

trading and manufacturing together. We may safely assume all fear of emancipation, and the number of people employed in the mining business in Canada, in proportion to the number employed in other occupations. Our kindred on both sides of the Atlantic—in England and America—will see to it that our export of manufactured goods to foreign countries does not grow to such an extent as to create grounds for any alarm on that objection. We may trust them for that, and need give ourselves no anxiety about the matter. An excessive development of manufactures in Canada—the condition of having too large a proportion of our people employed in them—may be looked for about the time yet to distant when the flying airship of some future inventor starts with her full quota of passengers on the voyage to the moon. About that time, as the almanac says, look for a terrible attack in the predilections of the day, lamenting the neglect of agriculture and the alarming rush of the Canadian people into mill and factory. Seriously, however, we have enough real dangers to engage our attention, without conjuring up one that is wholly imaginary. With the general public, perhaps the most effective argument in favor of Chinese immigration is the assumed religious one. We have heard a reverend gentleman, well known in both Canada and the States for his eloquence, make this a part of his subject in a popular lecture, strongly urging that the Chinese should be allowed, nay, invited, to come into America in numbers unlimited. He treated Chinese immigration as if promoting it to the best of our ability were a duty incumbent upon Christian people, in obedience to the command in the last two verses of St. Matthew's Gospel—the marching orders, as the Duke of Warrington called them, for all Christian ministers. It surely is not irrelevant to point out that the command is to go and convert the heathen in their own homes; while the idea of bringing them into our country, in order to convert them, is not suggested in even the slightest degree. East of the Mississippi and the Red River, among the Protestant clergy and religious public generally, there exists a vague, indefinite notion that, by bringing millions of Chinese into the Republic and the Dominion, we should in some way or other be promoting the cause of Christianity. No experience whatever, at all events none worth mentioning, during the last twenty years in California, or during the last half dozen years in British Columbia—can be cited in favor of the view that bringing the Chinese in amongst ourselves may be a successful means for their conversion. Some Chinese converts, of the scholar class, have been educated in American colleges, but where is the record of conversions among the laboring class, who seek employment in mining, railway building, laundry work, and domestic service? Even when living under the shadows of our churches, that class remain heathens, they die heathens, and their bones are carried back to their native country. The blank impassability of the Chinese character forms a dead wall of obstruction, against which our utmost persuasion is powerless. The Chinese do not argue religion with us, as the Hindus are so ready to do, they are simply so stolid and unimpressionable that we cannot make anything of them. Our failure to convert the Chinese resident amongst us is the dearest failure—the most utter, blank failure—in the whole history of Christian effort to convert the world during eighteen hundred years. We must believe in the fulfillment of prophecy, that the whole earth, China included, will some day be converted; but evidently the bringing of the Chinese into America has proved itself to be emphatically not the appointed means towards this great end. Further, if conversions have been almost unknown among the laboring class of Chinese living in America, while their numbers have been comparatively small, how would the case stand were their numbers greater? If a few thousands form a stolid, unimpressionable phalanx of heathenism, against which our efforts are but as beating the wind, what success would we have with a mass of millions of the same character? The larger the mass the greater its power of cohesion, as a mass by itself, and the greater its power of resistance to all outside influences. If an attempt at conversion we have failed—so utterly and conspicuously failed—with a few thousands, shall we succeed with millions? This is a most important consideration, and it deserves to be considered. Nor is the matter one that will brook delay. Those who ought to know say that there are now about five thousand Chinese in the Pacific province; not a very alarming number, it may be said, but still large in proportion to the whole population of our own race. But to this the significant intimation is appended that three thousand more are expected to arrive early in the ensuing summer, which would be an addition at once of sixty per cent.; an ominous circumstance, suggestive of the rash to Canadian soil that will take place when California shall have been closed against the invaders. If we sleep on this question now, there will be a rude awakening for us some day. Prevention is better than cure; let us strangle at its birth what threatens to become a giant evil for Canada, ere yet it grows to giant proportions, and becomes too strong for us. If it be allowed to grow unchecked, then, years after this, ourselves or those who are to come after us will wish most earnestly that we had been wise in time. Shall we take no lesson at all from the bitter experience of California and the Australian colonies? Shall we remain bewitched by the goody-goody talk of tea-table sentimentalists, and the visionary conceits of Free Trade cosmopolites, of whom it has been truly said that they are the friends of every country but

their own. Let us be wise in time, we say, and save this new Dominion from a tremendous calamity, the magnitude of which is in comparison with which is justly impending. Besides the objections already referred to, there is another which we may as well anticipate. It may be said very many thousands of the black race have been brought hither from Africa and there are now in North America some few millions of them who are nominally Christian—dead as much as heathens, just as the majority of ourselves. Bringing the blacks to live here has resulted in their conversion as a mass, they quickly drop their heathenism, and "take" with great alacrity to revival meetings and such like. Why not do the same for the same plan for the conversion of the Chinese? The reply to this is twofold and perfectly conclusive. First, the inability to convert the influences of the black when living in a Christian land only renders more startling and more striking the utter failure of such influences on the Chinese, making it all the more clear and certain that, as we have already said, immigration into our midst is not the appointed way for the conversion of the latter, by whatever other agency this is to be brought about some day. Secondly, to whatever extent the gigantic crime of stealing men from Africa to make slaves of them in America may have been overruled by Providence for ultimate good, we do not continue it, it has ceased under the reprobation of the civilized world. We who are the heirs of the crimes and blunders, as well of the glorious achievements of our ancestors, have determined that there shall be no more importations of native Africans into America, or anywhere else in the world, indeed, as far as we can prevent it. By the common consent of civilized peoples the thing has ceased, we would not continue it any more, even did it promise the conversion of every heathen black man carried away from Africa. Against a thousand plausible arguments, the fact that we have felt compelled to cease from this thing is conclusive. Join to this the other fact, that residence in a Christian land utterly fails as a means of converting the Chinese laboring class, and the last support of the assumed religious plea for Chinese immigration falls to the ground.

**BRITISH CRIMINAL STATISTICS.**

From an analysis of the report of the British Commissioners of Prisons, we learn that on the 31st of March, 1880, in all the local prisons of England and Wales, there was a united population of 15,352 males and 3,627 females. Of these, 32 males were under 12, 339, between 12 and 16, and 3,181 between 16 and 21, making altogether no less than 3,551 who were under 21. There were also 6,854 between 21 and 30 years of age, so that 58.9 per cent of the whole male prison population were between 16 and 30 years of age. As the proportion of males in England and Wales between 16 and 30 is only 41.4 per cent of the total male population, the proportion of younger criminals to the total number is largely in excess. The number of criminals between 30 and 40 years of age is not much more than half the number between 21 and 30, and is about equal to the total number of those who are 40 years of age and upwards. The statistics showing the proportion of female prisoners in the various periods of life tend to show that there is some truth in the common belief that women who have once adopted a criminal life are less likely to be reclaimed from it than men. The proportion of male to female prisoners between the ages of 16 and 21 is 4,181 to 604; but while in the case of men between 41 and 60 years of age the proportion has fallen off about one-half viz., to 1,569, the number of female prisoners remains almost stationary, being as high as 534. The proportion of male prisoners diminishes after the age of 30 by nearly one-half, while the proportion of female prisoners of the more advanced age remains nearly stationary. The report remarks that a similar inference may be drawn from the records of previous convictions of the two sexes. Taking the returns of several years, it appears that out of a total average of 124,013 males 82,372 had never been committed before, and could not therefore be regarded as habitual criminals. On the other hand, of 49,194 females, as many as 25,320, or more than one half had been committed before, and were probably leading a life of crime. The statistics of crime reveal the fact that there has been a marvellous change for the better during the last forty years. In 1849 the number of prisoners committed for trial in the United Kingdom was 54,892, the number convicted was 34,030, and the number acquitted was 20,776. The population in 1840 was 20,487,000. In 1879, with a population of 34,155,000, the number of criminals in the United Kingdom was only 23,450, the number of convictions was 16,822, and of acquittals 6,587. It is true, no doubt, that the comparison thus suggested is modified by the fact that many offences are now dealt with summarily which were in 1840 sent to trial, but, on the other hand, it cannot be denied that the increased efficiency of the police, both in burghs and counties, now brings to light a multitude of offences which were formerly wholly overlooked. Perhaps the most startling facts disclosed by a comparison of our criminal statistics are those which refer to Ireland. In the year 1849 the condition of Ireland was something deplorable—famine and disease had diminished the population by about a million and a half, and the number of persons sent to trial for criminal offences was 41,989. Of this number 21,203 were convicted, and 20,787 were acquitted. In 1879 the total number of criminals was 4,362, not much more than a tenth of the number thirty years before, and of these 2,207 were convicted and 2,155 acquitted.

**SOME CARDINAL LAWS OF TRADE.**

It is a fact as yet but imperfectly understood by the masses, that the interests of humanity with their necessities, that a system of cooperation should exist between the laborer and his customer. It is a common error to suppose that the average laborer in the manufacturing industry of the whole world, and his fellow-laborers in every country, are not so much interested in the well-being of the customer as the customer himself is in his own. The laborer and the customer are both interested in the success of the customer, with a view to the employment of his labor, and then the laborer has to be employed in the production of goods, which he sells to the customer. The laborer's work is not complete until he has sold his goods. In other words, some laborer must have a way of disposing of his goods, selling them to a very narrow margin of profit—or at least some time to hold his goods, and then to take up the average of the market, the first market being an open market, where the goods are sold to large buyers, with a profit margin of 10 per cent, and excellent credit or cash buyers, to whom only low prices are to be named, but there should always be some government reason why prices are not for their benefit. They should buy larger than their ordinary—it is an object to sell them—of course should be a special understanding for cash. The trade of such men is desirable for but one consideration. If there is too little or no profit on sales to the customer, they should only be bought when a jobber desires to unload quickly part of a stock of which he had to buy a large quantity in order to get the goods at a certain low price. It is no credit to a young or small house to sell these sharp close buyers, for even if a turn of the market has given them a profit the sale of the same parcels in three or four small lots might bring that number of steady customers of a class that would prove paying regular buyers. Let these men on whom little or no profit is to be made go to your competitors to buy, unless you see that their competitors watch their purchases and desire to buy where they do, in order, as they think, to better compete with them, and even in this case, this risk is encountered either all must be sold on so low a basis that trade is not worth doing, or else you help bring one class down to ruin by charging them full prices, and giving, at the same time, the weapons to their competitors to fight them with, and at an advantage at that. After a constituency has been established by a jobbing house, the position of that house becomes one of brokerage only on the business to be done. Each year a certain amount of goods are to be bought by the jobbing house, which are to be distributed through their customers to the consulting public. It is for the interest of the merchant—in order to get back his principal, with the interest, brokerage, and any fortunate enhancement of value of merchandise—that the goods shall have been well bought—according to our previous showing—that they shall be sold to the disbursing retailers at such prices that even in competition of the strongest kind their friends and customers may have held their own trade, and, if possible, added to it, and yet made sufficient profits to give them in turn their due from the handling and risk they have assumed. If a jobber and his salesman select their customers according to the manner suggested in our last, and pursue this course of treatment, there will be few cases of loss by bad debts. A man well trained in his business, of good personal character and habits, who has his own money at stake, will be the man who will trust his goods out only in safe places, and he will be a safe custodian of the merchant's credit. The jobbing merchant should give his customers the benefit of all the information he can obtain which will affect their welfare. His travellers should be posted in all this news, and it should be their duty to impart it in a manner that would insure its being acted upon. There should be a degree of confidence between merchants and their supplying jobbers. Merchants on the inside generally know what is coming long before it gets out to the trade. The only kind of confidence enjoyed now is that which comes in to beg an extension of credit when things have already gone badly. If advice had been taken earlier in the day from the same source this phase might have been left out altogether. This style of merchandising may be thought Arcadian and impracticable in the ordinary business of our day, but I have good reason to know that it is practiced in many localities, and is found to work with charming effect, even in this day, when the contrary is the rule.

**THE AMERICAN PROTECTIONIST.**—We have received the first number of the *American Protectionist*, a weekly journal, published in New York, the aim of which is indicated by its title. Our new contemporary makes a capital beginning, both editorially and selections being exceptionally good, and interesting because they deal with live topics of the day. Among the contributions is a very good one on the general question of Protection vs. Free Trade, over the signature of Dr. Edward Young, formerly chief of the Statistical Bureau at Washington, recently employed for a time in the Departments of Finance and Customs here, and now resident in New York. The new journal has our best wishes for its success, and we add the following notice of it from the *New York Tribune*—

"The title explains the purpose of the *American Protectionist*, a weekly paper, the first number of which appeared yesterday. Its basis of action is the belief that the best interests of all classes and of all sections demand a careful and scientific treatment of the tariff question; that the welfare of the people is not a proper subject for doubtful experiments; that facts, not theories, must be considered; that the public sentiment is in favor of a policy strongly national; that the Free Trade system, so indispensable to the industrial life of England, would be fatal to the development of our manufacturing capabilities; that even our agriculturists shall always have to rely principally on our home markets for a profitable sale of their products, and—so our exports of any commodity whatever, except cotton, are insignificant compared to the home consumption of that same commodity—that the permanent well-being of every trade is essentially dependent on the solid prosperity of all the others." One of its leading features will be the publication, from time to time, of the prices paid for labor in every kind of industry throughout Europe and America. To this particular and highly interesting subject, Dr. Edward Young, ex-Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, has given considerable attention; and his contributions relating to this important factor in international exchange will not prove the least valuable. It is needless to add that this new journal has the best wishes of the *Tribune*.

**EDITORIAL COMMENTS.**

The village of St. Gabriel, Q., has voted to establish a factory to be a bonus to a new cotton company established here.

During the year 1879, 4,999,999 bushels of the product of which was 18,771,999 pounds of spirits were consumed by the distillers of the State.

The net increase of the earnings of the Pacific Railway for the year 1880 amounts to \$1,000,000 over the earnings of 1879. In 1880 the earnings were \$19,999,240, in 1879, \$18,999,240.

The weekly returns of the Grand Trunk Railway and its railways continue to show a steady increase. The growing prosperity of the Grand Trunk is favorably commented upon in English journals.

American inventors are wonderfully prolific of new devices. The secretary of the Western Railway Association states that the United States Patent Office has issued 167,933 patents since 1865, or an average of 11,812 per annum for 16 years, there being on the 1st December, 1880, 197,753 letters patent still alive. The secretary cautions inventors to use great care in selecting a competent solicitor to prepare their applications, adding that a majority of the patents issued from the patent office are either insufficient, incompetent, or invalid.

According to the annual report of WALLS, FARRAR & CO., the production of precious metals west of the Missouri River, including British Columbia, for the past year, were—Gold, \$33,622,182, silver, \$30,265,351, lead, \$5,752,399; copper, \$808,000. Colorado leads with a total valuation of \$31,284,989; California follows with \$18,276,166; Nevada, \$15,931,169, and \$6,450,933, and Arizona, \$4,472,471. In comparison with the product in 1879, California shows an increase in gold of \$674,579, and a decrease in silver of \$35,873; and Nevada shows a total falling of \$3,968,093.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* quotes from Messrs. FAY & ABELL'S review of the gold and silver markets during 1880, the following statements of the imports and exports of gold during the last five years:—

1875.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
£21,244,470	£15,251,051	£20,700,000	£13,100,000	£2,100,000
16,219,570	19,908,095	15,000,000	17,000,000	11,800,000

The imports of gold from Australia and the United States for the same periods are also given:—

AUSTRALIA.				
1875.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
4,011,100	6,266,000	5,200,000	3,200,000	3,300,000
UNITED STATES.				
4,353,740	2,089,000	867,000	600,000	800,000

It will be seen that practically imports from Australia have ceased for two years, and have dwindled away greatly from Australia. The effect on the money markets of Europe cannot fail to make itself felt. Indeed, it is being felt already.

The *Globe* of Saturday last, in a long review of the trade of Toronto, said:—"The year just closed shows a marked improvement in the commerce of Toronto. In all branches of business there has been a steady growth, and our citizens have before them what would seem a prosperous career. The trade of the latter part of the year especially has been wonderfully free from speculation booms, and the condition of trade is apparently healthier than for a number of years past. The large number of business houses that we are forced to the wall by their creditors, and those who are on the advantage of the bankruptcy law before its repeal in April, left the field comparatively clear of weak houses. We are pleased to note the attempts made by manufacturers and wholesale merchants in shortening credits. Although they have but partly succeeded, this step in the right direction will eventually bear its beneficial effect. The 'cash' system, or, thirdly, wherever adopted, has proved the most satisfactory, and we look forward to the time when it will be generally enforced by our merchants."

Reviewing the British export trade for last year, the *St. James's Gazette* says:—"The exports during the past year show an increase in value over 1879 of £31,279,000, or equal to 16½ per cent. Almost every article we produce shows additions, but the principal gains have been achieved by the cotton and iron trades. In cotton goods the augmentation amounts to £11,790,000, while iron and its cognate industries have an aggregate increase of £11,303,000. Pig iron shows an additional value of £2,067,000; rail-iron, £2,207,000; bar, plate, and hoop iron, £2,087,000; and the plate and cast iron, £1,179,000. Mill work and machinery of all kinds have increased by £1,900,000, and hardware by £490,000. In some respects the iron trade is the most profitable of all our industries, and the above large increase is therefore peculiarly welcome. Every pound of cotton is imported, and we gain is just the difference between the raw and manufactured article; but in the iron trade the returns are nearly altogether gain, very little foreign material being imported to mix with native ores. Coal also shows a large and satisfactory increase, the additional value being £1,172,000.

The following statement in a British journal respecting the financial condition of Australia is based on official returns: Containing as they do a total area of upwards 3,000,000 square miles, and carrying a population estimated at the close of 1879 at 2,715,762