after this at Urquhart's opinion that Turkey would have done better without her allies than with them?

The Russians are retreating from the Principalities. There is not much doubt now but that they are hastening to defend the Crimea. Although an attack on the Crimea is intended, there appears to be a disgraceful want of knowledge as to the part where this attack is to be made; and notwithstanding it was announced by the *Times*, as from authority, that the Crimea expedition was under way, subsequent intelligence only states that surveying parties are out examining the coast of the Crimea. The Russian army in the Principalities is only one hundred and twenty miles from the Crimea. It can get there, no doubt, before the allied forces can land, so as to help in giving the latter a warm reception. Great numbers of persons are, however, apprehensive that the whole of the operations in the Black Sea will turn out a mistake and failure. There appears to be an extraordinary ignorance amongst the French and English about the Crimea. The Russians are too wary to be caught easily, and doubtless every point has been carefully looked to, and will be well prepared for defence. It is hardly probable that, after bestowing such pains to make Sebastopol impregnable, the Russians have neglected other parts of the Crimea.

The utmost surprise and mortification has been felt in England at the news that a Russian steamer has left Sebastopol, crossed the Black Sea, destroyed three Turkish merchant ships, and chased an English steamer laden with warlike stores for Circassia. This shows that the Russians neglect no opportunity to strike a blow at their enemies, and also that Sebastopol is not well guarded by the allied fleets. Rumors are again rife that Admiral Dundas is to be recalled.

The whole of the German States, with Prussia at their head, are confederated together to oppose the anti Russian policy—what little there is of it—of the Court of Vienna.

Nearly all the crew and officers of the Tiger have been released. Several of the officers were sent into the interior before they were exchanged. They represent that the war was by no means unpopular amongst the pure Muscovites, who were very fanatical. The operations of the allies had apparently not made the slightest impression on the Russian empire.

The destruction of Greytown has excited considerable attention in England, and will excite more when further advices respecting it are received. The *Morning Post* deems the destruction of the town an act of atrocious cruelty. The *Daily News* wishes that the whole continent of America belonged to the United States, as it would be better for England.

The United States journals get more and more quoted in the English newspapers. This is owing to the intimate relationship between England and the United States, through the vast emigration going on from English ports across the Atlantic, and from the rapidity and frequency with which the news is brought from America to England. On Monday or Tuesday morning American news appears in the London journals, brought by Cunard steamer, and on the following morning appears three days latter news brought by Collins steamers. In a parliamentary paper on the mail steam packet service, recently published, the American lines of steamers are recognized as a contest between the United States for the supremacy of the seas. The loss which the English government sustains by Cunard's packets is above 300,000 dollars a year. A proposal was made for the British steamers to land the American mails at Halifax, but Cunard would not hear of it. He stated to the parliamentary commission that if his mail subsidy was doubled he would be obliged to run to New York, or he would lose all his passenger and goods traffic.

Spain is still disquieted; disputes have arisen between Espartero and O'Donnell. The former wishes to get the Queen Mother out of the country as fast as possible, and would allow her to carry her pelf with her. O'Donnell insists upon making the Christmas Christina disgorge. Fighting is still going on in Barcelona. Espartero some years since lost his chance of power, and of establishing a liberal government, through a strange want of determination and energy. His respect for royal personages will probably again cause his fall. It would be but just to the Spanish nation, and an act of righteous retribution, if the infamous Queen Mother were made to restore to the nation the vast sums of which it has been robbed by her.

LONDON, Aug. 11, 1854.

Close of the Session of Parliament—The Coalition Administration—The Governorship of Australia—Lord Palmerston's Individual Policy in Contradistinction to that of his Colleagues—Spain and its Political Prospects—O'Donnell and Espartero—The English Aristocracy and the Masses—The Project of an Iberian Kingdom, &c., &c.

The last hours of one of the most remarkable sessions of the English Parliament in modern days, are rapidly approaching, and the same medium which conveys these observations across the far Atlantic will probably inform you of the prorogation. Mr. Disraeli is doubtless preparing to deliver himself of a philippic worthy of an occasion so admirably suited to his powers of sarcasm; and it cannot be denied that many who have no sympathies with that gentleman, either personal or political, will not be unwilling to hear him give form and shape to thoughts which are rife in the bosoms of numerous reflecting parties.

Composed of individuals, the like of whom for general knowledge, high attainment, disciplined talent, parliamentary and diplomatic training, it may be questioned whether England in her most palmy days ever before witnessed, the coalition administration has proved the most signal experimental failure in our parliamentary history. It was ushered into life amid pæans and cries of rejoicing. All England shouted in its honor—sponsors were at a premium—and the royal child, in the estimation of all but a cantankerous set, was pronounced alike beautiful to look upon, and emblematic, or prophetic of genius. Alas! for the vanity of earthly hopes—the beauty has become a monster, and instead of leaving behind it the bright halo of genius, it will be remembered but to point a moral and adorn a tale; that it still lives, is only to say it breathes; from step to step, from hour to hour, it has reeled to and fro like a drunken man, and that it does not fall flat on its face, inert and senseless, is simply because it meets with cuffs and kicks, buffetings and thrusts, from so many points of the political compass that each, in some measure, negatives the other; and the stunned and stupified abortion keeps its legs in spite of itself.

The last unfortunate business, respecting the appointment of a Governor of Australia, has been the saddest turn of all. The Honorable Mr. Lawley, a younger son of Lord Wenlock, and connected with the family of the Marquis of Westminster, is a young gentleman of distinguished academic talent, but unfortunately given to play. His friends desired to wean him from the turf and from its gambling associations, and procured a seat for him in Parliament. Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer, made him his private secretary; and in defiance of a well understood rule, as applied to all public servants, he gambled in the funds. There was nothing for it but to get him out of the country with an appointment; his fitness for which was, in the estimation of his best friends, his unfitness for staying at home; and the Governorship of one of our most important colonies, that of Australia, was bestowed upon him. It is true that the Duke of Newcastle took the alarm, and spoke to Sir George Grey; but it was not till notice had been given in the House of Commons on the subject that the ministry rescinded their appointment. The white robes of the immaculate Mr. Gladstone have been "spotted" in this untoward affair; and while the ministry, as a whole, are damaged, the Peel portion of it are especially so. It would be nothing in a strong administration except, perhaps, a grevious mistake; but in this instance it is looked upon as the last feather, which breaks the back of the camel. Then, there is Lord Palmerston, who has, as Home Minister, brought forward most important bills: the repeal of the law of settlement, the establishment of a general system of police, a militia bill, a board of health, &c.—every one of which has been rejected, notwitstanding Lord Palmerston's ministerial protestations that confusion and disorder, disease and rapine would be the consequence. His great smoke bill, too, bids fair to end in smoke, for the bakers of the metropolis strike against the regulations of the act. There is, however, a Palmerstonian vitality, which is not very extinguishable, and thrown out of window—possibly his lordship would light on his diplomatic heels—and thus, in his erratic support of the Russian securities bill, he has shown such cordial detestation of Russia that all England is with him. Russian 5 per cent bonds still stand nearly at par, and before the declaration of war were 20 per cent higher. Men like the Barings—formerly Russian agents—the present holders, too, of Russian securities, are beside themselves at a measure which endorses such securities with the ominous words, "not negotiable, either in England or by any British subject." But our Home Secretary knows better, perhaps, than any man, that the weakest part of the rhinoceros empire is its finances. He knows that its levy of 500,000 serfs for the war is equal to a tax upon the landed capital of £25,000,000. The arguments against the proposition are neutralized each other—some contend that the bill would be wholly inoperative, others that it would seriously impede the legitimate transactions of commerce—and then his lordship's peculiar mode of finishing off Mr. Bright—whom he termed "a champion of peace, so peaceable that he could hear of neither military nor moral demonstrations against his favorite Czar"—gave him the House of Commons to a man.

But it is generally understood that serious and grave men belonging to, or connected in any degree with, the administration, view the present political crisis with great disquietude. They think the constitution itself is suffering, when public opinion—through the agency of parties—ceases to govern. They think that even in the face of a great war, a ministry who cannot carry a single important measure unconnected with that war ought to resign. They see, or fancy that they see, the danger of a great court party springing up under such circumstances, whose influence—all the more insidious if that court be discreet and popular—may imperil Parliamentary government. Many men, I repeat, of great station in the country, who have themselves risen to chief eminence in the atmosphere of the House of Commons, and who set the highest value on that public life which is the very spirit of the English constitution, share these sentiments and openly express them. Lord Aberdeen himself was never a member of the House of Commons, and may not sufficiently understand them; but a gentle pressure from without will, probably, ere long open his eyes.

The state of Spain is becoming a source of deep anxiety to all who are watching the sparks which every now and then shoot up from the political crater. It is surely perceived that Providence is, after a tranquillity of forty years, for some wise purpose about to shake the uttermost limits of the European continent, and that England—which for eight centuries has enjoyed a blessed immunity—will in all probability be gradually drawn towards, or into, the mighty vortex. Happily for her the nation is sound at core. That reasons for dissatisfaction exist is not denied—they are to be found in every country under the sun. To you it may seem intolerable that a privileged class should be suffered, from whose ranks all the chief appointments, as a rule, are made. It certainly does seem an absurdity, and at times the fact is rightly one of murmur and protest. But somehow or other the system does not work amiss, and its grosser features become daily less apparent. The aristocratic phalanx is continually being recruited by alliances with the moneyed class, which itself is generally one remove from the lowest rank of the people. The class essentially aristocratic is not proud and overbearing—its youth are early impressed with the truth that their social elevation in the political scale is more than neutralized without personal acquirements, and that the most powerful British Thane is nothing without moral as well as material influence. Our great universities of Oxford and Cambridge may be cited in proof of this, where it is seen that the most unassuming, most prudent, most obedient and pains-taking members of its body are chiefly those with ancestral pedigrees extending as far back as the conquest. At public schools, too, they are generally seen to be the mildest and most forbearing members of the youthful community. One thing is usually made a great point of by those under whose guardianship they are when at home—that they should attain the art of "thinking aloud," and expressing themselves with ease and a certain deference; and as this is an art which may be imparted, very few of the nobility are found who cannot decently acquit themselves in this respect. They soon have an opportunity of doing so, either as magistrates at Quarter Sessions, Poor Law Guardians, whose weekly assemblages are a species of little parliament, and at general public meetings; and from an experience of many years of public life, I am able to say that the influence they exercise is often quite as much the result of this mental attainment, and of manners, refined by the facilities which their position gives them of traveling, as of their social rank. That the junior members of the aristocracy readily find place in the army and navy, and the subordinate offices of the State—that a path is not at once opened for them to follow, while others must fight their own way, I do not dispute—nay, more, that in case of delinquency, family interest is not brought to bear; but the press of England is at bottom the property of the people—its true interest lies with them; and its ready exposure in such cases is of immense benefit to the public good, and a tremendous check to the privileged class, even though it failed in its immediate object. Besides, the English people, as a people, are not desirous themselves of office and patronage—whether from being accustomed always to see such the monopoly of the highest rank, or from their commercial spirit, they do not seek it, and believe their own good right hands can always do more for them than any official favor. It is therefore a mistake to suppose that we are an unhappy race, ground down by a tyrant aristocracy. We have, indeed, a breeches pocket aristocracy, which is sometimes insupportable; or, on the contrary, there is an immense general sympathy with the *haute noblesse;* and whenever the struggle does come disunion with that class will not be the danger. The reform, toleration, and corn bills, have done wonders in reconciling class to class, and every one feels that the effect of these measures is increasing the popular excitement so largely that a growing feeling is manifesting itself in favor of securing the aristocratic element from further invasion. Do not imagine that this is mere aristocratic twaddle and toadyism, but rather understand it as the language of those who for the last five and twenty years have taken an active part in all the progressive measures which have stirred the inmost heart of England.

But to return to Spain. With the sorry fruits of a coalition before our eyes at home, we cannot necessarily have any great faith in that which has just been formed there. We hear, to be sure, that moderados on the one side, and progressistas on the other, have resolved to stand and gaze, while O'Donnell and Espartero—the chiefs of either party—are working their way through the first difficulties of the revived constitution. Will the leaders themselves be able to play, at the same time, the part of the willow and the oak—to bend and twist before adverse currents and stormy winds, and yet stand firm? O'Donnell is certainly a man of no ordinary metal. Three of his brothers perished in the Carlist army, that to which throughout he was himself opposed—nay, his youngest brother, the one of all he most loved, was shot at Barcelona by his own soldiers, when a prisoner, as a reprisal. His mother was lady of honor to the wife of Don Carlos, and at this time joined her earnest solicitations to those of the Pretender, that he would join the legitimists; and his iron soul stood firm, though it is understood he felt most bitterly the fate of his brother. Such a man must have something in him, and will do what he has once determined. His exterior is remarkable. Tall, and of commanding figure, his strongly marked eyebrows, the steady regard of his eye, his slightly closed lips, and the width of his chin, announce that no oscillations are to be looked for from him, when once his will has been declared.

Espartero, physically as well as morally, commands respect also. Of middle height, sixty years of age, at least, but not looking more than fifty, he bears on his lofty forehead, in his black eyes, and on his lips—turning readily to a smile—a mingled appearance of kindness and frankness, and of that courage which he carries to recklessness. By the services which he has rendered, he is the first of all the living Spanish commanders. It is known that he is a good comrade to his soldiers, and when he saw the troops in former days suffering for want of supplies, Espartero often met the difficulty from his private fortune. His wife is the daughter of a rich banker, who never hesitated to give her signature when the army was to be served. Espartero was of obscure family. He had no other fortune but his sword, and he never disdained his origin; but when Regent of Spain, with the order of the Golden Fleece on his breast, being surprised by the visit of his uncle, a small contractor of roads, and his two female cousins, who were dressmakers, he received them with open arms, and left every one struck with that democratic pride which thus gracefully showed itself in the palace of kings. There is nothing certainly in these things to make one count perhaps on the men before us; and yet men's antecedents should go for something.

What, in England, we all feel would be best, is the detbronement of the Queen, and the union of Spain and Portugal, under the young King of the latter. Portugal cannot continue to exist as a separate kingdom. When she owned Brazil, when her trade with your country and Great Britain flourished, when it formed the depot of contraband goods for Spain, a court and government at Lisbon might be supported out of the mere customs of the two great seaports. But with Brazil independent, consumers of port wine diminishing every day, and Spain lowering its import duties, the budget of Portugal is necessarily upheld by direct taxation only; and the country is too limited to pay a standing army, a standing debt, a court of high pretensions, and all the *et cateras* of royalty. For sixty years, from 1580 to 1640, it was certainly tried and failed. A young King of Portugal had staked all on the chance of a battle with the Emperor of Morocco, lost his whole army, and himself was slain or taken prisoner—the latter rather, as the Portuguese to this day believe, under the connivance of the King of Spain. Hence there was great national soreness; perhaps now, if she gave a sovereign to the more powerful country, it might be different. Every one, however, recognizes the truth, that what is done, the Peninsula must do itself—that no one must interfere, even though it were to offer salvation—that Spain must pass her forty years pilgrimage in the political wilderness, if need be unmolested, till she arrive at the promised land. No one expects that her advent is near—no one expects that her present phase will be her last, and many think that there is a demon of the North who, with invisible hand, will never fail to keep the feet of society in movement, till he himself is at rest.

UNIVERSITY CLUB.

Our Paris Correspondence.

PARIS, Thursday, August 10, 1854.

Fête of Napoleon—Preparations in the Champs Elysées and Champs de Mars—The War in the East—Total Evacuation of the Principalities—Material Guarantees to be Demanded from Russia—The Revolution in Spain—The Influence of Espartero already Declining—Dreadful Scenes at Barcelona—Illness of the Duke de Vittoria—Prospects of the Progresistas—Mobilization of the German Federal Army.

While on the 12th of August, peers and members of Parliament, stalwarth bachelors with £500 a year neat, bankers, barristers, and the whole squiracrhy of England, are hastening to, or certainly thinking of, the moors, and their innumerable associations of four o'clock in the morning, double barrels rough, short-legged pointers, bags of grouse, and delicious luncheons—France, on the 15th of August, is wholly occupied in preparing for her annual *fête* of Napoleon. Nations, as well as individuals, have their specific tastes. I confess, for myself—if one may venture to speak of so humble a personage—that having, in the days of my youth, followed to the field, and shared in the strange excitement, the nervous and bracing labors of sport, I would rather have an hour's walk among the northern heather, and bag a brace of grouse, than assist at the most gorgeous spectacle it might be in the power of lights, music, squibs, rockets, or transparencies to produce. But I am not a Frenchman. At the same time it is difficult not to believe that *reunions* of this kind, where different grades of society meet together on an equal footing—and the expression may be taken literally, for horses and carriages, and all such insignia of wealth, are rigidly excluded—and where rank and precedence stand shoulder to shoulder, in juxtaposition with blouses and canaille, have not something to do in producing that charm of manner so conspicuous among the lower orders, and which, by their forbearance, good humor, and politeness, renders a French crowd as safe for the most delicate lady as her own boudoir.

The Champs Elysées at this moment present the appearance of some vast workshop. Loads of timber by the hundred, have been thrown down in the broad avenue, to be delivered over to the carpenters' and mechanists' handicraft; and already, on either side, the ample road which leads to the Arch of Triumph, may be seen a series of graceful arches, which, mingling with the tall trees, have, even now, a picturesque effect. Already, too, colossal chandeliers, sustained by cords suspended from gigantic posts towering above the lofty trees, are poised in the middle of the avenue; and when lit will produce the effect of some splendidly illuminated ball-room. The *rond* point is divested of its fountains, and a magnificent sphere, lighted up with myriads of many colored lamps, will take its place. Gilded kiosks are being erected for orchestral purposes, and the gardens of the Tuileries are arranging their trees for garlands of divers softly shaded lamps and curious Chinese illuminations; while immediately before the clock tower of the palace, a monster concert, for which a species of pagoda is to be raised, will give life and animation to the gorgeous panorama. The more general introduction of music on such occasions is due to the Emperor. Formerly, spectacles of this kind limited their attractions to the one sense; but now the ear, as well as the eye, is to be gratified. The Champs de Mars is as busy as if a real siege were about to befall it. Workmen are laboring night and day to build up a Silistria, where, in pantomimic guise, the gallant deeds of the Ottoman may be enacted, and where the domineering legions of the Czar may meet with signal discomfiture. The weather seems likely to be auspicious; and of the million inhabitants of Paris, it may be a safe calculation that two-thirds at least will be out of doors on the 15th of August.

The *Moniteur*, after announcing that the King of the Belgians has just conferred the grand cross of the order of Leopold on M. Drouyn de Lhuys, Minister of Foreign Affairs, states that the Russian envoy has just made known to the cabinet of Vienna the fact of his complete evacuation of the Principalities of Wallachia and Mold via; that notwitstanding this declaration, M. le Comte de Buol, M. le Baron de Bourguenay and Lord Westmoreland did on the 8th inst. exchange notes, the result of which is that Austria supports France and England in demanding guarantees from Russia, in order that similar complications to those which are now troubling the repose of Europe may not again take place; and pledges herself, until the establishment of a general peace, not to treat with the cabinet of St. Petersburg, until such guarantees be obtained. The same journal likewise announces the Turkish possession of Bucharest on the 5th, and that many regiments of the enemy had already crossed the Pruth. It states, too, that in addition to the epidemic which has been so fatal to the men, a disease has broken out among the horses of a most destructive character. As regards the soldiers, that between Oursitcheni and Obileschti, 21 villages, transformed into hospitals, were counted. In Greece, Mar rocordato has published a programme, in which the throne and constitution are promised equal conservation. There is nothing of a nature to be relied on from the Black Sea. An opinion prevails that the *Times* has been somewhat premature in its intelligence about the siege of Sebastopol, and that the troops embarked at the Bosphorus on the 30th of July were rather for Circassia than the Crimea.

From the Baltic, we hear that on the 31st of August General Baraguay d'Hilliers was expected to land at Aland, in the neighborhood of which they were already anchored. The two Admirals, French and English, had been anxiously looking out for the troops. A private letter states that they found Bomersund strongly fortified with a garrison of 2,000 men, the fortifications on a rock, capable of resisting shot fired at 25 or 30 metres. The attack was, however, expected to commence in three or four days at the latest.

The news from Spain is interesting. Maria Christina is the object of such sanguinary hatred that it is impossible to get her out of Spain by the road of Saragossa to Oloron; more impossible still that she should embark at Valencia or Barcelona; and it has therefore been decided to conduct her to the frontier of Portugal. But her mere departure is not sufficient. Not only her jointure, which, legally, her second marriage has fortified, but a retrospection bill is to be laid before Cortes, by which the Queen Mother is to be made to disgorge what for several years, as wife of Munoz, she has received in consideration of her first marriage with Ferdinand VII. The barricades disappear with difficulty. Already Espartero has excited some discontent; and if private letters may be depended upon, the enthusiasm of the first days is falling off. Barcelona is reported to have passed through the dreadful ordeal of a ten hours' fight; and though the socialists have been put down, and the cause of order, it is said, has become triumphant, if this report be true, the most sanguine friends of Spain cannot but look on with disquietude and fear. Concha, it is fixed, goes to Cuba, and Olozaga comes to Paris. The Junta has nominated the Infante Don Henry de Bourbon to the rank of chief of a naval squadron. Gen. Olano—such are the strange changes of human affairs—has just passed in review at Aranjuez the division of Gen. Blaser that was sent in pursuit of himself and O'Donnell. The bank of San Fernando has advanced 15,000,000 reals to the Minister of Finance—who is Collado and not Mollaro, as I apprised you—and who has been promised all sorts of facilities by the capitalists for the negotiation of treasury bills. Espartero has been compelled to be bled, and is better.

The population in general is tranquil, but there is evidently a feeling of mistrust. The moderados effected the revolution—the progressistas are the masters of it. It is true O'Donnell, by being nominated Minister of War, seems to divide the administration equally with Espartero, the premier. But there is distrust on both sides. The field of battle will be the elections. Each party will strain every nerve to gain the victory over the other. The juntas will remain in permanence—those terrible assemblages of men whose deeds were so marked in the annals of history, and their influence in the progressista cause, cannot be doubted. Espartero takes a leaf out of the book of Napoleon the third, and is remarkable for his reserve. O'Donnell protests he desires nothing but parliamentary government, and the consolidation of the throne of Isabella the second.

The French journals are full of the bombardment of San Juan de Nicaragua.

The Emperor has requested that the ball at Bayonne, to which the Empress and himself were invited on the 15th May, be postponed till the 16th August, as he should regret to join in any festivities on the fifteenth, in which all France was not a participator. Another reason may be, though not alleged by his Majesty, that he may have time to run up to Paris in the interim and be present at the opening of the *fête*. Royalty must distribute itself, however inclined to make its attentions seem individual.

The mobilization of the German federal army is evidently soon about to take place. Austria and Prussia are about to demand that the federal army shall be called out and put on a war footing. It may be remembered that by the treaty of the 20th of April, the case was reserved in which the contracting parties were to determine for themselves when and in what proportion the confederation should make its armaments. It is found that the entrance of the Austrians into Wallachia gives reason to fear a collision with Russia, and that Germany must prove that the forces of the Germanic confederation are ready to defend the frontiers of Austria against any attack. It is felt to be a vital question that the confederation should exhibit an imposing activity.

BEMFIE.

Railroads in England.

THE ANNUAL REPORT OF 1853.

The report of the proceedings of the railway department of the Board of Trade during the year 1853, by Captain Galton, R. E., has been issued.

The report states that the length of new lines of railway sanctioned by the Legislature in the United Kingdom during the year 1853 was 940 miles, which amount is very considerably greater than that sanctioned during any year since 1847. Of this amount 589 miles were in England, 80 miles in Scotland, and 271 miles in Ireland.

Among the most important of the new lines in England appear to be the following, viz:—A line from Strood to Canterbury, by which the communication by railway along the south bank of the Thames will be rendered continuous as far as the North Foreland; the Portsmouth Railway, by which a direct communication will be afforded between Portsmouth and the metropolis; an extension of the Midland Railway from Leicester to Hitchin, on the Great Northern Railway, by which a second line of communication will be afforded from the midland districts to the metropolis; and the Worcester and Hereford Railway, by which a more direct route will be opened between the midland counties and South Wales.

In Ireland, the most important line would appear to be the Londonderry and Coleraine Railway, by which a direct route will be afforded between Belfast and Londonderry; and the Londonderry, Coleraine and Sligo Railway, which will afford a direct communication from Sligo to Londonderry, and to Dublin.

The total length of railway which has been authorised by Parliament to the end of 1853, is 12,688 miles. Of this number of miles, 7,686 have been opened for traffic, leaving 5,002 miles to be completed; but the compulsory powers of 2,838 miles have expired without being exercised, or the railways being opened to the end of 1853. The length of railways for the construction of which Parliamentary powers exist is 2,164 miles. The length of railway opened previously to December, 1843, was 2,036 miles. The length opened in the year 1844 was 204 miles; in 1845, 296 miles, in 1846, 606 miles; in 1847, 803 miles; in 1848, 1,182 miles, in 1849, 869 miles; in 1850, 625 miles; in 1851, 269 miles; in 1852, 446 miles; and in 1853, 350 miles, making the total length then opened 7,686 miles; of which 5,848 miles are in England, 995 in Scotland, and 843 miles in Ireland.

The length of the narrow gauge railway, including the Irish gauge of 5½ feet, is 6,965 miles, of the broad gauge 626 miles, and of the mixed gauge 95 miles. The number of railway companies having single lines of railway at the end of 1853 was 97, the length of single narrow gauge lines, including the Irish gauge, 1,543 miles, of broad gauge 112 miles, and of mixed gauge 53 miles—total 1,708 miles; of which 1,135 miles of single line are in England, 132 miles in Scotland, and 441 miles in Ireland.

Of the single line opened at the end of the year 1852, 32 miles 46 chains in England, and 41 miles 76 chains in Ireland, have been made double during the year 1853.

The total length of new line which was opened during the year 1853 amounted to 350 miles.

Of the lines opened in England, the principal ones are—the Oxford, Worcester, and Wolverhampton railway from Wolvercot to Evesham, by which the manufacturing districts near Birmingham, the town of Worcester, and the important agricultural districts between Worcester and Oxford are accommodated with a direct route to London; the Newport, Abergavenny, and Hereford railway, and the Shrewsbury and Hereford railway, by which a direct route is afforded from Birkenhead to South Wales; and the Thirsk and Malton, and Malton and Driffield railways, by which railway communication is afforded to an important district in Yorkshire.

In Scotland, the only line of importance opened for traffic was the Deeside Railway. In Ireland, the most important lines are the Waterford and Kilkenny, and Waterford and Limerick Railways, by which Waterford has been connected with the Irish railway system; and the railway from Killarney to the Great Southern and Western Railway.

All these lines of railway were inspected previous to being opened for traffic by officers of this department, and your lordships required the opening to be postponed in twenty-eight instances. The total number of inspections which were required to be performed by the officers amounted to fifty-eight.

Of the railways opened during 1853, twenty-five portions of railway, representing a total length of 298 miles, consisted of single line; and it would appear that the length of single line open at the end of 1853, viz.: 1,708 miles, was between one-fourth and one-fifth of the whole amount of railway open. It is to be observed that the length of single line open at the end of 1852 was 1,485 miles, and at the end of 1851, 1,307 miles. A single line of railway cannot be worked with safety, except under special regulations, to framed as to prevent the possibility of engines or trains moving in opposite directions, from meeting on the single line; such regulations are, however, inconsistent with a large amount of traffic.

In all cases of single lines opened during 1853, your lordships required generally either that the trains should be worked by means of one engine moving backwards and forwards over the line, or over particular portions of it; or that some particular man should be appointed to accompany the trains moving over the portions of single line. And in cases where the electric telegraph is in use, the regulations required were that the persons employed to start trains should be distinctly responsible for ascertaining, before starting the trains, that the line is clear as far as the next station.

The amount of capital invested in railways at the end of 1852 was £264,165,680, of which 161,400,255 consisted of ordinary capital, £38,700,555 of preference capital, and £64,064,668 of loans. The amount of capital raised for railway purposes in 1849 was £29,574,720; in 1850, £10,522,967; in 1851, £7,970,151, and in 1852, £16,398,903; thus increasing the amount invested in railways at the end of 1849 from £229,747,779 to £264,165,680 at the end of 1852. The amount of money which was raised by railway companies during 1853 has not yet been returned to Parliament; but it may be assumed not to have been less than that raised during 1852, and it is therefore probable that the whole sum raised by railway companies to the end of 1853 is not less than £281,000,000, of which about £42,000,000 may be assumed to have been preferential capital, and nearly £70,000,000 would appear to have been borrowed on the security of the undertakings.

The number of miles of railway in course of construction on the 30th of June, 1853, was 682 miles, and the number of men employed on them was 37,764. The number of miles open for traffic at that date was 7,512, and the number of men employed 80,409. The number of men employed on railways open for traffic was 9.15 per mile in 1852, and 10.7 per mile in 1853.

The total number of passengers conveyed on railways in the United Kingdom in the year 1853 amounted to 162,296,660; the number in 1852 had been 89,135,729. The total receipts from all sources of traffic amounted in 1853 to £18,635,879, and in 1852 to £15,710,554.

In England the mean length of line open during the year has been increased from 4,355.5 miles in 1849 to 5,730.5 miles in 1853, and the total number of passengers conveyed has increased from 49,879,362 in 1849 to 84,212,961 in 1853, being an increase of from 11,450 per mile in 1849 to 14,695 per mile in 1853. The numbers conveyed of each class bear very nearly the same relative proportion to each other in each year. In 1853 the number of first class passengers was 12.76 per cent, the number of second class was 37.8 per cent, and the number of third class 49.42 per cent of the whole number carried.

The receipts from passengers have increased from £5,446,518 in 1849 to £7,326,106 in 1853, being an increase of from £1,255 per mile to £1,279 per mile (the amount received during 1851 having amounted to £1,330 per mile.) The receipts per mile from each class in 1849 were—first class, £406; second class, £518; third class, £331. In 1853 the receipts per mile had diminished on the first and second class to £403 and £474 respectively, and had increased on the third class to £378.

But the most important feature is the steady progress made by the goods traffic of the country, and the apparent probability that in the course of a few years it will form a more important item in the income of railway companies than the passenger traffic.

The receipts from goods have increased from £4,750,504 in 1849, to £8,112,477 in 1853, being an increase of from £1,090 per mile in 1849 to £1,415 per mile in 1853; and whilst the receipts from passengers in 1849 were larger than the receipts from goods in the proportion of 53.42 to 46.58, in 1853 the contrary was the case, viz., the three per-centage of the passenger traffic was 47.45, and of the goods traffic 52.55.

In Scotland the progress of traffic on railways has been similar. The mean length of railway open during the year has increased from 795.6 miles, open in 1849, to 987 miles open in 1853. The number of passengers conveyed in 1849 amounted to £7,902,228, and in 1853 to £10,999,224, which represents £9,993 per mile in 1849 against £11,246 per mile in 1853. The relative number of passengers of each class conveyed would appear to have slightly varied, the number of first and third class passengers having increased, and the number of second class passengers having diminished, the number in 1849 being 729 first class passengers per mile, 2,035 second class passengers per mile, and 6,997 third class passengers per mile, against 1,107 first class, 1,971 second class, 8,165 third class passengers per mile in 1853. The receipts from passengers having increased from £540,770 to £697,712; or from £680 per mile in 1849 to £713 per mile in 1853; and the proportion of receipts from each class conveyed having been, in 1849, £149 per mile for first class, £196 per mile for second class, and £331 per mile for third class passengers, against £181 per mile from first class, £179 per mile from second class, and £345 per mile from third class passengers in 1853.

It would, therefore, appear that in Scotland the third class traffic preponderates considerably, both as regards numbers and receipts. There is also in the Scotch lines a preponderance in the receipts from goods traffic over the receipts from passenger traffic.

The amount received from goods in 1849 was £650,640, and in 1853 it was £1,068,016, representing £818 per mile in 1849, against £1,075 per mile in 1853. The relative proportions of the two descriptions of traffic were, in 1849, passenger traffic 45.38, and goods traffic 54.62; and in 1853 the receipts from goods traffic amounted to 60.48 per cent of the whole traffic.

In Ireland the progress has also been marked, but a considerable increase has taken place in the number of miles open for traffic, which increase (as was the case in this country a few years ago) has been at a greater rate than the increase of the traffic, and hence the receipts per mile do not exhibit a similar progress.

The mean length of railway opened in the year 1849 was 428 miles, and in the year 1853 it was 771 miles.

The total number of passengers conveyed in 1849 amounted to 6,059,947, or 14,142 per mile; and in 1853 it amounted to 7,074,475, or 9,175 per mile. The increase in the number of passengers has taken place chiefly in the first and third classes, the number of second class passengers having diminished. The number of passengers of different classes per mile was in 1849:—First class, 1,226; second class, 7,138, and third class, 5,776; and in 1853, first class, 1,044; second class, 3,691, and third class, 4,436. The receipts from passengers have increased from £290,604 in 1849, to £537,259 in 1853; the receipts per mile having been £678 in 1849, and £696 in 1853, divided between the different classes in the following proportion in 1849:—First class, £150 per mile; second class, £273, and third class, £255; and in 1853, first class, £168; second class, £264, and third class, £251. The receipts for goods amounted, in 1849, to £127,462, and in 1853, to £294,310, equivalent to £297 per mile in 1849, and £387 per mile in 1853. The relative proportion of receipts from the two classes of traffic was, in 1849, 69.51 from passengers, and 30.49 from goods, and in 1853 it was 64.62 from passengers, and 35.38 from goods.

The general summary of the result is, that since the year 1849, whilst the number of miles over which the traffic is conveyed has increased 34 per cent, the number of passengers has increased 60 per cent, the receipts from passengers 36 per cent, or from £1,125 per mile in 1849 to £1,143 per mile in 1853; the receipts from goods have increased 71 per cent, or from £990 per mile in 1849 to £1,235 per mile in 1853; and the total receipts have increased nearly 53 per cent, or from £2,115 per mile in 1849 to £2,408 per mile in 1853. And the proportionate increase of the traffic of 1853 over that of 1852 was greater than that of 1850 over 1849.

It is worthy of remark, that as regards the passenger traffic, the proportionate increase in the number of the lower class of passengers conveyed by railway is greater than that of other classes, and the proportion which the receipts from that class bear to the receipts from other classes is greater for 1853 than it was for 1849.

The receipts from goods are also largely increasing, and they bear every year an increasing proportion to passenger traffic.

With respect to accidents, it appears that in 1852, 216 persons were killed and 486 injured on the railways in the United Kingdom out of a gross total of 89,135,729 passengers; of these persons 181 were killed and 413 were injured in England; 24 were killed and 71 injured in Scotland; and 11 were killed and 2 injured in Ireland. In the year 1853, out of a gross total of 102,286,660 passengers conveyed by the railways of the United Kingdom, 305 were killed and 449 injured; of these, 243 were killed and 369 injured in England; 37 were killed and 68 injured in Scotland; and 25 were killed and 12 injured in Ireland.

It would appear that, in the year 1852, the proportion of the number of passengers killed and injured from causes beyond their own control to the total number of passengers carried on railways, reduced for the purposes of comparison to the standard of 1,000,000 was, in England, 14 killed and 4·3 injured per million passengers conveyed; in Scotland, none killed, but 5·8 injured per million; in Ireland, none killed, but 3·2 injured per million; and for the United Kingdom, the proportion of killed was ·11, and of injured about 4·2 per one million of passengers conveyed.

But in the year 1853 the proportion of the number of accidents to the number of persons conveyed by railway was greater. For reducing the numbers to the same comparative standard of 1,000,000, the proportion of the number of passengers killed and injured from causes beyond their own control to the total number of passengers carried on railways in that year was, in England, ·23 killed and 2·6 injured per million of passengers conveyed; in Scotland, ·09 killed and 4·5 injured per million; and in Ireland, 2·4 killed and 1·6 injured in every million; whilst in the United Kingdom there would appear to have been ·35 killed and 2·8 injured in every million of passengers conveyed by railway.

The Trade, Enterprise and Territorial Extension of the United States.

[From the London Mercantile Gazette, August 11.]

Smile as we may at the boast and bluster of our trans-Atlantic cousins, and ridicule as we may their foibles (and where is the nation that has not some prominent weakness?) we must, nevertheless, admit that there is a spirit of enterprise, of determination, and of concentrated action in the body politic there which accomplishes great results while other nations are debating and discussing possibilities and probabilities. Even *Blackwood's Magazine* is fain to concede, in a recent number, a large share of credit to the United States for the striking advancement made within a very few years in wealth, manufactures and commerce. We may sneer at its "lust of power," condemn its "filibustering" operations, and discourage its aggrandising propensities, but it makes headway not withstanding, and the tide of empire wends its course westward, peopling the vast tracts of the great continent in which it is the great ruling power. It can afford to give us long odds in any great undertaking. Whilst our merchants and capitalists, in the old, jog-trot fashion of British proceedings, consider and deliberate on their course of action, viewing the question in every possible aspect, the Americans receive the idea, and "presto"—it is accomplished. Is a railroad to be made across the Isthmus of Panama, or a route to be opened up through the Lake of Nicaragua?—Brother Jonathan is the man to do it. Is the Pacific to be navigated by steam?—Away start American steamers, impelled by individual enterprise, on the track, whilst British merchants are organizing companies, treating with government for charters, and building ships. Is a submarine telegraph considered desirable between the Irish coast and New York, to link the Old and New Worlds into closer communion?—Americans are the ones to satisfy us by scientific inquiry as to its feasibility, and to take the initiative in its construction. Is it desirable to join the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by a railroad?—The Americans set about it and do it. Is the trade of the populous empire of Japan to be opened?—Away goes an American squadron, and, despite the alleged impossibilities, carries out the object. Whilst we, to our disgrace be it said, cannot maintain a line of steamers to our important southern colonies, they have two or three lines running on each side of the Isthmus, with a fortnightly communication. With them "distance lends enchantment to the view," and thousands of miles are no objects in the race for progress and ultimate success. We have debated long on the formation of even a trunk line of railroad within our own possessions to connect the St. Lawrence ports with the Lakes and interior towns of Western Canada, and the project is only now taken up in earnest, after years of deliberation. As for the idea of an extension of this line to the important seaport of Halifax, in Nova Scotia, despite the recommendations and pecuniary assistance of the Lower Provinces, and the vast advantages that would result from a closer union, we look upon it at home as a waste of capital, because some few hundred miles of waste country have to be traversed, although there are no engineering difficulties to overcome. Several years ago suggestions for facilitating communication through the continent of America over British territory were laid before the public by Captain Synge, R. M., Major Carm