .....		487,	569,	527,	330,	466,
Timber.....		1,439,	1,413,	1,057,	1,096,	638,
		5,358,	4,651,	5,147,	4,263,	3,742,
“ “ <b>Agricll.</b> Guano .....		315,	879,	626,	339,	1,930,
Seeds .....		776,	968,	947,	1,011,	560,
		1,091,	1,847,	1,573,	1,350,	2,490,
<b>TROPICAL, &amp; C., PRODUCE.</b> Tea .....		4,471,	3,435,	3,811,	2,235,	1,905,
Coffee .....		926,	669,	793,	419,	524,
Sugar & Molasses		4,756,	4,766,	4,277,	3,900,	4,108,
Tobacco .....		370,	465,	312,	277,	407,
Rice.....		500,	523,	244,	147,	595,
Fruits .....		127,	312,	251,	140,	140,
Wine .....		1,494,	1,816,	1,783,	841,	729,
Spirits .....		770,	649,	964,	709,	389,
		13,414,	12,635,	12,435,	8,668,	8,797,
<b>FOOD</b> .....	<b>Grain and Meal..</b>	12,836,	15,981,	6,402,	6,752,	7,879,
	<b>Provisions .....</b>	3,208,	2,673,	2,131,	1,155,	1,330,
		16,044,	18,654,	8,533,	7,907,	9,209,
<b>Remainder of Enumerated Articles</b> .....		1,314,	1,307,	1,369,	1,138,	1,042,
<b>TOTAL ENUMERATED IMPORTS....</b>		54,661,	66,460,	57,097,	45,156,	44,428,
<b>Add for UNENUMERATED IMPORTS (say)</b>		13,665,	16,615,	14,274,	11,289,	11,107,
<b>TOTAL IMPORTS.....</b>		68,326,	83,075,	71,371,	56,445,	55,535,

EXPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — First Six Months (January — June), 1862-61-60-59-58.—Declared Real Value, at Port of Shipment, of Articles of BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.

(First Six Months) BRITISH PRODUCE, & C., EXPORTED.	(Unit 000's omitted.)	1862.	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
		£	£	£	£	£
<b>MANFRS.—Textile.</b> Cotton Manufactures..		15,431,	18,894,	18,580,	18,942,	15,385,
“ Yarn.....		3,295,	4,458,	4,660,	4,370,	4,478,
Woolen Manufactures		5,600,	4,961,	5,501,	5,861,	4,148,
“ Yarn.....		1,573,	1,640,	1,739,	1,133,	1,132,
Silk Manufactures ...		1,001,	1,024,	950,	1,022,	768,
“ Yarn.....		161,	134,	117,	97,	80,
Linen Manufactures....		2,255,	2,039,	2,001,	2,257,	1,922,
“ Yarn.....		840,	773,	913,	787,	761,
		30,156,	33,923,	34,461,	34,469,	28,674,
“ <b>Sewed.</b> Apparel .....		1,033,	951,	965,	1,013,	851,
Haberdy. and Millry.		1,592,	1,689,	1,856,	2,158,	1,557,
		2,625,	2,640,	2,821,	3,171,	2,408,
<b>METALS</b> .....	<b>Hardware.....</b>	1,475,	1,640,	1,657,	1,840,	1,502,
	<b>Machinery .....</b>	1,821,	1,905,	1,592,	1,487,	1,794,
	<b>Iron .....</b>	5,071,	5,256,	5,607,	6,331,	5,393,
	<b>Copper and Brass.....</b>	1,293,	1,112,	1,474,	1,197,	1,327,
	<b>Lead and Tin .....</b>	1,347,	910,	1,287,	1,355,	1,040,
	<b>Coals and Culm .....</b>	1,720,	1,727,	1,544,	1,600,	1,522,
		12,727,	12,550,	13,161,	13,810,	12,578,
<b>Ceramic Manufcts.</b> Earthenware and Glass		825,	885,	979,	915,	830,
<b>Indigenous Mnfcs.</b> Beer and Ale .....		814,	830,	1,252,	1,295,	1,093,
	<b>Butter .....</b>	150,	252,	264,	319,	221,
	<b>Cheese .....</b>	58,	62,	55,	58,	36,
	<b>Candles .....</b>	112,	135,	120,	75,	70,
	<b>Salt .....</b>	152,	209,	170,	116,	143,
	<b>Spirits .....</b>	150,	178,	145,	114,	97,
	<b>Soda.....</b>	411,	269,	487,	517,	347,
		1,847,	1,935,	2,493,	2,494,	2,007,
<b>Various Manufcts.</b> Books .....		189,	203,	221,	215,	183,
	<b>Furniture.....</b>	107,	96,	103,	106,	130,
	<b>Leather Manufactures</b>	1,269,	945,	1,032,	898,	932,
	<b>Soap.....</b>	110,	116,	124,	92,	98,
	<b>Plate and Watches ...</b>	214,	204,	241,	235,	219,
	<b>Stationery.....</b>	127,	299,	373,	393,	360,
		2,016,	1,863,	2,094,	1,939,	1,922,
<b>Remainder of Enumerated Articles</b> .....		3,531,	1,890,	1,622,	1,546,	1,308,
<b>Unenumerated Articles</b> .....		3,588,	4,457,	4,389,	4,659,	3,741,
<b>TOTAL EXPORTS</b> .....		57,315,	60,143,	62,020,	63,003,	53,468,



SHIPPING.—FOREIGN TRADE.—(United Kingdom.)—First Six Months (January—June), 1862-61-60-59.—Vessels Entered and Cleared with Cargoes, including repeated Voyages, but excluding Government Transports.

(First Six Months.)	1862.			1861.		1860.		1859.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
<b>ENTERED:—</b>									
<i>Vessels belonging to—</i>	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia .....	149	47,	315	168	51,	136	42,	129	38,
Sweden .....	367	63,	172	473	80,	379	60,	333	56,
Norway .....	1,125	212,	188	1,066	200,	874	176,	892	193,
Denmark .....	1,053	103,	98	1,229	118,	1,341	127,	1,111	108,
Prussia and Ger. Sts. ....	1,459	366,	258	1,741	382,	1,527	318,	1,417	314,
Holland and Belgium ....	796	107,	134	809	107,	771	106,	760	107,
France .....	838	70,	83	1,002	79,	946	81,	1,466	120,
Spain and Portugal .....	184	55,	299	247	56,	188	50,	169	41,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	300	91,	303	397	112,	287	88,	262	83,
United States .....	561	480,	855	937	834,	692	689,	506	514,
All other States .....	8	3,	375	6	2,	10	3,	7	2,
United Kingdm. & Depds.....	6,840	1,597,	233	8,075	2,021,	7,151	1,740,	7,052	1,576,
<i>Totals Entered</i>	15,938	4,317,	270	17,162	4,735,	15,677	4,222,	15,557	3,863,
<b>CLEARED:—</b>									
Russia .....	170	55,	323	179	54,	142	46,	155	48,
Sweden .....	372	70,	188	477	87,	425	75,	361	68,
Norway .....	914	171,	187	943	169,	762	152,	886	185,
Denmark .....	1,273	124,	97	1,471	145,	1,464	143,	1,248	125,
Prussia and Ger. Sts. ....	2,194	437,	200	2,255	422,	1,924	378,	2,070	408,
Holland and Belgium ....	1,082	164,	151	971	136,	908	151,	984	153,
France .....	2,458	243,	98	2,702	259,	1,764	191,	1,752	191,
Spain and Portugal .....	187	59,	316	202	52,	160	45,	167	39,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	306	94,	307	519	148,	360	113,	388	119,
United States .....	518	447,	880	794	722,	711	675,	490	478,
All other States .....	17	8,	470	12	5,	9	3,	11	4,
United Kingdm. & Depds.....	9,491	1,872,	197	10,525	2,199,	8,629	1,972,	8,512	1,818,
<i>Totals Cleared</i>	22,752	5,484,	241	22,883	5,437,	20,281	5,119,	20,622	4,960,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE.—IMPORTED AND EXPORTED.—(United Kingdom.)—Computed Real Value for the First Six Months, (January—June), 1862-61-60.

(000's at unit end omitted.)

(First Six Months.)	1862.		1861.		1860.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
<b>Imported from:—</b>	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia .....	3,295,	—	3,092,	—	3,286,	—
So. Amca. and W. Indies .....	917,	3,016,	617,	2,780,	598,	1,839,
United States and Cal. ....	3,214,	45,	27,	26,	1,653,	551,
<i>Totals Imported</i>	7,426,	3,061,	3,736,	2,806,	5,537,	2,390,
France .....	83,	673,	1,697,	346,	53,	1,762,
Hanse Towns, Holl. & Belg. ....	386,	1,459,	401,	378,	10,	860,
Prtgl., Spain, and Gbrltr. ....	12,	66,	6,	94,	11,	142,
Mlta., Trky., and Egypt .....	3,	6,	12,	3,	14,	7,
China .....	—	1,	—	—	—	—
West Coast of Africa	57,	3,	40,	1,	55,	2,
All other Countries....	126,	13,	82,	25,	125,	7,
<i>Totals Imported</i>	8,093,	5,282,	5,974,	3,653,	5,805,	5,170,
<b>Exported to:—</b>						
France .....	2,711,	394,	916,	556,	3,447,	200,
Hanse Towns, Holl. & Belg. ....	122,	247,	9,	454,	66,	176,
Prtgl., Spain, and Gbrltr. ....	1,062,	7,	482,	3,	276,	1,
<i>Totals Exported</i>	3,895,	648,	1,407,	1,013,	3,789,	377,
Ind. and China (via Egypt) .....	629,	4,364,	451,	4,594,	760,	5,385,
Danish West Indies....	65,	5,	11,	29,	5,	10,
United States .....	29,	—	5,930,	18,	1,	2,
South Africa .....	—	—	75,	—	2,	—
Mauritius .....	—	—	—	2,	—	—
Brazil .....	225,	10,	12,	83,	273,	74,
All other Countries....	2,458,	591,	394,	62,	95,	28,
<i>Totals Exported</i>	7,301,	5,618,	8,280,	5,801,	4,925,	5,876,
Excess of Imports ....	792,	—	—	—	880,	—
„ Exports ....	—	336,	2,306,	2,148,	—	706,

## REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM).—30TH JUNE, 1862-61-60-59.

Net Produce in YEARS and QUARTERS ended 30TH JUNE, 1862-61-60-59.

[Unit 000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 30th June.	1862.	1861.	1862.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1860.	1859.
			£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.
Customs .....	5,791,	5,820,	30,	—	5,733,	6,108,
Excise .....	4,886,	5,171,	285,	—	5,114,	4,945,
Stamps .....	2,253,	2,186,	—	67,	2,068,	1,960,
Taxes .....	1,357,	1,363,	6,	—	1,354,	1,349,
Post Office .....	850,	825,	—	25,	825,	785,
	15,137,	15,365,	321,	92,	15,094,	15,147,
Property Tax .....	2,772,	2,588,	—	184,	1,089,	782,
	17,909,	17,953,	321,	276,	16,183,	15,929,
Crown Lands .....	68,	67,	—	1,	66,	65,
Miscellaneous .....	433,	378,	—	55,	570,	498,
<b>Totals .....</b>	<b>18,410,</b>	<b>18,398,</b>	<b>321,</b>	<b>332,</b>	<b>16,819,</b>	<b>16,492,</b>
			NET INCR. £11,310			

  

YEARS, ended 30th June.	1862.	1861.	1862.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1860.	1859.
			£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.
Customs .....	23,644,	23,393,	—	250,	24,085,	24,347,
Excise .....	18,047,	19,492,	1,445,	—	20,530,	18,221,
Stamps.....	8,658,	8,466,	—	192,	8,151,	7,882,
Taxes .....	3,154,	3,136,	—	18,	3,237,	3,185,
Post Office .....	3,535,	3,400,	—	135,	3,350,	3,220,
	57,038,	57,887,	1,445,	595,	59,353,	56,855,
Property Tax .....	10,549,	12,423,	1,874,	—	9,903,	6,266,
	67,587,	70,310,	3,319,	595,	69,256,	63,121,
Crown Lands .....	296,	292,	—	4,	286,	280,
Miscellaneous .....	1,803,	1,260,	—	542,	1,874,	2,288,
<b>Totals .....</b>	<b>69,686,</b>	<b>71,862,</b>	<b>3,319,</b>	<b>1,141,</b>	<b>71,416,</b>	<b>65,689,</b>
			NET DECR. £2,177,305			

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM).—QUARTER ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1862:—  
APPLICATION.

An Account showing the REVENUE and other RECEIPTS of the QUARTER ended 30th June, 1862; 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 31st March, 1862, viz.:—	£
Great Britain .....	—
Ireland .....	£485,174
	485,174
Income received in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862, as shown on preceding page .....	18,409,904
Amount raised per Act 23 and 24 Victoria, cap. 109, on account of Fortifications, &c. ....	200,000
Amount raised by the issue of Exchequer Bonds, per Act 25 Victoria, cap. 13. ....	1,000,000
Amount received in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862, in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c. ....	417,508
	£20,512,580
Balance, being the deficiency on 30th June, 1862, upon the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends, and other charges, payable in the Quarter to 30th September, 1862, and for which Exchequer Bills (Deficiency) will be issued in that Quarter.....	1,543,323
	£22,060,909

## Paid:—

Amount applied out of the Income for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862, in redemption of Exchequer Bills (Deficiency), for the Quarter ended 31st March, 1862 .....	£	1,936,281
Amount applied out of the Income to Supply Services in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862 .....		11,725,253
Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862, viz.:—		
Interest of the Permanent Debt .....	£0,306,777	
Terminable Debt .....	338,348	
Principal of Exchequer Bills .....	16,200	
Interest of .....	90,945	
„ Exchequer Deficiency Bills .....	241	
The Civil List .....	102,096	
Other Charges on Consolidated Fund .....	624,672	
Advances for Public Works, &c. ....	173,913	
	7,653,192	
Surplus Balance in Ireland beyond the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Ireland for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1862, viz.: .....		746,183
		£22,060,909

CORN.—Gazette Average Prices (ENGLAND AND WALES) Second Quarter of 1862.

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

Weeks ended on a Saturday 1862.	Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
April 5	58 5	36 -	21 9	36 5	38 2	38 7
" 12	57 6	36 4	21 5	38 5	38 11	41 1
" 19	57 9	36 8	21 1	31 6	38 6	40 5
" 26	58 2	37 -	21 8	38 1	38 11	38 -
Average for April	57 11	36 6	21 5	36 10	38 7	39 6
May 3	58 10	37 2	22 5	37 8	39 10	40 11
" 10	58 8	37 3	22 4	35 11	40 3	40 5
" 17	57 11	37 -	23 5	34 5	39 10	39 7
" 24	56 9	35 11	22 11	43 2	40 5	43 1
" 31	55 2	35 7	23 11	41 11	40 6	39 9
Average for May	57 5	36 7	23 -	38 7	40 2	40 9
June 7	54 7	34 3	23 4	43 6	40 9	37 6
" 14	53 9	33 3	21 4	33 9	40 1	37 9
" 21	54 1	32 10	23 5	36 1	39 11	37 2
" 28	55 4	32 9	22 11	36 8	40 2	39 1
Average for June	54 5	33 3	23 6	37 6	40 2	38 -
Average for the Quarter	56 8	35 6	22 8	37 8	39 8	39 6

RAILWAYS.—PRICES, April—June,—and TRAFFIC, Jan.—June, 1862.

Total Capital Expended Mlns.	Railway.	For the (£100). Price on			Miles Open.		Total Traffic first 26 Weeks. (unit 000's omitted.)		Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 26 Weeks.		Dividends per Cent. for Half Years.		
		2nd June	1st May	1st April	'62.	'61.	'62.	'61.	'62.	'61.	31 Dec. '61.	30 Jun. '61.	31 Dec. '60.
		£	£	£	No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
44.4	Lond. & N. Westn.	93½	95½	92½	1,066	1,015	2,108	2,132	76	81	47 6	37 6	52 6
35.2	Great Western	71½	74½	72½	964	943	1,387	1,367	55	55	30 -	22 6	35 -
13.4	Great Northern	113½	116	115½	330	330	646	661	75	77	77 6	37 6	63 9
17.9	Eastern Counties.	53½	58½	57	499	499	643	638	49	49	30 -	16 3	23 9
10.2	Brighton	122	122½	121½	241	224	428	414	68	72	70 -	50 -	70 -
14.1	South-Eastern	83½	85	82½	306	306	523	526	66	66	50 -	41 8	60 -
12.6	South-Western	99½	100½	100	400	400	-	473	-	42	55 -	40 -	52 6
147.8		91	93	91½	3,806	3,717	5,735	6,211	65	65	51 -	35 1	51 1
21.7	Midland	127½	128½	127½	622	614	960	987	59	61	70 -	62 6	70 -
19.3	Lancsh. and York.	107½	107½	107	395	395	811	946	79	92	50 -	45 -	60 -
11.7	Sheffield and Man.	40½	42½	43½	231	231	350	390	58	65	12 6	7 6	15 -
23.8	North-Eastern	97	85	97½	800	789	901	978	43	47	50 -	52 6	57 6
4.5	South Wales	68	68	67½	171	171	-	179	-	40	30 -	27 6	30 -
81.0		88	86½	88½	2,219	2,200	3,022	3,480	57	60	42 -	39 -	46 6
9.1	Caledonian	108	109½	111½	121	125	392	393	124	121	55 -	50 -	55 -
5.2	Gt. S. & Wn. Irind.	105½	106	106	329	329	206	203	24	24	50 -	50 -	50 -
243.1	Gen. aver.	92½	92½	92½	6,475	6,371	9,355	10,287	61	62	48 6	38 7	49 8

Consols.—Money Prices 2nd June, 92½ x.d.,—1st May, 93½,—1st April, 93½ to ¾.  
Exchequer Bills. " 12s. pm. " 19s. pm. " 19s. pm.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—WEEKLY RETURN.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), for Wednesday in each Week, during the SECOND QUARTER (April—June) of 1862.

ISSUE DEPARTMENT.					COLLATERAL COLUMNS.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Liabilities.	DATES.	Assets.			Notes in Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	Minimum Rates of Discount at Bank of England.
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.		
Mlns. £	1862.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	1862. Per ann.
30,61	April 2	11,02	3,63	15,96	20,82	9 Jan. 2½ p. ct.
30,67	" 9	11,02	3,63	16,02	21,15	
30,55	" 16	11,02	3,63	15,90	21,42	
30,95	" 23	11,02	3,63	16,30	21,02	
30,89	" 30	11,02	3,63	16,24	21,26	
31,03	May 7	11,02	3,63	16,40	21,03	
30,70	" 14	11,02	3,63	16,05	20,90	
30,09	" 21	11,02	3,63	15,45	20,83	
29,97	" 28	11,02	3,63	15,32	20,61	
29,30	June 4	11,02	3,63	14,65	20,86	
28,88	" 11	11,02	3,63	14,23	20,69	
29,06	" 18	11,02	3,63	14,41	20,48	
29,67	" 25	11,02	3,63	15,02	20,59	

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

Liabilities.													Assets.				Totals of Liabilities and Assets.
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.			Seven Day and other Bills.	DATES. (Wednesdays.)	Securities.		Reserve.		Totals of Liabilities and Assets.						
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.	Government.			Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.								
Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	1862.	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £	Mlns. £					
14,55	3,67	8,46	13,62	,68	April 2	11,39	18,91	9,79	,89	40,97							
14,55	3,08	5,62	16,34	,67	" 9	11,16	18,72	9,52	,86	40,27							
14,55	3,08	5,22	15,71	,63	" 16	11,21	18,02	9,13	,85	39,20							
14,55	3,09	5,53	15,91	,63	" 23	11,21	17,71	9,93	,87	39,72							
14,55	3,08	6,87	14,36	,69	" 30	11,21	17,86	9,63	,85	39,55							
14,55	3,10	7,50	13,87	,70	May 7	11,23	17,63	10,00	,86	39,73							
14,55	3,12	6,30	14,95	,73	" 14	10,33	18,65	9,80	,87	39,66							
14,55	3,13	6,56	14,55	,66	" 21	10,33	19,00	9,26	,89	39,45							
14,55	3,11	6,94	14,68	,66	" 28	10,33	19,39	9,36	,86	39,95							
14,55	3,11	7,52	13,19	,66	June 4	10,33	19,41	8,44	,84	39,03							
14,55	3,12	8,82	13,16	,64	" 11	11,03	20,26	8,19	,80	40,29							
14,55	3,13	9,32	13,08	,60	" 18	11,03	20,21	8,58	,86	40,68							
14,55	3,13	9,63	13,40	,59	" 25	11,08	20,24	9,08	,89	41,30							



CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES, on Saturday, in each Week during the SECOND QUARTER (April—June) of 1862; and in SCOTLAND and IRELAND, at the Four 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.)
1862.	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	1862.	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	Mlms. £	Mlms. £
April 5	3,32	3,03	6,35	April 5	1,41	2,40	3,81	3,02	2,77	5,79
" 12	3,39	3,10	6,49							
" 19	3,40	3,09	6,49							
" 26	3,37	3,05	6,42							
May 3	3,34	3,03	6,37	May 3	1,52	2,44	3,96	3,15	2,71	5,86
" 10	3,36	3,03	6,39							
" 17	3,33	3,02	6,35							
" 24	3,25	2,94	6,19							
" 31	3,19	2,87	6,06	" 31	1,86	2,75	4,61	3,14	2,60	5,74
June 7	3,16	2,86	6,02							
" 14	3,15	2,85	6,00							
" 21	3,13	2,84	5,97							
" 28	3,12	2,81	5,93	June 28	1,63	2,63	4,26	2,68	2,51	5,39

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

DATES.	Paris.			Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.	
	London on Paris.	Bullion as arbitrated.		London on Hamburg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India House.	At Calcutta on London.				
		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.							
1862.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	d.	d.	d.	pr. ct.	d.	
Apl. 12..	25.50	—	0.4	par	13.8½	—	0.5	112	—	24½	53½	1½ p.	61½
" 26..	.50	—	"	"	.8½	—	0.2	113	—	" ½	"	"	"
May 10..	.50	—	0.2	1 p.	.8¾	0.1	—	"	—	"	"	"	"
" 31..	.47	—	par	"	.8¾	—	par	114	—	"	"	"	"
June 14..	.50	—	0.1	"	.9	—	0.1	115	23¾	24½	"	"	"
" 28..	.52	—	0.3	"	.4½	—	par	116	"	"	"	"	61

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,  
DECEMBER, 1862.

On the EARNINGS of AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS in SCOTLAND and IRELAND. By FREDERICK PURDY, Esq., Principal of the Statistical Department, Poor Law Board, London.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 15th April, 1862.]

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I.—Introductory.

The paper, on the "Earnings of Agricultural Labourers in England and Wales," which I had the honour to read before the Society last year, concluded with these words:—

"Since the publication of the English return, the House of Commons has ordered similar information to be laid before it in respect of Ireland and Scotland, in the same form and for the same period, as that we have just been discussing. If the facts are as fully