self for either Tartary or Texas, the tropics or the poles. He has devoured Dictionaries and slept on Cyclopedias, looks shrewdly after the main chance, never hurries, and preserves his good nature imperturbable. German papers are made on much the same plan as German men. They are incomparably industrious, steady, comfortable and monotonous. As a general thing they consider this piece of news as important as that, and no competition spurs one paper to get intelligence in advance of its neighbors. Of what use are telegraphs or expresses when the mail will arrive duly in a day or two? The contrivances of flaming captions, exclamation points, [double leads, and the other means by which English and American papers, the latter especially, draw public attention and make the utmost possible display of their contents, the German Editor ignores or despises. Even during the excitement of the revolution, only the innovating radicals made any frequent use of such inventions; the old school organs of respectability would announce a June insurrection at Paris, or the downfall of Austrian liberty at Vienna, in the ordinary type, and with no other heading than the usual date of their correspondents' letters.

The leading article of a German as well as of a French journal always occupies the first columns of the first page, and thus strikes the eye at once on unfolding the paper. This leader, also, has generally prefixed the sign of its writer. In this important department German Editors, as a body, must be pronounced superior to all others, though there are among them no single names which can match the eminent journalists of other countries. But, owing to the comparatively wide diffusion of what is called the higher learning and the greater number of scholars who everywhere write for the newspapers, the German journals, taken together, are we think, in point of the talent, information and respectability of their editorial articles, superior to the mass of either the French, English or American.

It is true that they have no central city, like Paris or London, which serves as a focus for men of ability and trains the talent it requires till its brilliancy is developed to the utmost; they have also hitherto lacked that freedom of political discussion without which a high order of journalism is impossible. This absence of political development has been supplied by cloudy philosophies, in whose labyrinths the mind is fed on thin and inflative gases, instead of the real, manly nutriment of which it stands in need. The consequence has been that the German people, kept in a state of political infancy, have never arrived at that distinctness of ideas and that practical public talent which are to be found in England and America. Their journals have suffered from this cause, though there is no doubt that their great breadth of scope, and variety and minuteness of detail have been favored thereby.

In respect to political education, the past two years have done more for Germany than could well be conceived of as achieved in so brief a space.—The tone of the German mind has undergone a radical and, on the whole, a most healthy change. It has abjured metaphysical systems, no longer seeks to fashion everything according to useless and unintelligible formulas of absolute science—which hitherto may be set down as absolute nonsense—but has begun to deal with the questions which really concern the rights, happiness and progress of human beings. When the revolution broke out, although a great intellectual reaction was already accomplished, every German of Democratic or Socialist tendencies, and there were many such, was a *doctrinaire* or theorist, and nothing else. The Frankfort Assembly, which should have reörganized the nation, was merely a body of *doctrinaires*, and so came to nothing.—But of schooling the German Democrats have since had enough to beat mere theorizing out of them. At any rate, it has rid the people of it, and laid the foundation of new and sounder ways of thinking, at the same time that it has cleared off an indefinite amount of pernicious rubbish in the shape of political prejudices and superstitions.

In nothing is this improvement more evident than in the journals, especially those belonging to the Democratic side. Instead of being long-winded, vague, desultory, they are concise, clear and to the point. They carry on their now difficult warfare often with a good degree of tact, instructing the people while they steer clear of the police. The more decided and combative of them have of course been suppressed, especially in Prussia, but there still exist a great number of small local papers of democratic tendency which do a great deal in a quiet way. All these date from the revolution; that revolution, let the temporary appearances be what they may, has regenerated Germany.

The last Leipzig Catalogue gives the entire number of daily and weekly political and miscellaneous periodicals (not including scientific and literary) published in Europe in the German language at 1,558. Of these 632 are issued in Prussia, among a population of 16,112,948; 470 in Austria, to a population of 35,767,956; 138 in Saxony, population 1,836,433; 127 in Bavaria, population 4,504,874; 67 in Wirtemberg, population 1,726,716; 56 in the two Hesses, population 1,607,269; 55 in Baden, population 1,335,200; 32 in Hanover, population 1,758,847; 22 in Mecklenburg, population 623,477; &c. &c.—the proportion of journals to the population not varying essentially in the small States. There is also one in London, the *Deutsche Londoner Zeitung*, the property of the ex-Duke of Brunswick, but just now the vehicle of some very able articles from the pens of prominent refugees who are residing in that city; 6 in the Rhine departments of France, partly in French; and 14 in Russia. The catalogue also gives the number in Switzerland as 77, but this is much too low a figure; there are 100 in that Republic, if not more. The number of German papers begun since 1848 and since stopped is 269.

From the nature of German journalism as we have presented it, it is manifest that it offers but a very limited sphere for personal ambition. The journalists are not there a power in the State as in France and the United States, nor does it often happen that a paper depends for its popularity and influence on some remarkable writer, who created it, and of whose mind it is but the more extended and permanent expression. Few who take up a German paper ever inquire who edits it, hardly who writes for it; it is a sort of impersonal affair, about which you must decide by its contents alone. In most cases the paper has few Editors comparatively; for instance, the Augsburgh *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the best known in foreign countries of German papers, has only three. Most of its matter is furnished by correspondents and requires merely to be revised, so that the Editors have comparatively little to do. Papers which are situated where there are Legislative bodies, whose proceedings must be reported, employ more writers; for instance, at Berlin, a journal of moderate circulation cannot well get on without five or six or more Editors. Still the journalist there knows nothing of the exhausting and constant labor to which an English or American newspaper writer submits himself; nothing of the keen competition trembling lest some dear-bought advantage should slip through his fingers, or lest a neighbor should get the start with some important piece of news; nothing of the night-long vigils, sweating under gas-lights and toiling till dawn releases the exhausted brain and more exhausted hand. The German finishes his work at a reasonable hour and goes to bed, not to be disturbed from much-needed repose by later arrivals, expresses, telegraphic dispatches, or important events in his own city. If such happen, they can wait till the next day. Such is the German system.

The abundant supply of literary men in Germany and the extreme cheapness of living renders the pay of editors and correspondents small, compared with their earnings in other countries. The chief editor of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, for example, has a yearly salary equivalent to about $2,400.—His two assistants get each the third of that sum. The chief editors of leading papers in Prussia, such as the *Kölnische Zeitung* or *National Zeitung*, receive from 2,000 to 3,000 *thalers* ($1,400 to $2,200) a year. Reporters and assistants are not paid in proportion, their salaries being relatively quite small. A usual rate for an ordinary letter containing the current daily news of any place is 1 *thaler*, or 72 cents, our money. The prices of correspondence, however, naturally varies according to circumstances. An elaborate letter from a long established correspondent may even be paid as high as *five thalers*. The correspondence of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* is perhaps better paid than that of any other paper. That journal gives from one to three *louis d'ors* per letter, ($4 to $12,) and some of its foreign correspondents are even better paid than that. Its correspondence is, however, more generally paid by the quantity of matter furnished. Its corps is numerous and generally able, embracing some of the most eminent German savans and travelers. For instance, its proprietors have sent that popular and spirited writer on American subjects, Gerstäcker, to California, whence he furnishes them long and interesting accounts of the phenomena of that country. These will be hereafter collected and published by them in book form. Thus we see that the German press is by no means without enterprise in obtaining information, although not so rapid nor so on the alert as the English and American.

German papers are printed on small sheets, few if any of them attaining a size equal to half the present form of *The Tribune*. If there is not much news to print, a single sheet suffices; for a crowd of matter the paper issues one, two, or three supplements on the same day, according to the necessity. Some papers also print one or two evening editions as news comes in; these evening editions never contain anything that was in the morning paper.—The *Allgemeine Zeitung*, which generally publishes more matter than any of its cotemporaries, has eight pretty large closely printed octavo pages in its regular sheet and as many more in its equally regular supplement. These 16 pages contain 65,000 *ems*, (as our printers measure,) or one-third as much reading matter as is contained in *The Daily Tribune*, not counting the advertisments in either. The price of this paper, which is published every day, Sundays and all, including postage delivered at any place in Bavaria, the country where it is published, is about $7 a year; for other States the additional postage is added, as both in France and Germany the mail transmits no papers whose postage is not paid in advance. German papers are generally cheap, labor and materials being very low. The *Kölnische Zeitung* for instance is delivered to subscribers in Cologne for 6 *thalers* a year, or a little more than $4; the *Frankfurter Journal* costs at home 11 florins yearly, also about $4.—German compositors are not paid by the thousand *ems* as is usual in this country, but by the thousand *ens*. In South Germany printers earn about a third the wages paid in New-York; in North Germany, half, or perhaps a little more than that. The rates of advertising in Germany are high. For instance, the *Kölnische Zeitung*, one of the cheapest, has four cents a line for each insertion, not in the main sheet but in a supplement. The *Allgemeine* nine cents for a line containing fewer words than a line in The Tribune.

The journals of Prussia, and especially of Berlin, are the ablest in Germany. First among them we may name the *Neue Preussische Zeitung (New Prussian Gazette,)* the organ of the ultra Feudal and Aristocratic party, edited by M. Huber, Professor of Political Science and Law at the Berlin University. No paper in the language is edited with more talent than this, and none is troubled with fewer scruples as to the means of gaining its ends. It sighs for the blessings which would be secured by returning to the political principles of the XVth century. It tolerates no hue of modern liberalism. It despises half-way measures, and will not hear of compromise. It believes in restoring the lost institutions of its love, not by reason but by violence. It preaches a new Terror, and would do for its doctrines what the French Revolution did for its. It praises the Red Republicans for consistency, for being willing, as it avers, to use the most extreme and bloody means for the realization of their ideas. This paper has a large circulation, though we do not know how large: it is supported by the Society called the *Treu-Bund*, which has branches all over the country: it has lately fallen under the displeasure of the Post-Office.—The Democratic party have no paper able to cope with this one.

Next to this Middle-Age party is that now holding the reigns of Government, the absolutist—bureaucratic, which believes not in the government of a king and feudal aristocracy, but of a king and office-holders. Its organ is the *Deutsche Reform*; its Editorials are such as the ministers desire, and its circulation, of course, large.

The party which goes for a Constitutional Monarchy, has in Berlin the *Constitutionelle Zeitung*, a very respectable paper. Its best known organ is at Cologne, the *Kölnische Zeitung*. The British Constitution is the political ideal of this party, and its papers teach a moderate liberalism. The *Kölnische* has in time past enjoyed a larger circulation than perhaps any other journal in Germany, its regular daily editions having stood as high as 24,000 copies. The revolution cut it down to about 12,000. Within a few weeks it has gained a good deal in circulation by its opposition to the new Law on the Press, which has been decided. This is a great paper for legality, its sentiments rarely getting beyond a just observance of technical legal forms. Expediency, in its view, is much better than exact justice. For instance, though it acknowledged the absolute *rightfulness* of the Hungarian War of Independence, it opposed the Magyars because it thought Germany would be injured by their triumph.

Next is the Democratic Constitutional party, which would have a hereditary king, with no veto power, and a legislature democratically chosen,—in short, the Belgian system. Their organ is the *National Zeitung*, one of the best and most solid papers in Germany. Its circulation is 17,000, of which 8,000 copies are taken in Berlin, so that until a more powerful engine of tyranny than the present Press Law is invented it can exist, its city circulation being enough to support it. It is owned by a joint-stock company of burghers or citizens of the second class, who put together the funds to set it up and carry it through.

The Democratic party proper has for its organs at Berlin the *Urwähler Zeitung*, circulation 11,000, the *Abend Post*, circulation 4,000, and the *Bürger und Bauern Zeitung*, circulation 3,000. One of the best papers of this party is the *Triersche Zeitung*, published at Treves, with a limited circulation. It has also the *West Deutsche*, at Cologne, and the *Neue Oder Zeitung*, at Breslau; beside these, it has a little paper in almost every county, conducted with more or less tact, and propagating its principles with more or less effect. These journals have all suffered greatly from the new Law, and many of them have been or will be destroyed by it. Indeed, a change of tone may be noticed in the entire liberal Prussian press in consequence of this law. They all exercise a greater prudence in the choice of expressions than before, and write evidently under a degree of restraint to which they have been strangers for the past two years.

In Southern Germany the most widely diffused Democratic paper is the *Neue Deutsche Zeitung*, at Frankfort. The *Frankfurter Journal*, which is Democratic Constitutional in politics, has also a very large circulation; how large we cannot say, though some idea may be formed from the fact that it employs three steam presses to get off its three daily editions. The *Allgemeine Zeitung* has lost by the revolution in point of circulation; it now does not range above 7,000 or 8,000. This is a mean, venal, soulless, Russian and Austrian paper in politics, but most valuable for its scientific and literary articles. The Austrian democratic and opposition papers are either stopped or silenced. The most liberal existing is the *Wanderer*. But we cannot go farther into details. Our space is exhausted, and it is time to come to the Press of France. C. A. D.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

☞ "SKETCHES OF MORAL PHILOSOPHY," by the late Rev. SYDNEY SMITH, consist of a course of popular lectures on the subject, delivered in the Royal Institution of London in the years 1804-5-6. As a contribution to the science, of which they profess to treat, their claims to respect are very moderate. Indeed, no one would ridicule any pretensions of that kind with more zeal than the author himself. The manuscripts were left in an imperfect state, Sydney Smith probably supposing that no call would ever be made for their publication. They were written merely for popular effect, to be spoken before a miscellaneous audience, in which any abstract topics of moral philosophy would be the last to awaken an interest. The title of the book is accordingly a misnomer. It would lead no one to suspect the rich and diversified character of its contents. They present no ambitious attempts at metaphysical disquisition. They are free from the dry technicalities of ethical speculation. They have no specimens of logical hair-splitting, no pedantic array of barren definitions, no subtle distinctions proceeding from an ingenious fancy, and without any foundation in nature. On the contrary, we find in this volume a series of lively, off hand, dashing comments on men and manners, often running into broad humor, and always marked with the pungent common sense, that never forsook the facetious divine. His remarks on the conduct of the understanding, on literary habits, on the use and value of books, and other themes of a similar character, are for the most part instructive and practical as well as piquant, and on the whole, the admirers of Sydney Smith will have no reason to regret the publication of the volume. (New-York: Harper & Brothers. 12mo. pp. 396.)

☞ "THE CHILDREN OF LOVE," by EUGENE SUE, translated by FAYETTE ROBINSON, (8vo. pp. 93,) is a characteristic production of the intense, horrible, raw-head-and-bloody-bones French School, depicting crime and its consequences in a succession of glaring, improbable pictures, whose moral tendency is as little doubtful as the exhibitions of a museum of morbid anatomy. The translation appears to be made with industry, and shows a command of the English language which might be well employed in more important literary enterprises. (New-York: W. F. Burgess.)

☞ We have received "THE ILLUSTRATED DOMESTIC BIBLE," by Rev. INGRAM COBDEN, No. II. from Samuel Hueston, a beautiful edition which we have already had occasion to allude to in terms of highest commendation.

☞ "PETERSON'S MAGAZINE," (August,) is superior in its embellishments to the last number, though they are still no more than barely tolerable. The literary matter is furnished by the usual contributors. (New-York: Sold by Dewitt & Davenport.)

☞ "POINTS AND ARGUMENTS ON THE GREAT PROPHETIC PERIOD," by STEPHEN REED, Esq. maintains that the consummation of the Prophecies will take place in 1850. (New-York: Sold at No. 2 Astor-House.)

GERMANS IN NEW-ORLEANS.—The number of Germans who arrived at New-Orleans during the year ending on the 1st June last, was 12,767. This is a diminution of 6,459 from the previous year—the immigration of 1848-49 having been naturally larger, in consequence of the unsettled condition of German. Of the immigrants of the past year, 4,806 were bound to St. Louis, 2,921 to Cincinnati and other points on the Ohio, 86 to Texas, 6 to Mexico, 29 to other places. Of the remaining 4,859, a large number selected New-Orleans as their residence.

☞ Dr. DICK, the celebrated religious author, has addressed a note of thanks to the Treasurer of the Philadelphia Fund for his relief, acknowledging the receipt of a handsome sum, and declining further assistance—having now sufficient to satisfy his moderate desires.

PROFESSOR WEBSTER.—The *Boston Transcript* of Wednesday has the following in relation to Prof. Webster—substantially the same as reported by telegraph:

We learn that the health of Prof. Webster continues unbroken, except from the effect of long confinement and exclusion from the fresh air. There have been grossly exaggerated reports in regard to the character of the meals furnished him. They are simple and moderate, and he often shares them with his fellow-prisoners.

It is understood that the number of petitions to be presented to the Executive Council Committee on Pardons, to-morrow, for the last time, in behalf of Prof. Webster, will not be very numerous, as not much effort has been made to obtain signatures from the community generally. It is supposed the number of petitioners will fall short of that in the case of Washington Goode.

PEARSON, THE MURDERER.—The *Boston Journal* says: The execution of Pearson, the murderer of his wife and two children, is to take place within the limits of the Jail at East Cambridge, where he is now confined, on Friday of next week. He remains, for the most part of the time, in the same state of real, or affected stupor, which he manifested during his trial. The *Herald* states that last week, in accordance with the wish of Pearson, two clergymen, with Mr. Abbott of Lowell, his counsel, visited his cell, to listen to a confession which he wished to make, when the guilty man made the following statement:

"I [Pearson] met a man in Boston, who was anxious to go to California, and wanted $50 to get along with; I offered to give him $50 if he would do a job for me. Then the plan was arranged that he should kill my wife and children, and I was to be present and pretend resistance; and in this way the deed was done."

Mr. Abbott addressed Pearson and said, "You know, from what you told me after you were sentenced, that what you have just said is false; but you have sealed my lips, by a promise, as to what the real facts are." Pearson still persisted that he had told the truth in regard to the matter, and though told that he would certainly be hung on the 26th of the present moth, would make no other confession in relation to the horrid act."

THE CANAL BOARD.—All the members of the Canal Board, except the Controller and Attorney-General, arrived in this city on Saturday, and remained over the Sabbath. Yesterday they went up the Genesee Valley Canal, and will, to-day, visit Portage, for the purpose of inspecting the work now in progress in that vicinity. We understand that they will return to this city in a day or two. [Rochester Democrat, 16th.

THE WORKING ASSOCIATIONS OF PARIS.

The following account forms part of the Fourth Number of Tracts on Christian Socialism published in London. It will be found to contain many interesting statements in regard to the experiments for organizing labor in Paris and well deserves the attention of working-men in this country. The writer presents the results of personal observation, and for this reason, as well as for his deep interest in the emancipation of industry, is well qualified to discuss the subject. We trust his opinions will be received with the consideration to which they are eminently entitled. The work of self-elevation, on the part of the laboring masses, is in fact but just commenced, and everything that can throw light on the movement, from whatever quarter, should find an earnest welcome.

One of the most remarkable and promising features of the state of France, since the last revolution, is the existence of those numerous "associations ouvrières," or Working Trades' Associations, the occasional failure of which is so loudly trumpeted forth, their frequent success so generally overlooked, in this country. In introducing a short account of them into a series of Tracts on Christian Socialism, I distinctly assert that the sole ground upon which those associations can stand, if they stand at all, is a Christian one,—the ground of honesty in their dealings with the world without, of fellowship in their dealings among themselves. I am not here denying the many wild and angry passions, the many blind prejudices against the very sources of their strength, which may have been mixed up with many of their acts, may have marred many of their undertakings; but I believe that those passions and prejudices are but the workings of the spirit of evil, the spirit of disorder and war, struggling to overthrow the truth of which they live to testify. It is with these feelings that I have examined several of them personally, and have studied the regulations of others; it is with these feelings that I shall endeavor to set forth the good they have done, or promise to do.

Historically, the Working Association of Paris, instead of being the new fangled revolutionary conceptions which we suppose them, tend in fact to bind up the broken chain of tradition, by reconstituting upon a broader and firmer basis, the trading Guilds of the middle ages. The principle of the Guild, it is obvious equally with that of the Working Associations of the present day, is that of fellowship between the members of a given trade; and the mode in which that fellowship is carried out is the same in both cases,—by obedience to a common rule. The one it is true stretched farther, by proclaiming itself at once as embracing the whole of the trade; the other goes deeper by throwing all trade profits into the domain of the common regulations, while the Guild only claims contribution toward the expenses of its maintenance.

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It would be a mistake to suppose that the revolution of 1848, or the works of Louis Blanc did more than accelerate the development of these bodies. Beside M. Léclaire, the house painter's establishment, of which, for eight years at least already, the profits had been shared with his workmen, I can trace, at the very time of the revolution, at least two attempts to progress to carry out the idea of coöperation among workingmen.—The one, an "Association of United Workmen," somewhat similar to a coöperative association now existing in Salford, as well as to an establishment got up by the London trades some time since in Tottenham court-road, in which workmen of various callings clubbed together to open a common shop, in the Rue St. Honoré, one of the leading thoroughfares of Paris. This society, which comprised several men who have since risen to be managers of associations in their respective trades, after struggling through several years of existence, was at last broken up by the February Revolution itself. On the other hand, a Shoe and Bootmaker's Association, constituted as far back as October, 1840, was already, if I mistake not, exhibiting the natural transition from the provident club or trades' union to the coöperative association. The conditions of admission were, the payment of 1s. entrance fee, and 1s. 4d. monthly subscription; females being admissible as associates, but not to the general meetings, nor to the administration of the society. The principal object of this association, it is said in the rules, is to procure work for its unemployed members, but in order to carry out such object a workshop is established, and profits are divided in the proportion of two-thirds between the members, and one-third to the reserve fund.—Workmen out of employ, who have passed a noviciate of six months, receive 10d. a-day; the same allowance is made to the sick, beside medical advice and relief, and visits at least twice a week. But no illness, the result of bad conduct, voluntary affrays, intemperance, &c., can confer the right to assistance. Finally, a retiring pension of £4 10s. is grated to members, 65 years old. I may add, without dwelling upon them, that the rules of this association, as to sickness, retiring pensions, burials, &c., appear to me very complete and admirable.

The two first trades that organized for themselves coöperate associations after the February Revolution were the Tailors and the Shirtmakers. I need not dwell on the latter association, which is inconsiderable in point of numbers. The Tailors' Association was, at first, highly favored by the Provisional Government, from whom it received permission to establish itself in the Debtors'-prison of the Rue de Clichy, and a large order for clothing. So much favor had well-nigh proved fatal to it. It soon numbered from 1,500 to 2,000 workmen paid at 1s. 8d. a day, and sharing profits equally. In the haste of executing the 40,000 uniforms ordered of them by the Government, many unskilled workmen were admitted, some even who had never been in the trade; yet, in spite of all these disadvantages, and of the political excitement of the period, they had realized in four months, party by their own contributions, partly from the profit of their contract, although executed at a very cheap rate, a capital of 75,000f. or £3,000. The workshop of Clichy was broken up after the days of June, 1848, but enough associated operatives remained to form a new establishment in the Rue du Faubourg St. Denis.—They numbered in October last some sixty in constant employ, besides several hundred "adherents" ready to take their place in the workshop as soon as there should be demand for their labor.—The price of the day's work had been raised to 2s. 5d., with power to raise it as far as 2s. 7½d. The operations of the association during the past year had been of the value of about £4,000, on which had been realized about 6 per cent. profit. The premises occupied by them were large and well-ventilated; not a single case of cholera had occurred in the workshop. To the manager, foremen, and other office-holders of the association, certain extra expenses are allowed, but their renumeration is the same with that of any journeyman.—New members are admitted on the recommendation of two existing members, who must certify that the candidate "unites such moral qualities as are indispensable in order to form part of an association," (a vague and seemingly cabalistic formula,) and on the approval of the "Council of Direction," which has, moreover, the right of granting admissions of its own authority, subject to certain restrictions. The capital of the association being already realized, the contributions of members are considered as limited (Art. 12) to their knowledge, and labor, and the sums retained out of their share in the profits as after defined. The Directing Council regulates admissions; appoints "employés;" enters into all contracts for sale or purchase; convokes general meetings; and represents the society toward the public. Its members are named for a year. A jury of five members, named by the general meeting, is the arbiter of disputes and the judge of delinquencies, and may exclude delinquent members, subject to an appeal to the general meetings, which take place every three months. Accounts are balanced half-yearly, in January and July; 2 per cent. a week are deducted from all earnings and paid in, one half to the general fund of the association, the other half to the mutual relief fund. Profits are divided in thirds, viz: one-third between the members, in proportion to the number of days' work done by each; one-third to the general fund; one-third to the mutual relief fund. The death or exclusion of a member extinguishes all claim by him or his representatives upon the association. Any member who shall not have worked for twenty days at least, during the six months next preceding any division of profits, loses his claim to dividends, and his share is carried to the general fund. The mutual relief fund is destined to assist members sick or infirm; the widows and children of members, &c.; to supply retiring pensions to old men, who shall have formed part of the association for five years at least; and to provide, as far as possible, for any imperious and exceptional wants of the members, and of those who are dear to them, on condition, nevertheless, that such wants shall be regularly ascertained. The distribution of the fund is entrusted to a "Family Council," chosen by the general meeting.

A few of the regulations of the association may, perhaps, provoke a smile. But one thing is clear, that there reigns throughout them a firm and holy purpose of labor and self sacrifice. It is not a mere joint stock company, associated for gain alone; not only are the profits to be equally divided, to the exclusion of idlers, but provision is at once made for the sick and the aged, for the widow and the child. We hear, sometimes, of munificent works performed by our own large companies, of railway churches and railway schools; but these are, for the most part, works, as it were, of supererogation—the after-thoughts of prosperity—the impulses of a few noble minds among the directors; there is, surely, something far nobler in these journeymen-tailors making at once the duties of charity part of their deed of settlement. And yet a little reflection will show that such provisions flow necessarily from the constitution of a joint-work-company, as distinguished from a mere joint stock company; that a working association of journeymen, if it is to subsist at all, cannot subsist upon the same narrow basis as an association of capitalists; that it must embrace more and vaster ends; take into account more human sympathies and wants; rise to a higher and more moral tone than the other.—The capitalists who join together in forming a joint stock company, need engage but a small portion of their fortunes; a still smaller portion of their time; there need be no actual contact between them but that of the general meeting, or at most of the board or directors, if they choose to attend them: an average share of honesty and civility on such occasions, as well as in the dealings with shares and the receipt of dividends, is about all that is required of them; whilst all that they require of the company is, simply—dividends twice a year, and as high dividends as possible. What they shall do with that money when received, what need they have of it, concerns in nowise their fellow-members otherwise than as fellow men. But it is not so with the associated operative. His whole fortune is risked at once; for his fortune is his labor, and he gives the whole of that, or so large a share, that what remains is but little. In giving his labor, he gives his time, or the best of it; some eight or ten hours a-day at the least. And when a man gives his labor and time, do you not see that he gives his life, and that it is his life which has to be provided for? Hence, on the one hand, a high standard of moral worth becomes necessary among the operatives: they must do their work in the best possible manner, or the whole association is disgraced; they must act toward one another with constant forbearance and self sacrifice during their long weary hours of toil, or the workshop will become a hell; they must be industrious, or they rob their brethren. And, on the other hand, they must, somehow or other, be maintained in "the slacks," as they are called in many trades; they must be maintained and attended in sickness: provided for in old age themselves, and their children in infancy; and how can all this be done more naturally than by the association itself in which they labor, and by setting apart a portion of the profits? To create half-a-dozen separate machineries of sick-clubs, trade-clubs, burial-clubs, &c., would be absurd where a machinery exists already which can accomplish all these purposes; to hand over to each workman all his earnings in money from week to week, or from month to month, where there are so many contingencies to be insured against, which require a portion of those earnings to be set aside, would be to hold out as it were a premium to improvidence and selfish expenditure. Hence, it arises, that the coöperative association tends essentially to absorb within itself, from the first, the trade-club and the friendly society; that eventually, I trust, it may supply to its members the Model Lodging House, the Mechanics' Institute, the School,—and who can tell what beside?

I have said that the Tailors of Paris had to struggle with great difficulties. They have received no help from the Government fund in favor of the "Working Associations." They were ill constituted from the first. Finally, they have to contend against the competition of the slop-seller, as ruinous in Paris as in London; incapable as yet, (at least, on day labor) of making head against the latter as regards cheapness of prices, however they may always surpass him as respects the quality of their labor and materials; while, on the other hand, their position in one of the Faubourgs of Paris renders it difficult for them to command the market of the richer quarters. In other parts of France, however, similar associations have met with complete success. A partnership of thirteen Tailors in Bordeaux made £320 profit in six months. The journeymen there are paid by the piece, but profits are still shared equally. I cannot forbear here saying that, without here discussing the principles of an equal division of *profits*—the system pursued by the Tailors of Paris, of raising the price of the day's work, instead of seeking to make larger dividends, appears to me unwise; and that the Fourierist maxim of assuring to every one, for his day's subsistence, a proportional "minimum," or the lowest "living wages," considering his position, and thus leaving the bulk of the returns to be shared as dividends, appears to me the true one to be followed. By allowing high daily wages, you throw upon the individual the onus of that economy which, in fact, the association practises for him in the other scheme. A shilling a week beyond the bare maintenance may often be trifled away, when 13s at the lapse of three months might be laid out to some useful purpose.

In the same house lately occupied by the associated Tailors is also (or was) one branch of an association of Cooks, of which there are already a great number in almost every quarter of Paris—the failure of *one* of these having been considered sufficient staple for a leader in the *Times* a few months back. These establishments are very extensively resorted to by the working classes, on whom they have conferred an immense boon, by the cheapening of cooked food. A laborer can now have as good a breakfast for 2d from an association, as he formerly paid 5d for. One of these associations, (the frame of whose regulations is common to various other bodies of the same kind, with trifling variations) is constituted as a *commandite* partnership.* Its capital is raised in the following manner: each "adherent" who wishes to become a member, or *Commanditare*, subscribes for £20 in "labor-bonds," which are handed over to him in proportion to the work done by him for the association. These are transmissible with the consent of the Managing Council, composed of the members responsible to the full extent of their property. Profits are divided; and the general meetings take place once a quarter. Every establishment belonging to the society is directed by an Administrator and a Vice Administrator named by the general meetings. A "Family Council" of seven members, fulfills nearly the same functions as the "Jury" among the Tailors. Every ordinary member is entitled to his food, to daily wages, to a further sum per head for every aged person of not less than —, o. child of not more than —, whom he has to support; to an equal share of profits, and to burial gratis. Profits are divided in thirds, on almost exactly the same principles as with the Tailors.

Another association of Cooks is that which owns the vast, but somewhat ill frequented, establishment of the Barriere du Maine. The members are all individually responsible; their stake consists in the sum of £4, to be paid within a fortnight, their labor, and the sums retained from wages. The association seems at first more oligarchical than most others, and is ruled by a "Directing Committee" of three members, named by ballot, whose term of office is, however, three months only, although they may always be reëlected. But their responsibility to the general meetings is more than complete, if I may use the term. Mere suspicion is sufficient for their dismissal. "If in consequence of the report of the auditors named by the meeting, suspicion should arise against one or more members of the Committee, provision shall immediately be made to replace them, although their term of office be not expired." Again it is said: "the general meeting is always supreme." Shares are equal. From 2½ to 5 per cent. upon profits may, if the general meeting think fit, be devoted to the formation of "a mutual assurance fund among all the workmen's associations." Profits are divided monthly, one-third being retained for a reserve fund, destined, in thirds—1st, to pay off advances from the members; 2d, to pay off to retiring members, or the representatives of deceased members the moneys brought in by them and those kept back from them; after providing for losses: 3d, to augment the reserve fund. In case of dispute, three arbitrators are named, and three substitutes; of the three arbitrators, one is an advocate, the other two are—poets!

The Hair-dressers are less absolute in their exclusion of money-capital than the first-referred to association of Cooks. Every member is bound to subscribe for £4, to be paid by instalments of 10 per cent. if admitted as an "active partner," or of 5 per cent if as a partner merely. Their staff of officers is rather complex; they have a Managing Council and an Inspecting Council, beside the Family Council. I observe a special provison for the deprivation of office, exclusion, &c. of functionaries and members for intemperance, among other delinquencies. A retiring fund is also provided for, as well as a mutual relief fund. The results of the cash book are to be placarded every week at the society's head office, and must remain so exhibited for a fortnight. No member is admitted except upon a favorable report as to his "morality and capacity," signed by three members of the Family Council.

In the Faubourg St. Antoine is to be found a large yard, called the Cour St. Joseph, which is almost wholly taken up by three operative Associations, the Arm-chair-makers, the Cabinet-makers and the Upholsterers. The last are a small association, following confessedly in the wake of the others. But I never saw a more inspiring sight than that offered by the workshops of the first-named association, extending through room after room over the top floors of the houses on nearly three whole sides of the yard, filled with men for whom labor seemed more a passion than an employment. The Arm chair-makers began with nothing; the purchase of their first log of mahogany, I was told, would tell like a novel; their business is now worth £3,000 a year. The Cabinet-makers beneath them have some of the most beautifully finished furniture I ever set my eyes on; they boast of selling already somewhat dearer than the ordinary trade, through the mere perfection of their labor.

The Cabinet makers association is founded on the principle of the unlimited responsibility of members—the names mentioned in the deed being fifty-three in all, while its provisions appear to have been carefully worked out. It is one of those associations which have received an advance of capital from the State, and in exchange for that support it has had to renounce the principle of equal profits; profits being divided proportionately to the amount of wages earned by each member. But as a check upon this provision, the Democratic spirit has laid a genuine "progressive tax" upon the highest paid members, by raising the proportion of the sums to be stopped out of their wages for the purposes of the association; *e. g.* £10 per cent. out of a day's wages of 2s. while one of 4s. is amerced to the extent of £20 per cent. Only £40 per cent. of the profits are divided among the members, while £50 per cent. are carried to a reserve fund. The manager receives £72 a year, with his lodging; he is authorised to raise a loan of £3,000.

The Masons and Stonecutters have long been considered among the most industrious, orderly and honorable of the Paris trades. The preamble to their regulations and various passages in them bear witness to these qualities:

"The operative Masons and Stonecutters, since the Revolution of February, have resolved to form among themselves an association, and to unite their interests, in order, by this means, to proceed toward the end of humanity—universal brotherhood.

"The association proposes to remedy the scandalous abuses now existing in the carrying on of public works—abuses ruinous at once to the State and to the workman. By entering into direct relation with Government or with private persons, it will be enabled to undertake works at a cheaper rate, and yet to realize profits which will allow its members to live in ease, themselves and their families; and soon, we hope, the other trades connected with building being organized into associations, and mutually responsible, that anarchical competition which is now killing industry will disappear, and all men will be able to live as brothers together.

"Our association has also for its object to assist its members in sickness, to allow pensions to the aged, as well as to the *invalids of labor* (*i. e* parties disabled by the accidents of work,) &c."

I must pause here to point out the way in which the idea—the *Church-idea*—of universal brotherhood haunts these men, and links itself in their minds directly with the union of "all the trades connected with building." Alas! the trades connected with building may be united and mutually responsible, and yet we may be very far from seeing "all men live as brothers together." Something more is wanting for that, something which no machinery can give, and yet something which is near at hand, and suggests that machinery itself, and breathes in the unconscious words of these men. Something, did I say? No, some One who hath said: "That they all may be one, as thou, Father, art in Me, and I in Thee, that they also may be one in Us: That the world may believe that Thou hast sent Me:"—some One in whom masons and stonecutters, and shirt-makers and tailors, and kings and rich men, and wise men of the earth must believe before they can live as brothers together—Christ Jesus the Lord!

Still, there is in these regulations of the Parisian Masons and Stonecutters a smack of genuine honesty and kindliness, and self-denial too. No profits are to be divided until the sum total exceeds $2,000, which is to remain as capital, and to be considered as divided into shares of £2 each, giving 5 per cent. interest, but not giving the right to profits, and represented by certificates, which are either nominative, or to bearer. Every member is obliged to hold at least one share of £2 by the end of the first year of his admission, the money to be raised either by small instalments or stopped out of wages. No member is admitted (as usual in these associations) but upon the presentation of two existing members; but these are not to be merely proposer and seconder by courtesy, as in a club; they are to "guarantee the morality and laborious habits of the candidate." The demand for admission must be in writing, and must contain the name, quality, place, and date of birth and dwelling place of the candidate, a mention of the principal works which he has executed, and an engagement by him to respect the statutes and regulations of the Society, of which he is to be previously informed by his pledges. On admission, he is bound to pay into the common fund the amount of one week's wages, or to allow that sum to be stopped out of his four first weeks' earnings. The members, in each trade, are divided into distinct categories,—three among the Stone-cutters, four among the Masons,—forming a regular hierarchy, the grades of which can only be passed through on particular conditions, and the wages for which differ. It is specifically pointed out that "the wages have not the character of ordinary wages, since in association the sums periodically paid to the members are but advances on the share in general profits to which each is entitled; we call such an advance wages in order to employ a word with which all are familiar." The net profits, after deducting all reserves, are equally divided among the members who shall have worked either for the association or out of it.

The hours of labor may be fixed either by the "Family Council," which apportions the labor to be done, where there is not enough for all, beginning by the oldest and those who have the most numerous family to support. Members for whom work cannot be found are entitled to seek employment elsewhere, but they must give notice thereof to the Council under pain of a fine of so much per day's work done without such notice, and under aggravated circumstances, of expulsion. A relief fund is formed for the sick and wounded, as well as for their wives, widows, or children; and as soon as the state of the funds will allow of it, a retiring pension will be allowed to the aged and infirm "who shall have devoted their strength to the prosperity of the common undertaking: the association only asking in return the advice of their experience;"—a beautiful provision, which assigns to age its true station and value, as the great depository of the lessons of time.

The chapter of the "Duties of Members of the Association," deserves to be quoted at length (with some trifling abridgments.)

"Art. 57. All the members of the association are jointly responsible (*solidaires*) in the operations to be undertaken by it. It is a truly brotherly union, and thus it belongs to every one to facilitate the efforts of the administration by fulfilling their behests with alacrity, and by helping them with good counsel, through suggestions to be directly addressed to the Family Council.

"Every member engages, moreover, to do his utmost toward procuring work for the association, and toward facilitating the good execution of such work. He will communicate all processes of a nature to economise materials, to reduce the wear and tear of implements, to lessen labor, or to make the work more perfect. Such members as shall have made themselves useful to the society in this manner, shall be named in the reports of the "yard captains," and in the statement of the Family Council, which shall be read at the general meetings, so that the gratitude and respect of the associates may become the just reward of services thus rendered, and so that the names of the most intelligent and devoted members of the