exactly suited to produce the best effects for pictorial windows. Resuming our remarks upon enamel painting, there was the brown painted smear, and stipple shading, also a darker enamel for lines and shadows by hatching, or repetition of lines, serving as shadow upon white or pot-metal colours. There are several methods of shading, some being smooth, employed in early examples, and the latter being darker, employed in the later grisaille of larger works. It may be asked, does the grotesque style of the past age harmonise with our present mode of thought? How far does the present Exhibition, considering the present advanced state of the fine arts, meet the requirements of the nineteenth century? We reply, it is the contrast between 1851 and 1862 that affirms the fact, that in most of the English exhibitors, and several of the foreign, the art of glass painting has advanced with the times both in style and artistic execution. It is, however, much to be regretted that few of the windows can fairly be seen to advantage, owing to too much interior light, and the exterior borrowed lights of the present building being so inferior. Continental glass artists generally adhered to the early grotesque style in imitation of the past age; and in that respect in 1851 were superior to the English; and with the exception of the beautiful windows painted by Bertini and his school, that style is still retained. Bertini's windows in 1851 and 1862, may be classed in the mixed style of the old mosaic, and the enamelled style of the nineteenth century. The excellence in design and execution of the former was generally admitted, although insufficient transparency was occasioned by the too great opacity of the principal central figure. The Madonna and Child, of Bertini, of 1862, may be considered as one of the gems of this Exhibition. The art of glass painting should have a special mode of treatment, impressed upon it by the nature of the material, as oil for canvas, and fresco for ceilings and walls. Glass being the medium through which the light passes, transparency must be its condition; different degrees of transparency are admissible, but when a large portion of the glass is so opaque as almost wholly to preclude the transmission of the rays, an essential condition is infringed. The style of the 16th century, or earlier periods, modified by the taste and feeling of the 19th century, should be supported by our designers and glass painters. With good original designs, improved antique glass, judiciously leaded, with a proper degree of transparency, first-rate drawing, good shadows, and well-arranged colours, forming as a whole a work of art, rich, harmonious, and impressive, patrons will not be wanting for the decoration of our ecclesiastical or domestic buildings. No doubt artists are influenced considerably by their patrons, each of whom may have his settled convictions as to style, &c. We should, however, endeavour to preserve the beauties, and avoid the defects of the drawing

The remaining income tax, though two-thirds of the payers have been relieved from it by the repeal of the 2 per cent. duty, is still very unpopular among all classes, both Europeans and natives, and is borne patiently mainly because it is believed that it will not be continued beyond the period of five years, for which it was originally passed. I think the faith of the government is morally pledged not to continue the income tax beyond this period, unless absolutely necessary; and I am satisfied that it would be a most fatal political blunder to do anything which would put the government in a worse position for repealing this tax, at or before the end of three years from the present time, when it expires.

To the extent, therefore, of 1,500,000*l.*, which is the annual revenue given by the income tax, I consider that the resources of the Indian government, whether derived from improved revenue or from further economy in expenditure, are, so to speak, mortgaged, and I am convinced that it would be deeply resented as a fraud and as an injury by the whole population of India if any portion of these resources were applied to an exclusively English object while the income tax remains unrepealed.

As a practical question, therefore, I do not think it is of the slightest use pressing for a repeal of the 5 per cent. import duty, unless it can be made a special case, and a fair equivalent given for it to India. Without this, I tell you frankly, I should oppose it myself. I believe the Indian government and the whole Indian community would oppose it; and I cannot for a moment imagine that any Secretary of State would think of sending an order to India for a purely English object, overruling in such a matter the unanimous wish of India. If he did, he would deserve to be impeached, for it is perfectly evident that he would be a far more formidable enemy to the British crown in India than Feroze Shah or Nana Sahib.

You say that the 500,000*l.* might be saved by a further reduction of the European army in India.

I believe it is perfectly true that India, if well governed and contented, might be held securely by a smaller European force than 70,000 men, which is about its present strength. But, for some time after the mutiny, it will be a wise and merciful policy to keep, not only a sufficient, but a superabundant force, so as not only to suppress disturbances if they arise, but to make them impossible. 1,000,000*l.* a year, which is about the difference in cost between 60,000 and 70,000 Europeans, is not too much, under present circumstances, to pay for a few years by way of extra insurance, to remove all temptation from unruly spirits in populous cities and in remote districts, and to give India what she most requires—a period of perfect tranquillity, unbroken by even a rumour of political dangers.

the old means of conveyance. But the want
public required an almost infinite number o
vehicles. Cabs were introduced—at first ga
clumsy imitations of the Paris cab—which w
petually ejecting the passengers out o
road-way or upon the horse; omnibuses w
tiplied, steamboats with penny fares, a
halfpenny fares, covered the Thame
as the population increased, and the rails
a vast accession of visitors to the metropo
means of internal communication were
nually extended and improved. The n
work has been entirely effected by privat
prise: cabs, omnibuses, and river steamers
been much increased in number and impr
quality. The original cab has entirely disa
from our streets, and so has the *vis-à-vi*
chucked the riders against each other. Th
given place to the compact snug four-wheeler
quick-running Hansom. Private enterpr
completely met and satisfied the growin
Cab owners and cab drivers have in this
like the owners of river boats, done cor
and well all that the public has required o
As the rule, though the demand has increas
mously, cab accommodation is abundant.

But the public and the legislature, whi
trusted private enterprise to provide the ac
dation, have refused to trust private en
to regulate it. The very rapid increase
demand for such accommodation as exi
were opened and excusion trains were r
favourable to cabowners and cabmen; and
patient public was much dissatisfied w
advantage they took of it. About the p
the first Exhibition and immediately after
rous complaints appeared in the journals
extortions and impertinence; and in 1
Fitzroy (then Under-Secretary of State
Home Department, of which Lord Palmers
the chief) introduced and passed an act for
ing hackney carriages. Amongst other th
fixed the sixpenny fare. It was an ame

ductive application of that investment is diminished, would be incomplete, if we did not refer to the waste of the stock by excessive standing armies in time of peace, not to speak of wars. Armies have an economical value, as hedges necessary for the protection of production, but fields may be wastefully hedged to the injury of production. The conditions which withdrew half a million of men from productive industry in France, and a total of three millions of men on the continent, are conditions on which economists of all nations may be called upon to enlighten peoples. England has by her economics in this respect a store of power, from her consequent accumulation of capital, to get up military force when required to sustain war. In an economical point of view the volunteer movement is of great value, as supplying a better defensive force than old soldiers were inclined to admit, as diminishing the extent of need of a standing army, and as supplying this force without interfering with productive industry, and, indeed, in respect to large numbers engaged in sedentary occupations, favouring that industry, by giving the young the healthful exercise of which they are in need. In many respects the volunteer movement is a sanitary, as well as an economic movement. But does it not commend itself, as an economic measure, to make a general public provision for such military training at those periods when all authorities acknowledge it to be most efficient, namely, the infantile and juvenile periods, the school periods, when it not only does not interfere with the productive industry of the nation, but is in itself a most necessary and powerful preparation for it? To the economists of France we may appeal for representations against the waste which prevails there, and justifies or provokes the like waste amongst surrounding peoples. To them it may be pointed out for consideration, that one year's cost of each soldier would subsoil-drain five acres of land permanently, and would repay the cost in five years by extra production; that one year's keep of every regiment would subsoil-drain more than two hundred and fifty miles of road, and serve as outfalls for the subsoil drainage of the adjacent fields, which require drainage through a large part of France. Their yield of wheat does not average more than from thirteen to fifteen bushels an acre, with all their advantages of soil and climate, ours in the corn-growing districts being double that. I would venture to propose to our gallant neighbours the complete conquest of the soil of France itself, it being, economically, a more glorious achievement to double the production on their own soil, than to double the area of their dominion by conquest, even if modern civilisation allowed them to clear off existing owners and occupiers from the country conquered. The annual cost of the keep of two soldiers for a year would provide permanent works of water supply and drainage (including the substitution of water-closets for the pestilential cesspools) for two houses, would reduce the sickness and death rate of the inmates by one third. The expense of one year's keep of one-tenth of their army, or fifty thousand men, would render this permanent service to every house in Paris, and would annually save eight or ten thousand of the population of that metropolis from perishing by foul air diseases. So would the expense of two iron-clads. The Emperor has expressed strong wishes for the improvement of the sanitary condition of the population, but his wishes have not been seconded by the legislature. Forty per cent. of the population in France can neither read nor write, and are plunged in the darkest ignorance. The keep of every soldier would train and educate three children for life. The keep of one regiment of 1,000 men for a year would serve as a foundation for the perpetual elementary physical and mental training of as many children. When it is considered that there are nearly three millions of men withdrawn from productive industry, we may estimate from thence the vast waste or the gain to be derived from the prevalence of views of economic science. I have now stated my view of the rudimentary principles of economy applicable to the labourer, treating him, as I promised, as an investment of capital. I shall have done something if I have increased the conception of the value of the material which we possess as compared with other nations, and drawn attention to the conditions by which the productive power of that material and great source of national wealth is impaired, viz., the conditions unfavourable to his growth, to his health, to the amount and duration of his force—to the waste of his power, from want of education and from misdirection, and from want of intelligent aptitudes—to the waste from over bodily work and under mental work, as well as from over mental work and under bodily work in the school period. These conditions may be modified or extended as economical conditions, but it will not be by meditations or abstract reasonings in the closet, but by direct observation in the field or in the workshop, by collecting the experience of leaders of industry, such as Mr. Whitworth and Mr. Fairbairn in the mechanical section; by collecting in Section D the observations of Professor Owen, and the other professors of physiology, which has an intimate connexion with economical science, in dealing with its source of force for production. Having made collections of facts from those sources, economic science and statistics will weigh, and enumerate, and give a money account of them.

A vote of thanks was passed to the president for his address.

Mr. E. Macrory, one of the secretaries of the section, read a paper by the Rev. Vernon Harcourt, M.A., "On Technical and Scientific Evidence in Courts of Law," which dealt with the present public feeling with reference to "ex parte" scientific evidence, which ran so much against its admission, that it was even thought desirable that it should not be received at all. This latter course, it was argued, was not practicable; but it was urged that the present system required careful revision, and it was suggested that the plan adopted in navigation cases should be extended to all courts of law, and that in all cases which required scientific knowledge for their elucidation the judge should be assisted by three assessors, experts in the particular scientific matter involved, and that an act of parliament should be passed for effecting this object. It was also proposed that a judge should have power to call in additional scientific witnesses in a case.

It should be stated that this paper is the report of a committee appointed to investigate the subject at the last meeting of the association at Manchester.

A very interesting discussion ensued, in which Mr. Heywood, Mr. Tite, Mr. Thos. Webster, Mr. Whiteside, Mr. Napier, &c., took part, in which it was elicited that, although on the face of the report it was left an open question whether a judge with scientific assessors should supersede a jury, yet the balance of opinion of the committee was that the practice of the Admiralty Court should be followed, and that there should be no jury.

A paper by Mr. Charles Willich, "On the Expectation of Life;" a technical disquisition on life assurance, was next read.

A paper by the Rev. George Fisher, M.A., F.R.S., "On the Numerical Mode of estimating Educational Qualifications as pursued at the Greenwich Hospital School," was also read, and the section adjourned.

Section G.—MECHANICAL SCIENCE AND SCHOOLS.

W. Fairbairn, Esq., F.R.S., the president of the section, delivered an opening address, taking for his subject the advance in mechanical science. He stated that every year developed some new feature in that science, and in the present year the International Exhibition had shown proofs of special progress. Tracing the progress of the application of steam to mechanical purposes, such as locomotion, marine and on land, during the present century, he specially dwelt on the wondrous powers of locomotive engines. He thought that the application of steam to locomotion ought to be made a part of the education of the rising generation, so far at least as its general principles and its adaptation to useful purposes were concerned, while such a knowledge would often tend to the prevention of accidents. Alluding to the discovery and application of lighting by gas by Mr. Murdoch, of Soho, London, in 1801, he showed that it had made little progress until 1814, since which it had rapidly come into general, indeed universal, use. He next touched on the mechanical appliances worked by steam in use in navigation, of which there were numerous examples in the Exhibition; but no new discovery had been there exhibited, but the machinery was more compact than usual. He pointed out that the horizontal principle in steam engines was fast superseding that formerly adopted, especially for manufacturing and agricultural purposes; and he dwelt on the beauty and exactitude with which steam engines of all kinds were constructed in this country, in which manufacture the English workman was unrivalled. He asserted that, looking at the articles displayed in the mechanical department of the Exhibition, there never were such instances of the manufacture of engines and tools by the creators themselves, while many of them were remarkable for ingenuity of design and construction. Alluding to the reconstruction of ordnance and the armour plating of ships of war, which had placed the armaments of modern times in a state of transition, he showed that it had been proved that no ships had been yet constructed plated with iron capable of resisting such ordnance as could be brought against them. He himself, in common with others, had been endeavouring to obtain a species of iron best capable of bearing the impact of shot, and he believed that the best description of iron for that purpose had been found. The experiments with the Horsfall gun had proved that such a gun would be advantageous for use in forts, though it was not so well adapted for use in ships. Having stated the results of the experiments at Shoeburyness with the Whitworth gun—namely, a success against iron plates such as were chiefly now in use—he laid it down that at present the victory was on the side of the gun as against iron-plated ships.

In this section papers were read by Mr. James Nasmyth "On an Improved Form of Link Motion;" by Mr. Edward E. Allen, "On the Importance of Economising Fuel in Iron Ships;" by Dr. Filippo Grimaldi, "On a new Marine Boiler;" by Mr. W. Thorold, "On the Failure of the Sluice in the Fens, and on the means of securing such sluices against a similar contingency;" by Mr. J. Coryton, "On a Vertical Wave-line System of Ship Construction;" also, "On an Oblique System of Self-reefing Sails;" and "On an Atmospheric Guide Propeller," by the same gentleman.

Mr. Cobden in Inverness.—The distinguished corn-law repealer paid a visit to Inverness last week, accompanied by his wife and daughter. The party arrived here on Wednesday, and intended to take up their quarters at the Station Hotel; but the place being crammed with visitors, Mr. Marshall procured comfortable lodgings for them in the house of Mr. Jack, shoemaker, who paid them every attention, and who is naturally very proud of the honour of entertaining such visitors. They left here by the steamer on Friday morning, on a visit to Mr. Ellice's hospitable mansion of Glenquoich.—*Inverness Advertiser.*

Fire in Finsbury.—This morning, at half-past 2 o'clock, a destructive fire broke out on the premises of Mr. Green, chair manufacturer, Angel-alley, Bishopsgate. The loss of Mr. Green in stock is large, and it is said he was not insured. The cause of the fire is unknown.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

The signs of approaching extinction are rapidly closing round the great International Exhibition of 1862. The people come later, and go away earlier, and notices are posted in every corner, offering tickets at a pound a piece for the final ceremony. What that ceremony is to be is not yet settled, and therefore all published details respecting it are perfectly imaginary. Neither is there any certainty, nor even strong expectation, that the Prince of Wales will preside, although, if circumstances would permit of his Royal Highness's presence, it would be a great card, and would tell most beneficially on the rather straitened finances of the Exhibition. The sales go on briskly, especially in the fine arts department, the last reported being that of Gibson's tinted Cupid, but the fact is that nearly all the sculpture of moderate drawing-room size has found ready purchasers. We observed a good many people yesterday congregated about the Armstrong and Whitworth guns, as if the recent experiments at Shoeburyness had imparted a new interest to these formidable articles. In the Belgian department, western annex, a novelty has been added, in the shape of a flax and fibre machine, the invention of Messrs. Sanford and Mallery, an American firm. The machine is engaged to do everything in the way of fitting fibre of every description for the looms; and, therefore, in the present scarcity of cotton and the general anxiety to find a fibrous substitute, the machine is well worth a visit.

We were informed yesterday that the Emperor of the French has presented the contents of the Algerian department in the French Court to the Kensington Museum, whither they will be removed immediately on the closing of the Exhibition. They include an immense variety of colonial products, and will form a very interesting collection. As will be seen by the subjoined list there were a good number of schools visiting the Exhibition, but they retired early, and could hardly have had time for a careful inspection.

The following is a list of the schools, &c., visiting the Exhibition yesterday:—St. Andrew's, Lambeth, National School, 161, expenses paid by subscription; St. Paul's, Covent-garden, National School, 17, by Mr. Howard; King Edward, St. George's-road, Southwark, 21, by the Governors; Wimbledon, Surrey, Sunday-school, 30, by subscription; St. Mary's, Lewisham, Kent, Sunday-school, 30, by subscription; Haverstock Sunday-school, 10, by Rev. E. Diver; Teachers of St. John's, Deptford, Sunday school, 19, by the managers; St. Sepulchre's, City, Sunday-school, 30, by J. Hobby, Esq.; Bolton-street, Kensington, Sunday-school, 10, by individual subscription; Stockwell-green British Sunday-school, 10, by Mr. Goodchild; Anerley, Surrey, North, Sunday-school, 7, by Mrs. Vigooles; Male Students of the Society's Training College at Stockwell, 94, by J. Gurney, Esq.; Female Students of the Society's Training College at Stockwell, 92, by H. E. Gurney, Esq.; St. Giles's National School, 255, by the Rev. A. Thorold, Rector; shipbuilders' apprentices from Mr. John Ransome's, Southampton, 47, by the employer.

The highest temperature yesterday, as shown by Negretti and Zambra's patent thermometers, was:—In the nave, 65.0 deg.; in the galleries, 65.6 deg.; in the western annex, 71.0 deg. The readings were taken at 3 o'clock p.m.

The following were the total numbers admitted yesterday, compared with the corresponding day in 1851:

	1862.	
One Shilling day. Thursday, Oct. 2	Season tickets	3,341
	Ten Shilling season tickets	765
	Payment	33,741
	Total	37,847
	1851.	
One Shilling day. Thursday, Oct. 2	Season tickets	2,686
	Payment	61,612
	Total	64,298

MUSIC.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA.

Miss Louisa Pyne re-appeared last night, after her severe and dangerous illness. The interest taken by the public in one of their greatest favourites—and no one is more deserving of their favour—was shown by an overflowing house, and by the extraordinary warmth of her reception. When she came forward in the first scene of the *Crown Diamonds*, looking as bright and pleasant as ever, the whole audience, from the orchestra stalls to the ceiling, burst into a thunder of applause and acclamations, with which the theatre rang for several minutes before she was allowed to open her lips. When she began to sing we had the satisfaction to find that her powers were unimpaired, and that she was herself again. Her voice had all its usual clearness, richness, and flexibility, and she executed the most brilliant passages with that delightful fluency and absence of apparent effort which gives her singing a charm peculiar to herself. Caterina is one of her best parts. She acts with a grace and archness not excelled by any of its representatives that have ever appeared on the boards of the Opera Comique, while in the English freshness and mellowness of her voice she surpasses them all. The whole opera was admirably performed. The gaiety of the subject, and the sparkling lightness of the music, filled with the most delicious melodies, evidently kept the audience in a state of pleasant excitement the whole evening. Mr. Harrison, as usual, was most happy in the character of the hero, acting with gentlemanlike ease and spirit, and we have not for a long time heard him in better voice. Miss Susan Pyne—that most intelligent and agreeable seconda donna—gave great effect to the character of Diana, and Mr. Corri was a capital Rebolledo. The concerted music—especially the most masterly finale to the first act—was executed with great clearness and animation; and Mr. Mellon and his well-disciplined troops did all justice to Auber's charming instrumentation.

Literary Intelligence.—Among the other works announced for early publication by Messrs. Hurst and Blackett are the English translation of "Les Miserables," by Victor Hugo, complete in three volumes; "English Women of Letters," by Miss Kavanagh; a new edition of Mrs. Oliphant's "Life of Edward Irving;" "Greece and the Greeks," by Miss Bremer, translated by Mary Howitt; a new edition of "Female Life in Prison," by a Prison Matron; and "Slaves of the Ring; or Before and After," by the author of "Grandmother's Money," &c.

London Theatres.—Mr. Boucicalt in a letter to a contemporary, contrasts the theatres of France and America with those of London, much to the disadvantage of the latter. The entire cost, he says, of constructing and furnishing a theatre the size of the Haymarket would be about 15,000*l.*; the rent of such a building varies from 3,500*l.* to 4,000*l.* a year. He pays at the rate of 7,800*l.* for Drury-lane. The Haymarket was rented for many years at 4,400*l.* a year, and is worth that amount now. The Princess's was let to Mr. Webster for 3,800*l.* a year, who has sublet it for 4,100*l.* A rent of 4,500*l.* was offered for the Adelphi. About 4,000*l.* a year is paid for the Lyceum. It is an error to presume that a great risk is attached to this species of property. No house-rents are paid with such regularity, and no buildings are so rarely without tenants. In most cases the rent is payable in advance, and in some leases it is stipulated that all scenery, furniture, wardrobe, and accessories made in the theatre by the lessee become the property of the landlord. Mr. Boucicault pleads for the erection of a new theatre, wherein the public shall find combined the improvements of the American and French systems, and in which the heavy expenses of the present system will not be necessary. Mr. Boucicault concludes:—"Let a party of a dozen gentlemen—I mean those who complain so constantly of the discomfort of the dress circle and the want of room in the orchestra stalls, subscribe and build a new and elegant theatre. Let them do something graceful for the pit and gallery, securing the people comfort, room, and air; and if there be any modesty about starting such a subscription, I will give 5,000*l.* to begin with."

The Islington Reformatory.—Yesterday the foundation stone of a new structure for the Islington Reformatory in Copenhagen-street was laid, with the usual ceremony, by Sir J. Tyler, in the absence, from indisposition, of the Rev. Daniel Wilson, the vicar. Mr. Harvey and other gentlemen having addressed the meeting on the advantages the old establishment had conferred upon the district, and on the extended sphere of usefulness in store for the new one, the company were invited to inspect those portions of the building already erected, and which indicated that it was already considerably advanced towards completion. The main building is of brick, plain and substantial, 100 feet long by 40 feet wide, and at an elevation of 36 feet, the basement being divided into a series of reformatory workshops, and the upper story into one large ragged school, capable of holding 400 children, there being already 380 on the books. There are two playgrounds, and a separate building set apart for dining rooms, dormitories, lavatories, and infirmaries. The architect is Mr. C. Higgins, and the builder Mr. Wheen. The estimated cost is 2,100*l.*, of which sum 1,300*l.* is required to complete it; and it is expected to be ready for occupation by the end of November. The proceedings terminated with hymns, Rule Britannia, and God save the Queen.

EXHIBITION JURY REPORTS.

The Royal Commissioners of the International Exhibition having declined to publish the jury reports upon the several classes, that task has been thrown upon the Society of Arts, and is now drawing towards completion. We are not disposed to regard the decisions of the jurors as proving anything more, in the main, than that certain exhibitors displayed particular articles, which articles were made more or less good by their manufacturers. International Exhibitions are chiefly collections of special productions; and it is these special productions which are examined (not the classes they are supposed to represent) and rewarded with praise or blame according to their merits.

The whole of the jury reports are not yet issued to the subscribers, but those which are published contain a mass of interesting and valuable information, much of which might have been put together even if there had been no display at South Kensington. The Exhibition forms a text from which many writers full of knowledge branch out into essays upon arts, manufactures, and commerce, and these essays flavour the drier portions of the reports and the lists of medal-holders. Many of the articles in our Special Exhibition Supplements have occupied the ground taken up by these reports, but some of the reports upon classes, which from want of space we were unable to do full justice to, may be quoted as specimens of the volume. The work itself is one that could hardly have been produced without the intervention of the Society of Arts, or some such body. When completed it will form a highly valuable record of the Exhibition.

The following interesting article upon stained glass and glass used for decoration is written by Mr. Apsley Pellatt. We quote from those parts of the volume already issued:

The adoption of painted windows was concurrent with the improvement in architecture, and especially in the introduction of the early English and Gothic, which succeeded the Saxon and the Norman. From the 12th to the 13th centuries the large expenditure in England and on the Continent on cathedrals, churches, and religious houses induced a demand for decorated glass windows, and the early archaic style was then generally introduced into windows, which were not only beautiful in themselves, but conferred a beauty upon the interior architectural decorations of these ecclesiastical buildings. At this period, and for centuries subsequently, the archaic style was adopted: it consisted of a perfect mosaic of rosettes, flowers, leaves, and other designs. The borders consisted of small pieces of variously coloured glass, secured by lead to the iron framework of the windows, in conformity with the outline of the design. In the centre, secured in a similar manner, were the medallions of a single or group of figures. The borders were usually harmonious and pleasing, the drawing of the figures was often grotesque, and in some cases almost amounting to caricature. The leading of the glass, being arranged to follow the outlines of the pattern, appears hard when viewed in close proximity; but, like the severe outlines of Raffaelesque subjects on china, when viewed at a proper distance this harshness nearly or wholly disappears. Many patrons still adhere to this severe archaic style, while others, in keeping with the taste of the present time, admit a modification of more correct outlines of the figures. A good specimen of the coloured mosaic treatment, with its borders of a flowery kind, the lesser spandrils being fitted with a flowing ornament of various colours upon a red ground, is to be found in the circular window of the north transept of Lincoln Cathedral, as recently restored by Messrs. Ward and Hughes. The lower lights are in contrast with those above, on the gray or grisaille mosaic treatment, the chief parts of the white glass being shaded or worked with brown or black lines of enamel colours, intersected with small portions of coloured mosaics, the gray chiefly predominating. The manufacture of coloured glass in small effigies, opaque mosaics, and vessels, dates as far back as the Egyptians, Phœnicians, Romans, &c. Its introduction for windows in the style termed archaic was during the 12th century. The art was considered not merely as decorative, but as a pictorial representation of Scripture history, aiding Christian teaching. The repose and solemn subdued effect of light passing through the varied coloured glass contributed to the character of the subject sought to be impressed upon the mind. The first or archaic style commenced at the latter end of the 12th and the beginning of the 13th century. Examples are to be found at St. Denis and Bruges, and in Canterbury, Lincoln, and Salisbury Cathedrals. The second or decorated style was introduced about the end of the 13th century. Good examples may be seen at Strasburg and Gloucester (recently releaded by Messrs. Ward and Hughes). The third or perpendicular style, from 1380 to 1430. Another style, the cinque-cento, dates from 1500 to 1550, examples of which are chiefly to be found on the continent, viz., at Brussels, Liege, &c.; the examples of the perpendicular being at Cologne, Winchester, York, and at St. Margaret's, Westminster. In the early English, such as the north transept of Lincoln Cathedral, the figures are less grotesque than in most other examples of that date. The figures were generally placed in medallions, canopies having not then been introduced. The next period, the decorative, is marked by an extensive use of canopies; the drapery was more flowing and graceful, especially in the coloured mosaic and grisaille borders. About this period the yellow stain was introduced, which pleasing colour softened the white used in the earlier styles, and had a good effect when stained in portions, the cased red or blue being taken out to receive the yellow. The third, or perpendicular style, is marked by its being more soft and silvery, and also more delicate and refined than the preceding, having no rounded or projecting cornices. The cinque-cento style is of Italian origin, and more picturesque, being evidently influenced by the progression of oil painting. All these styles obeyed the spirit of their times, glass-painting agreeing with the state of the arts of each period, and in harmony with the architecture and the taste of its various epochs. The principal difference between ancient and modern glass windows arises from the latter being brighter and of a higher key than the ancient, while it has less tone and richness, which, like the paintings of Titian and the old masters, may be viewed for any length of time without fatigue to the eye. Continental glass being thinner and of a higher key than the English, a fictitious surface and tone is obtained by enamel painting, which takes off the lurid glare, but deadens and too much lowers the tone; this ineffective imitation is easily detected. Modern windows of inferior materials, being charged with bright colour at a higher key, transmit too readily through the glass bright rays of different colours antagonistic to each other, which fatigue the eye and form an unpleasant contrast to ancient glass, or to that which has been recently made on the same principle, and which for want of a better term we shall call antique. Although homogeneous flint glass is so essential for chandeliers and household use, and especially for optical purposes, the reverse is required for coloured window glass, technically called pot metal, to imitate that of the thirteenth century. Every colour of the spectrum, viz., violet, indigo blue, green, yellow, and red, are produced in glass by the use of the oxides of the following metals, viz., gold, silver, chromium, tin, copper, iron, manganese, cobalt, antimony, nickel, and uranium; carbon also produces yellow for pictorial purposes. Window glass, although almost indestructible by time, whether coloured or of a greenish white, when long exposed to the action of the atmosphere, is liable to partial surface decomposition, and if not too much decomposed, prevents advantageously the too free passage of the rays of light through it; old glass thus affected softens and blends the pictorial effect, and the colours remain sufficiently vivid and brilliant without fatiguing the eye. Modern amateurs and glass-painters have had their attention drawn to the fact, that the agreeable blending and harmonizing effect of ancient glass, although occasionally due to surface decomposition, owes its chief charm to the retention of the striæ and small bubbles in the body of the glass. The constituents of such glass have been perfectly vitrified, and the colours fully developed, but being less transparent than when thoroughly fused (like the ordinary clear-coloured glass) becomes less dazzling and more subdued. To succeed in making striated and bubbly-coloured glass, having a horny or gelatinous appearance similar to the ancient, the fining process must be arrested during the latter part of the fusion, by reducing the heat of the metal to a sufficient consistency for working, before the bubbles and striæ are fully driven off; great attention is necessary on the part of the manufacturer to reduce the temperature of the furnace just at the right time to prevent the metal becoming too clear. This imitation of the ancients constitutes the chief improvement since 1851, as regards the vitrified material. Although these gelatinous striæ and bubbles are quite apparent on close inspection, they disappear when seen from a proper distance, a portion of the light becoming absorbed, but retaining the full richness of the colours. Pot-metal blues, greens, and rubies, &c., by this system of embodying in the mass the hindrances to the too free passage of the light, are far superior in effect to those of the ordinary, cheap, modern, clear, bright-coloured glass. No person of taste should require the latter, which will fail to produce what is termed the peculiar "dim religious light" of the ancients, resembling the reposing colours of the spectrum. Blue is often used as a background to groups or single figures, as well as to the drapery and borders, and may therefore be considered the prevailing colour; and after this are ruby and green, all pot-metal colours. About the year 1850, Messrs. Powell and Son commenced manufacturing antique glass, of white and various pot-metal colours, a considerable portion of which, especially the blue and ruby, was equal to the best specimens of ancient glass of the thirteenth century. This was selected by Messrs. Ward and Hughes for the four windows painted by them, and erected in the Temple Church, London, about the years 1853 and 1854. Messrs. Hartley, of Sunderland, and Messrs. Lloyd and Summerfield, of Birmingham, have also produced antique glass. This glass is striated, bubbly, and gelatinous, and sometimes the ruby is streaky. Pieces of dark and light ruby are occasionally leaded separately, and placed side by side, to give the effect of shading without the use of enamel colour. A national debt of gratitude is due to Charles Winston, Esq., author of a work on "Ancient Glass Painting," in two volumes, for his long, persevering, and successful efforts to revive the rich colours and low tone of ancient glass, the best specimens of which are to be seen in the four windows of the Temple Church, painted at his suggestion and under his superintendence. If the colours in these windows equal the best of the ancient, of which there is little doubt, it is owing to the various specimens he caused to be analyzed, and the synthetic experiments he made, which enabled him to reproduce the glass, and furnish recipes gratuitously to the glass-maker. Foreign manufacturers have, no doubt, availed themselves, ere this, of Mr. Winston's liberality, and as wood fuel and open pots succeed best for glass dependent upon carbon as a colouring constituent, no doubt they will ere long rival our productions of antique glass for windows. Messrs. Clayton and Bell, in their artistic treatment of the severe early archaic style; Messrs. Ward and Hughes, in their window for St. Anne's Church, Westminster, of the style of the 13th century, the figures of which are treated in keeping with modern taste, similar to those in the Temple Church; Messrs. Powell and Son, in a window wholly of antique glass, of their own manufacture; likewise Messrs. Lavers and Barraud, Heaton, Preedy, and other artists, have availed themselves of English antique glass, much of which rivals the ancient in rich colour and low tone, and has a crispness and shellac appearance, so well calculated to absorb the rays and retain the richness and beauty of the ancient colours. While, therefore, most of our continental neighbours exhibit windows of inferior material, fully equal or superior in artistic merit to their painted windows of 1851, the English, availing themselves of the superiority of the antique glass, excel their exhibits of 1851. The Exhibition of 1862 may be considered so far as a triumph over that of 1851; the artistic progress has, however, been less than might have been anticipated. The various attempts which have been made to imitate the richness and depth of the ancient material, by coating the glass with enamel paint, have produced no other effect than that of depriving it of its brilliancy, and, consequently, the glass paintings in which this expedient has been resorted to, of one of their chief distinguishing merits. In all the glass paintings of earlier date than the last quarter of the 14th century, until which period the glass was not over clear, substantial in appearance, or intense in colour, the artists seem to have relied for effect principally on the richness and depth of the colouring. In these works the means of representation may be said to have been reduced almost to the lowest degree. We are strongly impressed that the difference of effect between such ancient and modern glass does not depend on the state of the surface, but on the composition of the material, and this result has been strengthened by the result of some experiments recently made, by which the very great difference in the composition of modern glass of the 13th century is clearly demonstrated. The cheaper sorts of white and coloured glass, as alluded to in the foregoing extract from the Report of the Commissioners of 1851, counterfeit the ancient glass, by coats of enamel colour, which only produces a misty and cloudy effect, merely blinding or shutting out a portion of light; but it cannot give the depth and richness of ancient colours. If varnish colour be used for such a purpose it will only serve a temporary object; and even if the enamel colours be burnt in, they are not always to be dependent on, being liable to crack off by long exposure to the action of the atmosphere. Bertini and others obscure a portion of the back by roughing, or by a layer of white or neutral colour, so that little or no light may pass through the main figure of the subject, which rather resembles fresco than transparency. The latter is generally considered to be one of the essential conditions of glass painting. Brown enamel colours, more or less dense, are used for stippling and shading white or coloured pot metal, but if too thickly laid on at one time will be liable to crack off in a few years; several coats and frequent firing are necessary to produce permanency in the various dark shades. Examples of coloured enamel painting, by Backler, may be seen at Arundel Castle, the seat of the Duke of Norfolk. They are wholly enamel, and have no pot metal colours; similar also to several glass paintings designed by West, and painted by Jervis, in the royal chapel at Windsor. These may be considered as simply semi-transparent pictures, wholly out of the category of what is generally known as stained or painted glass, by mosaic or grisaille treatment for ecclesiastical purposes. Referring to former explanations on the striated gelatinous colours, called antique, used since 1851, as they were then shadowed out by Mr. Winston, and since produced by him and adopted by many of our English artists, but as yet feebly followed by continental painters, it is somewhat remarkable, that while clearness of metal constitutes the greatest improvement in flint glass, the reverse should be the case for window glass; in fact, that while homogeneity should be the essential property of flint glass, impurity is equally necessary for the successful imitation of the ancient glass, in attaining the same depth of colouring, and the absorption of the rays to be found in the coloured glass of the 13th century; it, therefore, seems anomalous that the inferior fuel, for melting the materials, also that the metals, sand, and alkali possessed by the ancients, which was less pure than those used by the moderns, should have furnished greenish white, and pot-metal coloured glass, so exactly suited to produce the best effects for pictorial windows. Resuming our remarks upon enamel painting, there was the brown painted smear, and stipple shading, also a darker enamel for lines and shadows by hatching, or repetition of lines, serving as shadow upon white or pot-metal colours. There are several methods of shading, some being smooth, employed in early examples, and the latter being darker, employed in the later grisaille of larger works. It may be asked, does the grotesque style of the past age harmonise with our present mode of thought? How far does the present Exhibition, considering the present advanced state of the fine arts, meet the requirements of the nineteenth century? We reply, it is the contrast between 1851 and 1862 that affirms the fact, that in most of the English exhibitors, and several of the foreign, the art of glass painting has advanced with the times both in style and artistic execution. It is, however, much to be regretted that few of the windows can fairly be seen to advantage, owing to too much interior light, and the exterior borrowed lights of the present building being so inferior. Continental glass artists generally adhered to the early grotesque style in imitation of the past age; and in that respect in 1851 were superior to the English; and with the exception of the beautiful windows painted by Bertini and his school, that style is still retained. Bertini's windows in 1851 and 1862, may be classed in the mixed style of the old mosaic, and the enamelled style of the nineteenth century. The excellence in design and execution of the former was generally admitted, although insufficient transparency was occasioned by the too great opacity of the principal central figure. The Madonna and Child, of Bertini, of 1862, may be considered as one of the gems of this Exhibition. The art of glass painting should have a special mode of treatment, impressed upon it by the nature of the material, as oil for canvas, and fresco for ceilings and walls. Glass being the medium through which the light passes, transparency must be its condition; different degrees of transparency are admissible, but when a large portion of the glass is so opaque as almost wholly to preclude the transmission of the rays, an essential condition is infringed. The style of the 16th century, or earlier periods, modified by the taste and feeling of the 19th century, should be supported by our designers and glass painters. With good original designs, improved antique glass, judiciously leaded, with a proper degree of transparency, first-rate drawing, good shadows, and well-arranged colours, forming as a whole a work of art, rich, harmonious, and impressive, patrons will not be wanting for the decoration of our ecclesiastical or domestic buildings. No doubt artists are influenced considerably by their patrons, each of whom may have his settled convictions as to style, &c. We should, however, endeavour to preserve the beauties, and avoid the defects of the drawing of the earlier ages; but no reason exists, that, as pottery, carving, statuary, and the fine arts have generally advanced, why glass painting should be impeded, or restricted in its progress towards the perfection of the art.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

(From the "Three Tabernacles," a Sermon by the Rev. C. J. Vaughan, D.D., preached at the opening of St. Peter's School Chapel, York.)

Schoolmasters, it was written by a wise man of old, deliver us to laws. Not for nothing is the boy transplanted from home to school. It is, in many respects, a perilous experiment. It is, in many respects, for the time, a change for the worse. He must learn many things—it must needs be so—of which he were better if for ever ignorant. Evil words must assail his ears; an evil knowledge must become familiar to his mind; the bloom of mere innocence must be rubbed off; he can never re-enter his parents' home quite such as he departed. This is sad—and they who have a heart to feel may well ask, Why is so great a sacrifice necessary? What gain can compensate such loss? In the words of a narrative not unconnected with the incident now before us, a father committing his boy for the first time to the perils, known and unknown, of a great public school, may well do so with the prayer in his heart or on his lips, Lord, have mercy on my son! Yet that parent, we believe, is no unwise man, who can say to himself with a firm heart, my son must be delivered to laws. He cannot remain for ever beneath the shelter of home: he must quit it some day: he must play his part at last in the battle-ground of his generation: better is it that he should know evil before passion is strong; better that he should learn by experience that the tares and the wheat are commingled in the world's harvest-field, and that he must know to refuse the evil and choose the good, before that day comes when mistake and ruin are too often one and the same, and he who has gone astray through ignorance is even as though he had wilfully loved and chosen evil. Let him go where the tabernacle of Moses is erected, and over it waves the banner of law. There may he be taught, with less difficulty, and less jar, and less suffering than at home, and there is over every man a will other and mightier than his own, and that he who will resist that will is but kicking against the goad which drives him. By a system of minute direction mapping out every hour and every half-hour of his day between serious duties and wholesome recreations, reminding him of the shortness and of the sacredness of time by allowing no waste and requiring each moment to be accounted for, he shall be taught that no man comes into this sinful world his own master, that entire uncontrol is as impossible as it would be wretched, and that happy is he, and he only, who has early bent his neck to the yoke of duty, and learned to love the hand which has apportioned to him his being. The tabernacle of law is in the midst of us, in an English public school. Most foolish are they, most ignorant, most cruel, who would pretend to dispense with it. In this age, some homes—possibly some schools—have tried the experiment. There shall be no law: all shall be reason: all shall be persuasion: all shall be affection. Alas for the consequences! God begins his education with commands—few, brief, reasonable—but decisive, peremptory, even threatening: woe to him who would be wiser than his Maker! First obedience, then explanation: first duty, then love: the experience of happiness flowing out of the surrender of self: that is God's order: let us make here three tabernacles, and one of them shall be for Moses.

London General Omnibus Company (Limited).—Traffic receipts for the week ending Sept. 28, 14,448*l.* 6s. 2d.

MR. LAING ON THE INDIAN TARIFF ON COTTON GOODS.

We have been requested to insert the subjoined correspondence:—

To the Right Honourable Samuel Laing, late Financial Minister for India.

Sir,—At the close of the interview I had the honour to have with you on Friday last, respecting the remaining 5 per cent. on cotton goods, and of 3½ per cent. on cotton yarns, now levied under the lately modified Indian tariff, you were so good as to say I might make such private or public use of that conversation, and of the very valuable suggestions you then threw out, as I might think proper. Will you be so good as to excuse my saying that, if it is not too far taxing your kindness, I should prefer your recording your views in a letter, as you promised to do, as I am desirous to send them to the newspapers in your own exact words, rather than trust to the accuracy of my memory to report a conversation of more than an hour's duration.—I have the honour to remain, sir, your obedient servant,

SAMUEL GILES,
Hon. Sec. to the Manchester Committee formed for the Abolition of the Indian Tariff on Cotton Goods and Yarns.

Manchester, Sept. 22, 1862.

Edinburgh, Sept. 29, 1862.

Dear Sir,—I readily comply with your request to repeat in writing the substance of what I stated to you at our interview at Manchester. The object of the association which you represent is to obtain a total repeal of the remaining import duty of 5 and 3½ per cent. on piece goods and yarns imported into India. I do not doubt that this is a considerable object for England.

The cotton industry is the largest branch of English manufactures, and India is the largest market in the world for cotton goods. India has also a large native manufacture, which, although conducted for the most part by primitive methods, still enters into effective competition with the imported article over a large area. India, moreover, is commencing cotton manufacture with all the improvements of modern science and machinery, under circumstances which hold out good hope of future progress.

A cotton factory at Bombay has the advantage of saving two freights; on the raw material homewards, and the manufactured article outwards; and her labour, even now, after the great recent rise in wages in India, is at about the same rate per month as is paid per week in Lancashire. Coal is dearer, but this is a comparatively small item in the total cost of the production of a factory, and the main disadvantage is the want of that concentration of capital and skill which is found in a district which has been for years the metropolis of the cotton manufacturing interest of the world. But this is a disadvantage which diminishes with the erection of every new factory, and, as regards the Indian market at least, the comparative cheapness of labour and raw material makes the rising factories of India rivals not to be despised.

I admit, therefore, fully the importance, from an English point of view, of a further reduction of the 5 per cent. import duty. But, if India is to be retained in peaceful and loyal allegiance to the British crown, these matters must be looked upon in an Indian as well as an English point of view, and the interests, the wishes, and the feelings of its 150,000,000 of inhabitants must be the primary consideration in deciding how to raise the necessary revenue.

Now, in the first place, if the import duty on yarns and piece goods were repealed, it is by no means clear that the loss would be confined to the 500,000*l.* a year derived from this source. Unless some special reason could be shown for exempting cotton goods and yarns, how could other customs duties, as for instance, on iron, hardware, haberdashery, &c., be maintained; and, still more, how could export duties be maintained on Indian produce? It would be manifestly unjust to Indian cultivators to continue an export duty of 3 per cent. on rice, &c., in order to repeal an import duty of 5 per cent. on English cotton goods.

It is by no means clear, therefore, that the question at stake is not one, not of 500,000*l.* a year only, but of our whole customs revenue, or of upwards of 2,000,000*l.*

Even, however, if it could be limited to 500,000*l.*, it is perfectly evident that 500,000*l.* cannot be levied in any other way with anything like the same satisfaction to the people of India. Direct taxation is the alternative, and the amount levied by this import duty of 5 per cent. is almost exactly the same as would have been raised by the linen tax, or as was raised by the 2 per cent. income tax on incomes below 50*l.* a year.

But the import duty is scarcely felt at all, while the direct taxes involved an inevitable amount of oppression, extortion, evasion, alarm, and discontent, which made them intensely unpopular.

The remaining income tax, though two-thirds of the payers have been relieved from it by the repeal of the 2 per cent. duty, is still very unpopular among all classes, both Europeans and natives, and is borne patiently mainly because it is believed that it will not be continued beyond the period of five years, for which it was originally passed. I think the faith of the government is morally pledged not to continue the income tax beyond this period, unless absolutely necessary; and I am satisfied that it would be a most fatal political blunder to do anything which would put the government in a worse position for repealing this tax, at or before the end of three years from the present time, when it expires.

To the extent, therefore, of 1,500,000*l.*, which is the annual revenue given by the income tax, I consider that the resources of the Indian government, whether derived from improved revenue or from further economy in expenditure, are, so to speak, mortgaged, and I am convinced that it would be deeply resented as a fraud and as an injury by the whole population of India if any portion of these resources were applied to an exclusively English object while the income tax remains unrepealed.

As a practical question, therefore, I do not think it is of the slightest use pressing for a repeal of the 5 per cent. import duty, unless it can be made a special case, and a fair equivalent given for it to India. Without this, I tell you frankly, I should oppose it myself. I believe the Indian government and the whole Indian community would oppose it; and I cannot for a moment imagine that any Secretary of State would think of sending an order to India for a purely English object, overruling in such a matter the unanimous wish of India. If he did, he would deserve to be impeached, for it is perfectly evident that he would be a far more formidable enemy to the British crown in India than Feroze Shah or Nana Sahib.

You say that the 500,000*l.* might be saved by a further reduction of the European army in India.

I believe it is perfectly true that India, if well governed and contented, might be held securely by a smaller European force than 70,000 men, which is about its present strength. But, for some time after the mutiny, it will be a wise and merciful policy to keep, not only a sufficient, but a superabundant force, so as not only to suppress disturbances if they arise, but to make them impossible. 1,000,000*l.* a year, which is about the difference in cost between 60,000 and 70,000 Europeans, is not too much, under present circumstances, to pay for a few years by way of extra insurance, to remove all temptation from unruly spirits in populous cities and in remote districts, and to give India what she most requires—a period of perfect tranquillity, unbroken by even a rumour of political dangers.

Moreover, even if the money could be saved, it is, as I have said, mortgaged for the redemption of the income tax, and any proposal to perpetuate that tax in order to relieve Lancashire of the five per cent. import duty, would be the surest way to bring about a state of things which must render military reduction impossible.

Practically, therefore, the question is narrowed to this—Can England give India any equivalent which would make it worth the while of India, as a fair business-like arrangement, to make a special exception in favour of English interests by repealing or reducing this import duty?

An obvious equivalent might be found in England assuming some portion of the cost of the home depots of regiments serving in India.

This would be strictly just, as it is undeniable that these soldiers are to some extent a reserve for England as well as for India, and that, in case of any pressing emergency, such as an invasion, they would not be sent to India, however great might be her wants, until the danger nearer home was over.

It is certain also that the amalgamation of the Indian local European with the Queen's army, which was adopted mainly with reference to imperial considerations, makes the home military charges for maintaining a given efficient European strength in India greater than it was formerly.

But, although a more favourable partition for India of the home military charges might be equitable, I doubt if you can look to this source for practical relief. The answer of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to assume a fresh burden of 400,000*l.* or 500,000*l.* would be that of the Pope, "*Non possumus.*" The finances of England are in a state of extreme tension; for some years we have only made both ends meet by war taxes in time of peace, and by using up temporary resources like the malt credits; and the least falling off of revenue from a deficient harvest or bad trade must apparently oblige us to increase the income tax, or otherwise to encroach still more largely on those reserves which ought to be carefully husbanded during peace for a time of war. I do not think, therefore, there is much chance of any proposal being entertained which involves additional charges on the English Treasury.

There remains, therefore, one source only to which it is possible to look for an equivalent, viz., a guarantee by England of the credit of the Indian government, so as to enable it to raise money at a lower interest.

This has often been discussed with reference to the national debt of India, and there are strong arguments why, when England and India are practically one concern (for the loss of our Indian empire cannot be contemplated without a convulsion which would shake the credit of England as well as of India), it is extravagant to pay 5 per cent. for money which might be readily had at 3½ per cent.

Still, I do not think that, practically, the time is ripe for a proposal to the House of Commons to increase the liability of England by upwards of 100,000,000*l.*, even although that liability were ever so remote. Nor am I sure that it would be for the interest of India that England should assume a liability so great as to involve a temptation to the English government and House of Commons to interfere largely with the financial affairs of India.

But there is a special capital which stands on a different footing from the national debt of India, to which these considerations might possibly not apply, viz.,—the guaranteed railway capital. 1. The amount is known to be limited. 2. It is held exclusively in England. 3. It is applied exclusively to an object in which English commerce has a vital interest. 4. The liability is slight, for it only extends to guaranteeing a certain return in case the traffic should be insufficient to pay it.

The capital spent on Indian railways may be taken in round numbers at 40,000,000*l.*, and it will probably take 25,000,000*l.* or 30,000,000*l.* more to complete these railways thoroughly, with portions of double line, rolling stock, and stations fit for a large traffic, and with a few of the most indispensable branch lines.

It is, I believe, probable that these railways, when finished, will earn on the average 4 per cent. or upwards on their cost, and morally certain that they will not earn less than 2½ or 3 per cent. If, therefore, the 70,000,000*l.* were raised under a guarantee of 4 per cent., the liability under that guarantee could not well exceed 1,000,000*l.* a year, and, in all probability, would be much less.

Now the risk to England of endorsing the guarantee of the Indian government to this extent would be practically nothing. The finances of India are on the soundest possible footing. With a gross revenue of 43,000,000*l.*, which is rapidly increasing, the interest of debt is not one-seventh of the income, while that of England is two-fifths. England has no reserve, and barely meets the necessary expenses by the taxes of the year. India invests annually out of surplus revenue at least 2,000,000*l.* in reproductive public works. England has no cash balance beyond what is required to carry on current business; India has a reserve of at least 8,000,000*l.* in hard cash in her treasury. The risks, therefore, to England of endorsing a guarantee by the Indian government to make up in case of deficient traffic a sum of, at the outside, not above 1,000,000*l.* a year to the subscribers of railway capital, who, be it recollected, are all English, is practically no risk at all.

Would it be worth the while of England to give such an endorsement for the sake of securing free access to the Indian market for her staple industry? This is a question for England to consider. All I say is that, looking at it from an Indian point of view, I think it would be not any great advantage to India, but on the whole a fair reason for meeting the wishes of England, and admitting cotton fabrics free, if she got such an equivalent. I think India might either reduce the import duty on cotton fabrics from 5 to 2½ per cent., if England would enable her to get the remaining 30,000,000*l.* to complete her railways at 4 instead of 5 per cent., or might repeal the duty altogether, if England would carry through some arrangement by which the whole capital of 70,000,000*l.* by which the existing shareholders were induced to accept a guarantee of 4 per cent., with an imperial endorsement, instead of one of 5 per cent. from India alone.

Of course you must be prepared for objections to this. Other branches of industry will say, why should cotton be relieved from a 5 per cent. duty while we continue to pay in many cases 10 per cent.? The only answer I know to this is, that practically cotton is the only great branch of industry in which an effective competition exists between the native and the imported article, and therefore, when an import duty, however small, operates as a protection against the British manufacturer, it ought to be abolished. Whether this answer would be sufficient I do not know, nor do I pretend to express any positive opinion upon the suggestion from an English point of view. All I say is, that it is the only suggestion which, after much consideration, strikes me as being at least possible. It is an arrangement which I think India might fairly be asked to accept, while I do not think she could with fairness, and without disastrous political results, be coerced into giving up this duty without an equivalent while the income tax continues.

I think also it is at least worthy of consideration whether, regard being had to the exceptional state of the cotton districts; to the doubtful prospect of a return to low prices of the raw material and consequent risk of permanent restriction of this great branch of industry; and above all, to the condition of the cotton operatives and the truly admirable manner in which their privations have been borne; it might not be worth the while of England to stretch a point and take a step which, although opposed to ordinary routine and making a novel principle, would in practice be attended with no present exposure and no appreciable risk, while it would undoubtedly be a considerable and permanent boon to perhaps half a million of operatives who are more or less dependent on the Indian market for our cotton manufactures.—I remain, dear sir, yours faithfully,

S. Giles, Esq., Manchester. S. Laing.

FREE TRADE FOR CABS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE DAILY NEWS.

Sir,—Allow me to supplement your excellent leader of Tuesday relating to cabs by a brief recapitulation of their history, and the "coddling" they have received. Old "stagers" remember that they came into existence in London about thirty years ago. A few years before there were only hackney and glass coaches to be had for private convenience, and then the former being much regulated, were like cabs now, an irritating sore on the daily life of the metropolis. By the exertions of Mr. Place and others, the restrictions were lessened; hackney chariots were allowed, came into use, and improved the old means of conveyance. But the wants of the public required an almost infinite number of street vehicles. Cabs were introduced—at first gaunt and clumsy imitations of the Paris cab—which were perpetually ejecting the passengers out on the road-way or upon the horse; omnibuses were multiplied, steamboats with penny fares, and even halfpenny fares, covered the Thames, and as the population increased, and the rails brought a vast accession of visitors to the metropolis, the means of internal communication were continually extended and improved. The necessary work has been entirely effected by private enterprise: cabs, omnibuses, and river steamers have all been much increased in number and improved in quality. The original cab has entirely disappeared from our streets, and so has the *vis-à-vis*, which chucked the riders against each other. They have given place to the compact snug four-wheeler and the quick-running Hansom. Private enterprise has completely met and satisfied the growing want. Cab owners and cab drivers have in this respect, like the owners of river boats, done completely and well all that the public has required of them. As the rule, though the demand has increased enormously, cab accommodation is abundant.

But the public and the legislature, which have trusted private enterprise to provide the accommodation, have refused to trust private enterprise to regulate it. The very rapid increase in the demand for such accommodation as exhibitions were opened and excursion trains were run was favourable to cabowners and cabmen; and the impatient public was much dissatisfied with the advantage they took of it. About the period of the first Exhibition and immediately after, numerous complaints appeared in the journals of their extortions and impertinence; and in 1853 Mr. Fitzroy (then Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department, of which Lord Palmerston was the chief) introduced and passed an act for regulating hackney carriages. Amongst other things, it fixed the sixpenny fare. It was an amendment and continuation of the old regulations; but it increased their stringency, and completely deprived cabmen—the new and necessary agents of increased communication—of the right and power to regulate their own business. The legislature took no trouble to supply the increased accommodation required, but when, and as it was supplied, it stepped in to determine what should be paid for it. There was in consequence great discontent. When the act came into operation the cabowners struck work. On July 27, 1853, London was astonished at finding itself totally deprived of the convenience of cabs. Gentlemen hastening to keep appointments, parties coming from or going to railways, a number of the softer sex and of children, were exposed to vexatious delays and cruel disappointment. Spring-vans, light carts, and wheelbarrows were resorted to, and lessened the evil, which, though not of long duration, was undoubtedly greater than was inflicted by the misbehaviour of cabmen in a whole year. On July 30 the cabs resumed their functions, but from that time to this there has been antagonism between cabmen and the public. The former, in spite of the law, especially during this summer, when the demand for their services has been unusually great, have been continually complained of as exorbitant, careless, and insolent. As you correctly observe, "the relations of business between buyer and seller are generally cheerful;" and generally, you might have added, the seller is obliging, and even humble and obsequious. The difference between cabmen and others who offer services for sale comes, undoubtedly, as you say, from the former being "over-organised;" but the interference of the government against them was not spontaneous. The wit of *Punch* and the eloquence of most of the daily journals had been (before 1853) continually directed against cabmen and cabowners, as if they were different from every other class of useful workmen. Public opinion ran strong against them, and in obedience to that Mr. Fitzroy passed through parliament the act, which was immediately and ever since attended by disputes, quarrels, and injuries. He and the parliament acted quite in accordance with the public demands as made known by the press, and I must respectfully differ from you and blame the cab-using public rather than a paternal government. On the important principle, disregarded by every interference of legislation with trade, it is not necessary now to say more than that as the landowners failed when they enacted their corn law, the middle classes have failed in enacting their hackney-carriage law; and as they and all have found great advantage in having free trade in corn, it may be hoped that they will now second your well-timed efforts to promote "free trade in cabs."—I am, &c.,

T. H.

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