THE GERMANS IN AMERICA.

ARE WE A NATION?

The Growth of the German Element Among Us—Its Causes and Sources.

Relations of the Germans to the Commerce, Industry, Society and Politics of the Country.

What Should Be Done to Produce Congruity of Sentiment Among All Portions of the People.

We call ourselves a nation. In all Fourth of July harangues and from the platform at all political gatherings the glory of the American eagle and the prowess of the American nation are eloquently dwelt upon and patriotically praised. No one can object to such outbursts of love of country, to this sort of self-glorification. It indicates a deep-seated feeling for the land of one's birth, and is justly applauded and appreciated as such. But mere empty words bear but dry fruit. The growth and prosperity of the country proceed not from polished descriptions of its greatness. Words are mere sound, vanishing in the air "like the baseless fabric of a vision," and count for but a very minute portion of the modern agencies for the development of progress. Montecuculi, when asked for the three means most necessary to carry on war with success, replied:—First, money; second, more money; and, third, still more money. And in like epigrammatic manner it may be said that to promote the progress and development of a country action—continued action, resolute, unceasing action—on the part of its people is most required. This action, to be profitable, necessitates study of two things—first, of the object whereon to expend itself, and, second, of the means wherewith to act. It is not the province of this article to say more of the first of these two subjects mentioned than to refer merely to the admitted axiom that steady advancement in all material and intellectual pursuits of man is one of the greatest objects of a nation's political and social life, and that all measures of its internal and external polity should be so shaped and dissected as to foster and accelerate this advancement. To be able fully to perform this incumbent duty it is necessary to have recognized and understood the means which the people themselves yield for the statesmen and the government to apply. These again depend on the peculiar condition and situation of the people, on the relations and resources of the country, on individual and national characteristics of what may be termed the component parts of the population. And it is especially to this latter subject that we propose to address ourselves at present. Nor is it intended to discuss the whole subject with all its many and intricate ramifications. A single branch will suffice for a cursory glance, and even that affords matter sufficient that the political economist could write volumes of instructive essays, and yet never come near exhausting it. This branch is indicated by the title to this article.

It is all very well to insist, as against the whole world outside our limits, upon the one undivided nationality of the American people—upon our national American character having been rendered compact and solidified by the late war. This is true to a certain extent, and to a certain limited extent only. In the eye of the world the American citizen, no matter where born, ought to be vested with all the rights and privileges conceded to or demanded by the American nation. And at home, in the eye of the law, citizenship confers upon all alike the same prerogatives and the same duties. In so far, therefore, as the technical application of municipal and international law is concerned, we are, in every sense of the word, a nation. But true statesmanship looks beyond and behind the mere technicalities of law; it dissects, not, like the coroner, to find the cause of death, but to search for the source of new and increased vital power, which, wisely applied, will fertilize the mental and physical labors of the people.

Bringing this method of inquiry to bear upon the subject before us, the careful and unbiased observer must come to the conclusion that in every other view, except the technical aspect of the law and in grandiloquent, spread-eagle speeches, we are yet far from being a nation. To make us such there is more needed than the gradual abrasion of State lines and State rights, through the concussion of the late revolutionary strife. Community of interest alone will not do it. It requires a certain degree of homogeneity in all that pertains to national life to constitute the inhabitants of a country to all intents and purposes a nation. Looking at it in this view the conviction forces itself upon the mind that we are not even a people, but only an agglomerate of the people of different nationalities, living and developing the same country each in his own way, and bound together only by the technical ligament of American citizenship; some acquiring it by the accident of birth, some by the judgment of a court acting under the law, upon their voluntary desire and application. All the countries of the earth have their representatives here, making up the largest half of the 40,000,000 of people inhabiting the land known in political geography as the United States of America.

What is, under these circumstances, the duty of wise statesmanship? Surely, first, to know the elements of which this variegated population is composed and then so to shape the system of laws and administration that in its influence upon the life of the country it may result not only in an external commingling of these many parts, but in cementing them together, heart and soul, into one nation, homogeneous in interest, objects and aims. Neither similarity of habits, of customs and methods of social life, nor of language, need be attempted, for it would be both inadvisable and impracticable. If one common sentiment of political unity, of national coherence, pervade the whole mass of the people, they will constitute an inseparable nation, whether individual portions of it trace their origin to Germany, Ireland, France or elsewhere. It is this sentiment of national congruity which makes the French a great nation, and it is the want of it which threatens to snap the cord of cohesion between England and Ireland.

Having thus briefly and in this introductory manner brought home to the reader the importance of the inquiry proposed we shall follow it with explaining our view, in like brief manner, of the growth of the German element, its causes and sources; the relations the Germans have sustained and the influence they have gained in regard to the commercial, financial, industrial, social and political life of the country; and lastly, what is necessary to be done to produce and perfect that congruity of sentiment between all portions of the people imperatively required for the further development of the American nationality.

I.—THE GROWTH OF THE GERMAN ELEMENT—ITS CAUSES AND SOURCES.

Fifty years ago there was not any German immigration into this country worth the name. There were isolated arrivals with Germans intending to settle here, but a systematic migration of a large portion of the German people to the Republic of the West was not known. Similar arrivals occurred even in colonial times, as far back as the first half of the last century. They were generally poor laborers, who, on landing, were sold for the passage money and a profit to whomsoever needed their labor. By such the James River Canal, in Virginia, was built, and what is now a populous and industrious part of that State, Rockingham county, for instance, and what is known as the "Tenth Legion," and also many districts of North Carolina and portions of our own State were settled by them. A more concerted movement was induced by religious persecution, and large tracts in Middle and Northeastern Pennsylvania, and the Mohawk Valley, in New York, were peopled by zealous religionists, prohibited by local prejudice in Germany from worshipping God according to the dictates of their own consciences. During the Revolutionary war the auxiliary troops under Knyphausen, sold to King George by the Elector of Hesse, furnished also many permanent settlers to the country, and in after years a goodly number of the descendants of these "Hessians" rose to prominence and distinction. During this century and before the year 1830 these occasional arrivals of Germans continued, generally in small numbers, but at times in whole communities, like the Rappists, who settled in Pennsylvania; the Stephanites, in Southeastern Missouri, and others. But, as has been remarked, no such systematized immigration of Germans, pouring in upon our shores in unbroken stream, as at present, was then known.

The first impulse to this was given by the failure of the revolutionary movement in Germany in 1831-2, which followed the revolution in France, the expulsion of Charles X. and the installation of Louis Philippe as King in July, 1830. It was then, particularly after the year 1832, that thousands of well-to-do families, of educated young men, of professional men, of men who had been in the civil service of their native country, and who had become objects of hatred and persecution by their government on account of their participation in the popular movement for more liberal institutions, fled to America as the safest retreat. These men were imbued with an enlarged love of liberty and firmly attached to republican principles, and no mere mercenary motives—no mere desire for material improvement—led them hither. New Orleans, Baltimore, Philadelphia and New York received a portion of them, but by far the larger majority of their number wended their way westward, and drawing a line from Pittsburg (Pa.) to St. Louis (Mo.), gives the centre of the district, probably not much over 400 miles in extent, north and south, within which these new arrivals selected their homes.

This movement of the Germans from their native soil on the old Continent to the new wrought two very important consequences. In the first place it insured the continuation and increase of German immigration; for the friends of those who were already here either followed them voluntarily or were called upon to come, and the letters written home from here to the old country giving alluring descriptions of the conditions of life in America, the perfect freedom of action guaranteed to each individual, and the true republican equality of all men before the law, with no king, princes or nobility to extort the earnings of the poor, were copied by the hundred and carried about stealthily from village to village and from hamlet to hamlet, and secretly read, and thousands were induced to follow those who had preceded them. Another result was an increased activity in the field of German periodical literature in this country. Before this new era in immigration there existed but very few, perhaps not over two or three German newspapers in America, and these were localized in their circulation as well as influence, and confined exclusively, like the *Readinger Adler*, in Pennsylvania, to the German stock of the last century. Now, however, there came a change. Timidly at first and cautiously, here and there, in the larger cities, newspapers were started by the young men of that period devoted to the interests of the Germans in America, and though many failed success crowned others. Very nearly a majority of the most successful German journals now existing in the United States originated in the years between 1832 and 1840. These papers were again powerful agencies in stimulating immigration, for they were much more effective than the private letters mentioned had been before. It was during this time that the monarchical government of Germany became aware of the magnitude and increasing dimensions of this efflux of their dissatisfied people to America. Decrees were issued and regulations promulgated, all with the purpose of hindering and delaying the emigrant by restrictions and chicanery, and of bringing about a diminution of emigration. But all these decrees and promulgations were of no avail. Even downright prohibition could not stop it. The hope of living in a "free country" had too many attractions for the oppressed and down-trodden artisan, mechanic or farmer, and many even sacrificed a large part and some all of their property to reach the "free country," here to start out anew, with no prejudices of past centuries to thwart their efforts, no chains to bind them, no clogs to interrupt their onward course to success.

Thus it continued in steadily increasing proportions until the last great revolutionary upheaval in 1848. The West was being rapidly settled by an industrious and thrifty agricultural population. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan and Wisconsin, grew up to be comparatively populous and important States; old cities, such as may be termed "old" in this country, like Buffalo, Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Louisville, St. Louis and Milwaukee, were rapidly expanding in size, increasing in numbers and absorbing the skilled labor of Germany, and mechanical and industrial pursuits began to flourish as never before. New cities were founded, as Chicago; former villages, like Columbus, in Ohio, Indianapolis, in Indiana, Davenport, in Iowa, and many others, grew to the proportion of important centres, and the whole West, aided by the liberal policy of the federal government in regard to the public lands, and the naturalization of foreigners, by the absence of burdensome taxation, was changed, as if by the wand of the magician, from a wilderness to a blooming garden, yielding tenfold returns to the labor of man.

During the latter years of this period (1846-1848) occurred the Mexican war. Those who recollect or participated in the memorable conquest can testify to the extent of useful aid rendered to the country of their adoption by the Germans, and on the battle fields of that war the blood of the Germans was freely mingled with that of their comrades in arms of other nationalities, fighting under the same starry banner.

The years since 1848 to the present time again mark a new and distinctive era in German immigration. In that year the February revolution in France was immediately, in March, followed by the uprising of the people in Germany. The history of that year and of the year following, of the contests between the people and their rulers, and of the final success of armed despotism over undisciplined enthusiasm, need not here be told. These events are too recent and their general outlines too well known even here to require anything more than a mere reference to them for the purpose of this article. The triumph of despotism in Germany was complete, and thousands upon thousands of refugees fled to this country from the walls of a lifelong prison or the halter or the bullet of the executioner. These were to a large extent of the same class as the immigrants of 1832-3—men learned in various professions, merchants in good standing, young students full of desire to learn, to work and to rise; tradesmen and artisans, whose associations with the liberal movement had rendered their stay at home impossible. The great republic of America attracted them all; her quiet influence had guided them in their attempted revolution; her liberal institutions were now to them a promise of a life of freedom and advancement. They came in hundreds and in thousands, settled in various profitable pursuits, sent back for their friends and kindred, and while they all prospered they enriched the country and increased its material welfare, national prosperity and international greatness.

From this time forth German immigration assumed proportions never dreamed of in former years. The same results followed it as were experienced after the increased immigration in 1832, only in a much greater ratio. The growth of cities in the West was more rapid, the yield of the soil more bountiful and furnishing a larger volume for export. The demand for labor increased in like proportion, and this again, besides the other causes stated above, added to the incentives for immigration. The intellectual field was not forgotten, and where in the sixteen years before one German periodical had made its appearance now ten started into life, most, though not all, of which have succeeded in maintaining themselves. The advantages of the country for free development, for the success of all, as a rule, who deserve success and are resolved to earn it, were more and more made known, not by theoretical argument allowing of contradiction, but by the potent fact of living examples. And as in the social scale of progress each achieved effect becomes the cause for further advancement, thus the causes and the incentives for immigration from Germany were multiplied from year to year.

Hence, to-day we may safely assume the entire German population in this country, counting in those of German descent in the first generation and their offspring, still retaining the language and habits of their parents, at from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000, with a voting power of perhaps over 1,000,000. There is New York city, with more German inhabitants than any city in Germany, except Vienna and Berlin; there are probably not four cities in the fatherland that have a larger German population than Philadelphia, and we have more cities in this country containing over 30,000 German residents than perhaps the whole of the North German Confederation, excepting the old capitals and the centres of transoceanic commerce. There are about as many political journals published in the German language, daily and weekly, in this country, as in all Germany, and twice as many of these papers here have a circulation of 10,000 and over as in the old country.

And the cry is, still they come. Last year the immigration at this port was 131,949 of the total number of 213,686, or very nearly two-thirds of the whole. There were also landed 3,362 Swiss, of whom over two-thirds were from the German cantons of Switzerland and 2,811 from France, of which number not less than half were from Alsace and Lorraine, or virtually Germans. Such a yearly increase by immigration, added to the natural increase of births over deaths among the Germans already resident here, will soon change their relative proportion to the whole population, which is now about one-fourth. With the acknowledged decrease of the fecundity in the native American stock and the diminution in the immigration of other nationalities, as shown by the statistics of past years, the ratio of the Germans in this country to the rest of the inhabitants must, in the course of not many years to come, rise from one-fourth to a third, or even higher. And not the Germans alone, but the whole country from the Penobscot to the Rio Grande, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in the future as it has in the past, will reap the rich harvest.

II.—THE RELATIONS OF THE GERMANS TO THE COMMERCE, FINANCES, INDUSTRY, SOCIETY AND POLITICS OF THE COUNTRY.

That such tremendous influx of immigrants, continued now for nearly forty years, has not been without vast influence upon the material life of the country in every conceivable aspect has already been partially shown, and it is undoubtedly evident to all that this influence must have extended from year to year from the more narrow fields which felt it first to other and wider branches, touching at last the whole composition of our society and the very germ of our political life. And this is partially true. It is not necessary to go into any minor details to show it. Every attentive business man knows it to be so and every wide-awake politician feels it.

No one can or will deny that among the many causes which have aided in advancing the inter-state and international commerce of the country the rapid and unparalleled development of the agricultural resources of the West was one of the most potent. This could only have been brought about, as it actually was, by an unprecedented rapidity in the increase of population, and this rapidity of increase was again the cause of immigration, of which the Germans, for the last forty years, formed about one-half. Commerce goes only where an exchange of commodities is possible, where there is something to buy or to sell, or both. It creates nothing; it merely transports what is already produced to other places where it is needed, and exchanges it for what it finds of production—the result of the labor of others—to supply this want elsewhere. Increasing production is therefore naturally followed by an increase of exchanges and the demand for an increase of facilities for transportation, and these again, in various ways, stimulate production.

Here we have in a nutshell and as plain as it can be made the influence of the German immigration upon the astounding increase of our commerce. Without their aid the capacities for production of the West would not have been developed to the same degree and in the same ratio of increase as they have been. Hence commerce would have advanced with slower paces, and our means of transportation would not have been extended with such gigantic strides.

The manufacturing industry of the country owes a similar debt to the German immigration, partly for the same reasons as commerce and railroads, and partly on account of the vast amount of skilled and artistic labor introduced by it into the country and added to the enterprise and skill already domiciled here and so characteristic of America. More people consume more of manufactures than a less number, and hence by increasing the population they aided in furnishing a market to the manufacturer on a larger scale, and by increasing production they helped to increase the purchasing power of the people, thus in both ways contributing their share to the increase of the national wealth. And as this national wealth finds its exponent in dollars and cents, by which it is measured, and as the financial system of a country is at once the regulator of this national wealth and also resting on its healthfulness and security, and as these are best shown by constant, regular, legitimate expansion of commerce and manufactures, it follows that the German immigration had no mean share, along with that from Ireland and other countries and with the Americans proper, in influencing the upward course of the general prosperity of the country, so much the wonder of the age.

Going somewhat into details, it may be stated that there is no branch of commerce or manufacture in the United States, excepting, perhaps, some portions of New England, in which the Germans do not share proportionately with other nationalities. In every city in the country they form a large and respected integral part of the mercantile and manufacturing community. A lately published list of the internal revenue assessors for the district of St. Louis shows that of the whole money value of sales made in that city during the month of January last about one-third was made by German houses or by firms having one or more German partners. And the internal revenue returns of our own city and vicinity, if carefully examined, would certainly show, not only that a very large portion of our trade passes through German hands, but also that they take up a considerable part of the list of manufacturers, while some branches of manufacture, as clothing, for instance, are, to a great degree, almost monopolized by them. We find them also heavily represented in the banking and insurance business all over the land, contributing, as they properly should, by their activity, in all the ways of modern society, to the general welfare.

And in social life their interest is not less felt. The ancient vigor and abstemiousness of the Puritan and Roundhead are loosening their hold, and the genial and exhilarating amusements and diversions of Germany, the social habits and customs of the fatherland, their jovial and merry feasts and festive gatherings in summer and winter, modified somewhat and adapted to suit the different circumstances and conditions of this country, are gradually taking root, and promise, in time to come, to grow from exotic, as they have been, to be not only domiciled, but indigenous to the country, not only tolerated, as they were once, but adopted by a large portion of the people. It is not necessary to particularize. The meaning of what is said here will be fully understood by the reader.

In the politics of the country the German citizens have already acquired great indirect influence. With our democratic form of government, where the success of a party or of governmental measures is decided by numerical preponderance at the polls, this could not be otherwise. Parties must be alert to ascertain the views of the people, and they must accommodate themselves to them if they wish to get the votes of the people. Hence even the temporary success of Know-Nothingism was only possible so long as the great bulk of immigration since 1848 did not yet have a vote. The revival of that agitation is now utterly out of the question. The fiercest Know-Nothing of 1853 has since then recanted and now pledges fealty to a liberal recognition of the rights of naturalized citizens hereafter. But all this has hitherto been only a negative influence, produced by the mere weight of their numbers, added to the numbers of naturalized citizens from other countries. It was in rare instances, few and far between, that they had any direct part in framing legislation. Missouri had a German Speaker of the Assembly and several members of that body. Illinois had a German Lieutenant Governor, Wisconsin a German Governor; other States in the West had several minor State and county officers and seats in the Legislatures filled by Germans; but all this, in comparison with their number and vote, was but as a drop in the bucket. The drawback they suffered under was the language and the inability of most of their eminent men to speak it fluently and correctly enough to make them ready debaters and influential legislators.

Now this is changed. In many cities of the Union we find Germans, members of the bar, as conversant with law and as ever ready for a tilt of words in court or anywhere as the best of their professional brethren. Others, in other learned professions, some in the ease of privacy and enjoying the sweets of wealth, have acquired the same facility in speech and pen alike in English as in German. Hence we will see a German from Missouri, one of the immigrants of the later period, entering the Senate of the United States as the elected representative from his State, the peer among the peers in the theoretically highest deliberative assembly in the world. Twenty years ago Illinois sent an Irishman, James Shields, and Louisiana a Frenchman, Pierre Soulé, to the same body, and the first afterwards represented Minnesota and Oregon in turn in the same body. And though the French and the Irish were twenty years in advance, it bears not much against the Germans, that with all the difficulties to contend against, they have profited by the delay and have come up at last, and while properly preserving their own have acquired our language to perfection.

III. WHAT SHOULD BE DONE TO PRODUCE CONGRUITY OF SENTIMENT AMONG ALL PORTIONS OF THE PEOPLE.

This awakening of the German element to direct participation in the higher sphere of politics, the legislation for the country, will and can have but one result, and that a beneficent one. It will strongly tend to break down the barriers that have so long and injuriously been maintained between Americans, Irish, Germans, French and other nationalities. The ability to participate even in the highest duties of an American citizen, those of national legislator, on a footing of perfect equality with all, creates that respect which citizenship alone did not command, and which the difference in language so long delayed. This will lead to a better appreciation of the important services rendered the country by the German element, and hence will ultimately flow that unity of patriotic feeling and congruity of sentiment without which we are a great and powerful community of different nationalities, commanding respect for our strength, but not a homogeneous nation.

It should, therefore, be borne in mind that abstention from all invidious distinction, from all odious or class legislation, from all interference with the innocent habits and customs of one nationality by another, from all laws which seek to enforce the peculiar views upon this or that subject of one part of the community upon the other, is one of the first public means to reach the desired end, as by it many of the principal causes which now excite animosity and bitterness between the several nationalities would be removed. And then let the Germans themselves be studious of the wants and needs, in a political aspect, of the whole country, run not after false gods, rush not headlong into extremes and obstinate persistence, show a spirit of compromise and accommodation to general feelings, put forward their first and ablest men, capable of coping with the ablest, and they can thus contribute to merge all the people of the land into one compact, coherent American nationality, possessing a multitude of customs and speaking a plurality of languages, with the English as the best adapted and only national tongue.

NOVEL READING—IS IT SINFUL?

The *Christian Standard*, published at Alliance, Ohio, and Campbellite in its religious profession, replies to the question of a correspondent—"Is the habit of novel reading sinful?"—as follows:—

The objects had in view are:—First, to obtain information. Second, to be awakened to reflection and investigation. Third, to be warned against evil and strengthened in the love of that which is good. Fourth, to form and cultivate a correct taste—to minister to the love of the beautiful. It is evident at a glance that novels, if allowable at all, cannot properly form the staple of our reading, as they cannot minister to the more important ends sought. Novels do not convey information. Neither is it their prime object to awaken reflection and investigation. They may warn against evil and encourage goodness, and they may aid us to cultivate a pure literary taste. They are chiefly valuable, when valuable at all, for delineations of character and for unmasking and satirizing the follies or vices or crimes of the age. We can no more condemn all novels, therefore, than we can recommend all books that are not novels. A thing may be as valuable on a page of fiction, when true to nature, as when furnished on the historic page as true in fact. The lessons taught in the parables of Jesus are as valuable as if they had been conveyed in a homily, and a great deal more pleasant to study.

But as it is not the chief end of reading to gratify the imagination or please the fancy, novel reading must hold a subordinate place. As a literary recreation, as a pleasant change from severe mental toil, as a pleasant and not useless way of spending an odd hour not otherwise devoted, as a pleasant treat to an overtasked student or a relief to a morbid state of mind, it may be desirable occasionally to read a good novel. But when this becomes the chief object of attention it absorbs time from more valuable purposes, enervates the mental powers, unfits for severe study, and emasculates the whole intellectual and moral nature.

The Waverley novels are, in the judgment of competent critics, much better and every way freer from objection than most works of fiction. About once a year, it may be, one of the Waverley novels might be read by almost anybody for the benefit of mental recreation. But to have novels lying about the house to be read by children at will is about as bad as having whiskey about the house to be drank by them at will—especially such trashy books as most popular novels are. As to the proportion of time to be allotted to novel reading, we know nothing better than the hint in Paul's advice to Timothy about wine—"Take a little," just a little.

THE OHIO PARRICIDE.

[From the Cincinnati Commercial, March 6.]

Frank Hardy, the young man supposed to be the murderer of his stepfather, J. H. Rice, the farmer who was killed on his farm, at Shamrock Landing, near Rome, Adams county, Ohio, a few days since, arrived in this city late night before last in charge of detective Boileau, who received him from the arresting officer at Cairo, Ill. Hardy is slenderly built and exceedingly youthful in appearance. He will be twenty-one years old in May, but does not look to be over seventeen. His complexion is dark and his hair black as the raven's wing. The expression of his countenance is not really bad, but there are certain sinister lines about his face, and a stealthiness in the glance of his eye that is by no means prepossessing. Having confessed to the Cairo officers that he committed the deed with which he is charged he converses very freely about it with those around him. He pleads no justification for his terrible act. The old man was always kind to him, he says, and deserved a more peaceful death. And yet the young murderer states that he dug his stepfather's grave a week or ten days before he killed him.

According to his own account he got only $145 from the body and ransacked the house to get more. He stoutly denies that the little bound boy who left with him had anything to do with the murder. He is now in a cell in the Ninth street station house, where he will remain until next Tuesday night, when he will be taken to Adams county for trial.

ANOTHER PLAN FOR THE RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE HERALD:—

The Agricultural Department, in its monthly report closing 1868, states the crop of cotton of the United States of the growth of that year to have been 2,380,000 bales. The commercial sources put its value at $200,000,000 to $250,000,000. If the crop of 1869 in the United States can be increased above that quantity 2,000,000 bales, making 4,380,000 bales, and so giving 3,500,000 bales, 1,575,000,000 pounds, to be exported at twenty cents a pound in gold, it will realize $315,000,000, which, with other exports, will pay for imports, without export of gold, and give us a return current of gold from Europe akin to that of King Solomon from Ophir—of over $80,000,000. This sum, with other possessions of gold hereafter stated, would warrant specie payments to be resumed in the summer of 1870.

Whenever the great fabric of credit is assailed through lack of confidence in its stability panics and financial distress follow. The revulsion of 1857, initiated by the failure of the Ohio Life and Trust Company, swept on with tornado fury from the Ohio to the Bosphorus, through all the cities. England was trembling in suspense for some hours, waiting the decision of the Bank of England on an application for aid to the great American house in London of Peabody & Co.

Of all who have written or spoken upon resumption many have advised a reduction of imports, especially of luxuries, but not one has advocated an increase of exports—something more raised to sell, facilitating specie payments. The New York Chamber of Commerce, January, 1866, in an official statement, "appreciate the value of a large cotton crop in its influence upon the foreign exchanges, thus reversing the current of the precious metals and so securing an early resumption of specie payments." When the proposition was before Congress to raise the tax on cotton to three cents a pound many advocated the doctrine that the tax, as also duties on exports, would be paid by the foreigner, not considering such tax or duties would be a bonus to other cotton-growing nations of the world as against us. The late Thaddeus Stevens contended with earnest pertinacity that a tax of even ten cents a pound on cotton would be paid by the foreigner. That heresy is being pretty well exploded. Cotton has long been a great regulator in the exchanges resulting from foreign trade.

The exports of breadstuffs and provisions from 1821 to 1860 were	$1,006,951,235
Of raw cotton, same period	2,574,844,091
From 1847 to '60 our exports of the products "of the sea," of "the forest," of agriculture and manufactures were	1,352,079,868
Of raw cotton, same time	1,489,859,591
Of breadstuffs and provisions, same time	642,124,702
Of same for year ending June 30, 1860	45,271,856
Of raw cotton for year ending June 30, 1860, 1,752,687,640 pounds at 11 cents	191,806,555

When General Sherman's army was lying at Atlanta the writer addressed President Lincoln a letter, in September, suggesting a movement of the army so as to hold Savannah river, when, military protection being given to all the country to the westward of that river, a cotton crop might be raised in 1865 of 3,000,000 bales, two-thirds of which being exported would give us specie payments by the summer of 1866. As the proposition of that letter was kindred to the present plan of an increased export of cotton by which to restore specie payments it is here inserted. The following is a copy of that letter:—

WASHINGTON, Sept. 19, 1864.

TO ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President of the United States:—

SIR—The following paper is submitted most respectfully:—

PROPOSITION—MILITARY AND FINANCIAL.

1. To have General Sherman extend his line from Atlanta to Mobile or Pensacola, or if he can to Savannah river, to include all Georgia. Then all the country to the west of such line would embrace the most of the cotton region.

Financial—Let things be so shaped as to have perfect military protection and security given to this cotton region while it is cultivated in cotton next season so as to produce 3,000,000 bales at fifty cents a pound, or $200 a bale, gold price, is $600,000,000; two-thirds of which can be exported, $400,000,000. The natural effect will be to knock exchange to or below par, giving a tide of gold flowing from Europe to the United States. A further result—specie payments without the stringency of curtailment of the paper circulation, always producing such great pecuniary disturbance.

Admitting this price should fall considerably below fifty cents per pound the same general results will prevail. So large a volume of exports in addition to our present volume cannot but produce these great beneficial and financial results.

Number of cotton plantations which raised five bales and over in 1860:—

	Plantations.	Bales.
Alabama	16,100	997,978
Arkansas	2,175	367,485
Georgia	14,578	701,840
Louisiana	4,205	722,215
Mississippi	15,110	1,195,699
Tennessee	4,948	227,450
Texas	2,262	405,100
North Carolina	2,327	145,514
South Carolina	11,522	353,400
Total		5,198,077

A. PENFIELD.

The letter was handed to Commissioner Newton, of the Agricultural Department, to hand to President Lincoln, urging upon the attention of the Commissioner the agricultural importance of the plan, who took a deep interest in it and stated subsequently that President Lincoln was much interested with the letter.

Neither General Grant nor Sherman in his official report at the close of the war makes mention of any plan, as contemplated by either of them, of a march to the sea prior to the date of my letter to President Lincoln.

The derangement of the labor question and things generally in the South in the spring of 1865 rendered impracticable the planting of cotton to much extent that year. The country may double this year its crop of cotton of 1868, and thus 4,380,000 bales at current rates will be worth, in currency, $591,300,000. The late monthly report of the Agricultural Department states that in Georgia there have been several instances where 1,200 pounds of ginned cotton have been raised per acre. Names and localities are given. Fertilizers and careful culture, it is stated, were used. At current rates 1,200 pounds of cotton is $500 per acre for the cotton.

I take the imports and exports of the United States for the year ending June 30, 1868, as a guide for making some calculations for the year ending June 30, 1870:—

Gross imports, 1868		$359,706,500
Exports, cotton	$152,782,810	
Gold value of same, according to rule of Mr. Delmar	145,143,670	
Domestic gold exported	83,746,161	
		228,889,831
Leaving as the amount of all other exports to pay for imports		$130,816,669
Of the cotton crop of 1869, export, say 3,500,000 bales, 1,575,000,000 pounds, at 20c., in gold		315,000,000
Deduct, say amount of cotton and gold exported 1868, above		228,889,831
This sum will be the return current of gold, over and above the cotton and gold exported in 1868		86,110,169
Add product of mines (no gold export)		75,000,000
In Treasury		100,000,000
In Banks (Comptroller of Currency's report January 1, 1869, $29,626,750)		30,000,000
Gold circulation in California		50,000,000
This sum, besides all that may be hoarded by the masses to bank on		$341,110,169
At two, in paper, for one is		682,220,334
At three, in paper, for one is		1,023,330

Can we produce the 2,000,000 bales of cotton more in 1869 than in 1868 and so give the 3,500,000 bales for export? What are the inducements? A crop of 4,380,000 bales at thirty cents a pound in currency will give for the crop, as before stated, $591,300,000. The large crop of 1859, 5,000,000 bales, occupied but one and a half per cent of the lands of the cotton zone in the United States. In these lands are vast resources for commanding gold—far greater than the yield of the gold mines themselves. Very nearly $1,500,000,000 capital is invested in Europe connected with the cotton trade and cotton manufacture for the health and clothing of the world's population, and ready to take every pound of cotton we can spare. Before the war England's imports of cotton from the United States were eighty-five per cent of her total import.

The labor necessary to grow the 4,380,000 bales, 1,500,000 "hands," is close at hand, for which liberal wages may be afforded. Less land in corn and more in cotton, turning more of the laboring force on the latter, would be wise. From the late monthly report of the Agricultural Department it appears that four of nine cotton States yield each a larger crop of corn, 1868, than the average of New York and Pennsylvania—26,000,000 bushels; and that the nine cotton States produce 232,828,000 bushels, being per State equal to the average of New York and Pennsylvania above, and the nine States an aggregate of more than one-third of all the other States. So much corn can hardly be needed for bread and to feed stock. Corn at forty dollars a year per acre is not so good as cotton, a bale, at $130 a year per acre.

Never were circumstances so propitious to induce a large crop of cotton to be grown as this year, and this being done specie payments follow quickly and inevitably. But a tiger is crouching. Our bonds held abroad may follow in the wake of the gold current, and some check should be imposed on too great a rush at once. There is further urgent need that we should grow larger crops of cotton and thus diminish the volume of gold and silver exports to Egypt, India and China to pay for cotton from those countries. Not a dollar of the precious metals that goes to these countries ever returns. Our Consul General at Alexandria, in an official report in 1863 or 1864, states that the export of the year's crop of Egyptian cotton for the year was upwards of $70,000,000 in value. Egypt's staple export had for many years been an inferior quality of wheat, worth annually five or six millions of dollars. At the high prices of cotton during our war she changed from wheat to cotton, even importing, to some extent, her food. Such a revolution is unparalleled in the annals of agriculture. Of the vast sums of the precious metals going to the East Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles, a delegate from the United States to the Paris Exhibition and also to the Paris Money Conference, in 1867, in his report of the Money Conference, makes these statements:—

"The heavy drain of silver from France during the last fifteen years amounted to $750,000,000, principally to the East Indies. Fortunately for France and the commercial world, the surplus gold of the United States was at hand during these fifteen years, ready to be received, steadily filling the immense vacuum caused by this great export of silver. Within this brief period we discern a mass of gold, in the aggregate exceeding [illegible], moving across the Atlantic from the United States, as well as and still larger volume of [illegible] pouring [illegible] Australia upon the surrounding Oriental waters, and at least one-half finding its way to London; another golden mass of $620,000,000 crossing the British Channel into France, while the great counter current of $565,000,000 of silver, largely derived from France, is seen flowing out of England and up the Mediterranean on its way to the ever-absorbing East."

A careful English statistician stated lately that in seven years, from 1861-7, £103,000,000 ($515,000,000) in gold and silver went to the East. In every aspect the inducements are great and the prospects most encouraging for growing a large cotton crop this year. In the face of stocks everywhere declining weekly, of very high prices and still rising, it is more likely that the crop in quantity will exceed than fall short of our estimate. Specie payments being once resuscitated the country will breathe easier. A. P.

HOTEL DE HORSE.

It was a smart and observing youth who in his school days chose "The Horse" for the subject of his first composition and wrote:—"The horse is a noble animal. He draws loads. We could not git along without the horse." He might have gone further, however, and asserted that the horse is an aristocratic animal, for such he is, as we will at once proceed to show.

In every great city like ours the equine portion of the population may be divided into three classes—namely, the aristocratic class, the middle class and the lower class. This classification, it will be remarked, corresponds in name and number to that into which sociologists usually divide the human family. But, then, there is no slight analogy between the life of a horse and the life of a man, and for that reason if for no other, the classification herein made ought to meet with general approval.

It is not the present purpose to consider the intellectual or emotional nature of this useful equine servant. Whether he has his hates, his loves, his vanities and his ambitions matters but little, although Rarey, and later Professor Hamilton, have shown that he has the two first named passions, and in such quantity that they are capable of a considerable degree of development. There is one thing certain, however, and that is that some horses are aristocratic in every horse sense of the term. Dexter is one of them—the most famous, perhaps, of the whole class. Lantern is another. In fact, the class is too numerous to name all of its distinguished members. Of course it does not fall to the lot of every aristocratic horse to win celebrity either "on the road" or "on the course." Fast legs are not the property of all of them and every one of them is not favored with a handsome shape. But they are all aristocratic, nevertheless, and evidently believe in "blood." In many cases the aristocratic horse is owned by a gentleman of aristocratic tendencies, and this congenial relation between the owner and the owned undoubtedly exerts an aristocratic influence over both.

HOW THE ARISTOCRATIC HORSE LIVES

is a subject full of deep interest to the animal himself, if to no other creature on the face of the earth. As men differ in their modes of living so do horses. It is not to be presumed for a moment that the horse who belongs to the aristocratic class can be made contented with such living as that which is experienced by the members of the middle class, and surely not by that other grade of horselife which is still one degree lower in the scale. The fact is that the aristocratic horse is only satisfied when he fares sumptuously and enjoys all the luxuries that greenbacks can purchase. Like his owner, his tastes are refined and he refuses to derive full satisfaction either from oats or water unless he is favored with a handsomely furnished apartment, filled and surrounded by a sufficiency of light and ventilated on most scientific principles. Of course the aristocratic horse who belongs to the millionnaire has nothing to find fault with, so far as his food and residence are concerned. His affluent master is seldom stingy in the use of stamps which go to purchase comforts for his faithful, valuable and aristocratic animal. His own comfort is scarcely thought of more than is that of his horse, for which he paid, perhaps, the pleasant little sum of $5,000. Somebody may remark that the wealthy owner who constantly shows so much regard for his horse does so more out of consideration for the amount of ducats which the animal represents than for the horse himself. But we are disposed to treat such an insinuation lightly, even if we do not pronounce it a wilful slander. The millionnaire's aristocratic animal lives as it ought to,

IN PRIVATE QUARTERS,

and these are, in most cases, gotten up with every regard to the improvements of the nineteenth century, so far at least as they relate to stabling and other horse matters. There are horse residences in this city which will astonish any curiosity seeker who may visit this metropolis. Take Bonner's horse palace, for instance, or Fellows', Belmont's, or anybody else's of the same sort. In fact, it would not be going far from the truth if we were to designate some of these places horse parlors or horse drawing rooms. At these luxurious abodes of the aristocratic horse every desire of the animal is gratified. Does he want a new blanket of the most costly quality? He gets it. Does he want a change of harness as men usually want a change of linen? He gets it. Does he want a new hay rack? He gets it. Does he want a new curry comb? He gets that, too. The fact is that the aristocratic horse commands, through his owner, a vast amount of money and makes every use of it calculated to improve his happiness on earth and smooth his trotting course to that land where all good horses go.

There are many animals of the class now under consideration, however, who are not favored with owners worth their millions or even their hundreds of thousands. Some of their owners live at hotels and keep no private stables. They therefore permit their aristocratic "bloods" to take up their residences in

THE HOTELS DE HORSE,

which are to be found in various sections of the city. It should not be supposed that these places are fitted up with Brussels carpets, mirrors and other splendors which make up the *tout ensemble* of a man parlor. Horse parlors and man parlors are very different things. At the same time the aristocratic horse knows what a parlor ought to be, and sees to it that it is constructed and furnished in a manner in perfect keeping with the social aspirations and culture which are his, and his only. His experience with first class men is to him a source whence he draws many valuable pleasures, as well as his full support, and these to the horse which is conscientious as well as aristocratic are always received with gratitude. To him, therefore, the thing next best to living in a horse mansion is to live in a hotel de horse, where meals are served in the rooms (stalls, we ought to say), and where every attention is paid to the accommodation and comfort of guests. Let us describe one of these

MODEL HORSE BOARDING HOUSES.

In West Thirty-first street, between Sixth and Seventh avenues, is located what is pronounced by gentlemen said to be competent judges one of the best model stables in the city. The building is three stories in height and extends through the block to Thirtieth street. Accommodations are ample enough to lodge and board a hundred horses. The stalls are constructed in the latest approved style, and every modern improvement is to be found in the various departments of the hotel. Racks for blankets and other "fixins'," rollers to prevent the animals from cribbing, and every other requisite go to complete the furniture of each stall, whether it be an open or a box stall.

It is in the

BOX STALL

that the aristocratic horse is to be found. This is a horse parlor indeed. Imagine a large apartment—say fifteen by twenty feet—in which, in all the glow and pride of his aristocratic blood, stands the haughty horse. Before him are the "dishes" which constitute his "table" furniture. These are an elaborately wrought (that is, for a horse) bowl, from which he drinks his Croton punch; a rack in which is served the items of his bill of fare; a soft, newly-made bed of downy (it is downy to him) straw; a full supply of blankets manufactured out of the finest horse clothing material, together with some other articles of furniture not necessary to mention. This parlor, which is a sleeping apartment as well, is lighted and ventilated in the most thorough manner. In it the aristocratic horse resides, shut in from the outside world of middle class animals, with whom he never deigns to associate and relative to whom he scarcely ever—if, indeed, ever at all—gives a single serious thought.

At the hotel we are describing is

AN IMMENSE ELEVATOR,

which runs from the first to the third story. Every horse that steps upon this at once "gets high," in other words, he "goes up," becomes "elevated," and lands away up stairs. Usually he goes up with a carriage attached to him, or comes down in the same harnessed condition. This elevator is considered a "big thing" as a hotel de horse convenience, and is said to save not only a great deal of labor but also much room and no little expense.

ANOTHER EXTENSIVE ESTABLISHMENT WHERE HORSES BOARD

is in West Thirty-sixth street, near Sixth avenue. This is also a three story building, which is constructed in the most substantial manner. This hotel has 100 stalls, eight of which are boxes, or parlors, wherein the most aristocratic of the equine boarders eat and lodge. As in the case of the place above described, this boarding house is well lighted, well ventilated and well drained, so that the comfort of the boarders may be fully secured. There is no elevator here, however—a fact which probably makes the place less aristocratic than the Thirty-first street hotel.

Some very handsome stables are in process of completion in West Fifteenth street, between Sixth and Seventh avenues. They are to be opened about the first of April under the appropriate name of the "Boulevard Boarding Stables," and will offer inducements in the shape of all the modern improvements to gentlemen who may desire to secure excellent hotel accommodations for their horses during the summer.

HOTEL CHARGES.

There is one advantage which the horse enjoys over man. His living does not cost him near as much as man's costs—that is, the living of a man who supports an aristocratic style. At most of the hotels de horse the boarding prices are uniform and range from thirty-five to forty dollars per month. The forty dollar boarders are the occupants of the boxes, while the thirty-five dollar animals make the [illegible] of the family circle, or what is commonly called [illegible] stalls. These amounts include feed, attention to harness and carriages, and every other necessity of the boarding situation.

Out in New Jersey, at a little place called Union Town, is located

THE HORSES' WATERING PLACE.

Of course none but aristocratic horses can afford to avail themselves of the advantages of such a retreat. The two lower classes of animals are not permitted to enjoy the salubrity of the Jersey climate and the seclusion of the Jersey rural districts, wherewith to cure their spavined limbs or restore their broken wind. At the place under consideration the wealthy animal fares most sumptuously, lives in boxes when the weather demands it, and dines on the greenest grass in those seasons of the year when grass is good for the horse. Veterinary surgeons attend here, and under their care many invalids have been restored to health, and yet although this place combines the advantages of a watering place with those of a hospital, the cost of living is considerably less than at the hotels in the city. The prices charged per month for board fall as low as twelve and only reach twenty dollars. In connection with our consideration of this subject we feel bound to say a few words about the

MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASSES

of horse society. The middle class, although well taken care of and usually kindly treated by their owners, do not live in as fine apartments as their stuck up relatives, the aristocrats. They are not permitted to occupy box stalls and are obliged to put up with simply comfortable accommodations. So far as their "feed" is concerned, however, they generally are quite as highly favored as the class which stands one degree above them.

As for the lower class, it must be said that their fate is truly hard. They are not only overworked, as a rule, but are obliged to put up with the most miserable accommodations. Scanty food is often theirs, and if it were not for Mr. Bergh, who seems to be their only friend, their cup of misery would be full indeed. Let us all pray for the speedy amelioration of their condition, and when we move in that direction let no vain aristocratic horse say "neigh."

THE IMBROGLIO IN THE INDIANA LEGISLATURE.

Meeting of the Democratic Bolters—Proclamation of the Governor for an Election to Fill Vacancies.

The secession of the democratic members of the Indiana Legislature last Thursday, leaving that body without a quorum for the transaction of business, has decidedly complicated legislative matters in that State. The Indianapolis correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette* (March 5) gives the further proceedings of the bolters, of course from the radical standpoint. The Governor of Indiana has already issued his proclamation ordering writs of election to be issued for the purpose of filling vacancies:—

The democracy, with a view to giving a strong impetus to the movement inaugurated by the resignation of enough members of the Legislature to break a quorum, called a mass meeting of those persons opposed to the ratification of the suffrage amendment, to be held at the old theatre to-night. It was announced in the party papers, and large posters were scattered over the city, announcing that the meeting would be addressed by republicans and democrats, without respect to late party associations. The people were frantically called upon to rally, without regard to party. A band of music was hauled about the streets this afternoon and again to-night.

The meeting was composed of not more than 100 persons—old democratic hacks and martyred Senators, and perhaps fifty republicans, who took back seats to look on. It was run exclusively by the rankest copperheads.

A number of despatches were read from the darkest democratic half of the State, representing everybody hilarious over the course of the Senatorial martyrs.

The Governor has issued the following proclamation:—

TO THE PEOPLE OF INDIANA:—

The present session of the General Assembly has been rendered almost fruitless of good results by the resignation of seventeen Senators and thirty-seven Representatives, thereby leaving each House without a quorum. No appropriations have been made for the ordinary expenses of the benevolent and other institutions of the State. Hence a special session of the General Assembly at an early day is a necessity.

I have, therefore, this day issued writs of election to the Sheriffs of the several counties in which vacancies have occurred by reason of said resignation, directing elections to be held on the 23d day of March, 1869. For the purpose of making known the order of said elections, and of indicating my intention to convene the General Assembly in a special session at as early a day in the month of April as may seem to be practicable, I have thought it expedient to issue this proclamation.

In witness whereof I have hereto set my name and caused the seal of the State to be affixed in the city of Indianapolis, on this, the 3d day of March, 1869.

CONRAD BAKER, Governor.

Both Houses of the Legislature met and adjourned again to-day, according to the requirements of the constitution, in order to save the acts passed just before the bolt. The appropriation of $75,000 to pay the expenses of the Legislature has been exhausted, leaving a large number of the republican members out in the cold, some of them having drawn nothing from the first.

FOREIGN SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

The library of Timour has been discovered in the India House in London, in which are some extraordinary works relating to the biography of Mohammed.

The *Journal des Commaissances Medicales* of Paris publishes an interesting paper by the late Professor Schœnbein, of Basel, on "Hydrocyanic Acid," commonly called prussic acid. The presence of this acid may be proved when in somewhat considerable quantities by different tests, but Professor Schœnbein's method will detect the millionth part of a drop, even when mixed with water or volatilized in the atmosphere. For this purpose a test paper is prepared by dipping it into a solution of three grms. of guaiacum rosin in 100 grms. of rectified alcohol; after immersion the paper has lost none of its whiteness. Another solution is made separately of ten centigrams of sulphate of copper in fifty grms. of distilled water. When the operator wishes to make an experiment he cuts the paper into slips and moistens one of them with the solution of sulphate; he then brings it into contact with the water or air tainted with the acid, upon which the paper will turn blue immediately. Suppose one drop of hydrocyanic acid be diluted with 100 drops of water; take a drop of this mixture and let it fall into an empty glass jar of the capacity of twenty litres; then hang up a slip of the test paper described in this vessel and close it up. In the course of a minute or two the paper will have become blue. Now as twenty litres are equivalent to 20,000 cubic centimetres, and as there are twenty drops to each, it follows that one drop is to twenty litres as unit is to 400,000. But the drop in question only contained a hundredth part of acid, so that the test paper has revealed the existence of one forty-millionth part of the substance. And experience has shown that a similar result would be obtained if the air were charged with only one 120 millionth part. In water the action of the test is not quite so rapid. By means of this test paper medicinal liquids or syrups containing small quantities of hydrocyanic acid may be subjected to qualitative analysis. It is enough to lay a bit of this paper on the mouth of an open vessel containing laurel water, or even simply orgeat—in the composition of which there always is a bitter almond or two—the blue color will invariably characterize the contents.

Baron von Reichenbach, the celebrated experimentalist on animal magnetism, died recently at Leipsig, at the age of eighty-one.

The Minister of Public Instruction, in France, has addressed a letter to the Academy of Sciences inviting that learned body to lend him its co-operation in suggesting such measures for observing at the antipodes the passage of Venus across the disc of the sun in 1874, as would be free from the errors which had attended the account of a similar phenomenon in 1769. The government is prepared to do everything in its power to enable the savants who propose to go to Van Dieman's Land to accomplish the voyage with the greatest comfort to themselves and advantage to science, and the Emperor, furthermore, desires that the expedition should not confine itself to mere astronomical inquiries, but study every question of scientific interest in those regions. M. Duruy, accordingly, submits queries:—1st. As to the number of gentlemen it would be required to make the observations; 2d. The stations to which they should be sent; 3d. The nature of the instruments to be employed; 4th. The practicability of utilizing the journey to those remote latitudes to determine the position of the stars in the southern hemisphere; and, finally, the propriety of inviting foreigners to confer with the French envoys as to a uniform mode of research.

In the *Journal des Connaissances Médicales* Dr. Caffe shows that there are at present in Paris 1,567 physicians, 295 officiers-de-santé and 547 apothecaries. To these must be added midwives, unauthorized foreign physicians and quacks of every description. It has been ascertained that, while the law that instituted officiers-de-santé and allowed apothecaries to exercise medicine did so with a view of affording cheap relief to poor districts, these classes, on the contrary, seek out for their scene of action the very richest arrondissements of the capital. The same journal compares the Jardin des Plantes of Paris with the Botanical Garden at Kew, and finds the former decidedly inferior. But the Kew garden costs 500,000f. a year, while the cost of that of Paris does not exceed 98,400f., both for payment of salaries and stock. Since 1836 the sum allotted to the botanical part has not been increased. In the *Journal d'Agriculture Pratique*, M. Gay announces that by manuring a field with mould resulting from the putrefaction of box-leaves, he has succeeded in ridding the ground of the so-called white worm, the larvæ of the cockchafer. In his work *La Science en Ballon*, M. de Fonvielle states that, during his last ascent on board the balloon Neptune, which started from the Conservatoire des Arts-et-Métiers, he derived the greatest advantage from the shadow of the balloon, which aided him in determining, by means of the mariner's compass, the angle of his route with the meridian. If this shadow be observed at noon in a place the latitude of which is known, the sun's declination may be obtained with extraordinary precision.

FOREIGN SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

An interesting archæological discovery has just been made near Durfort, France. A miner, searching for a lode of lead in the side of a mountain came upon a grotto, the mouth of which had been blocked up by stones. It contained a quantity of petrified human remains imbedded in concretions from the rock. A flint knife and a hatchet were also found, and one skull was remarked to have been formerly pierced with an arm of the same material, a portion of which had broken off and was still remaining in the bone