

to open a transit route through Nicaragua by means of a railroad from ocean to ocean. Examining the coast to see if any harbours existed which could be made available for the termini of a transit route, he found an anchorage thirty miles from Grey Town capable of being adapted to the purpose required. On the Pacific side only one port—Realejo—existed of sufficient size to meet the requirements of the case. In February 1862 he laid the matter before the Royal Geographical Society, and in the following year sailed from Southampton, accompanied by Messrs. Salmon and Collinson, civil engineers; and they were enabled to penetrate the primordial forest as far as the lake Nicaragua, a distance of 75 miles, and to make a rough section of the track. Having ascended the river Rama, a distance of 35 miles, the party separated—one of the engineers, with a party of Indians, going eastward, the other westward, Captain Pim himself proceeding up the river San Yuam, across the lakes Nicaragua and Managua, to Realejo. The next point was to obtain a charter; but this was a matter of great difficulty, as the States of San Salvador and Nicaragua were at war, and in the latter State itself a revolutionary party had risen against the government. The Americans also, on strong commercial and political grounds, opposed his schemes; and at last he was informed that a charter could not be obtained till the re-assembling of the Congress of Nicaragua; and, as that would not take place for several months, he rejoined his engineers, and was gratified to learn that there were no insurmountable engineering difficulties in the way of the proposed railway. [See Section G for Mr. Salmon's remarks hereupon.] The rest of the paper was occupied with a description of the advantages to be expected from the construction of the proposed railway. Amongst these one was that it would open a connexion with a country more adapted than any other in the world for the growth of the best cotton.

From Tientsin (North China) to the Capital of Manchou Tartary. By Captain George Fleming. —The paper described a journey performed by the author in company with Mr. Meakin in 1861. The travellers did not adopt the Chinese dress, as they were advised to do, believing that it was not only difficult to maintain the disguise—the discovery of which might lead to consequences of a very serious nature—but that they would consult their own safety, and produce a good impression in the natives by appearing in the English costume, and making no secret of the object of their journey. The explorers passed the Great Wall of China, from which they extracted a brick (which was exhibited), and gleaned much valuable information about the country, which information is admirably incorporated in the paper.

Sir Harry Parkes said that he concurred in the propriety of Englishmen travelling in China in their own national costume. Owing to the recent treaty regulations, Englishmen could now travel through the length and breadth of China; and they could do so with great security if they avoided those parts where the Chinese themselves would be likely to fall into danger from banditti.

A few Notes on Sir Charles Lyell's "Antiquity of Man." By J. Crawford, Esq., F.R.S.—An abstract of this paper (read before the Ethnological Society in April last) will be found at page 389 of the last volume.

On the Physical and Mental Characters of the Negro. By Dr. James Hunt, President, Anthropological Society.—The author said he had been collecting facts upon the subject for another society; but he was induced to bring it before the Association from the fact that it had never been brought before a scientific audience in England. In discussing the question, he would have nothing to do with anything but the full-blooded, woolly-headed, typical negro, to the exclusion of the half-breed. The object of the paper was to determine the position which one well-defined race occupies in the genus *homo*, and the relation or analogy which the negro race bears to animated nature generally. He had selected the negro race, as it seemed to be an intermediate form between the highest and lowest existing races of man. In discussing the question, he had nothing to do with the origin of man, for analogies did not necessarily include relationship. The skin and hair are by no means the only things which distinguish the negro from the European, even physically; and the difference is greater still mentally and morally. The skeleton of the negro is generally heavier, and the bones are larger and thicker, in proportion to the muscles, than those of the European. The bones are also whiter from the abundance of calcareous salts. The thorax is compressed; the leg is longer than in Europeans,

but is made to look shorter on account of the ankle being only between 1½ in. to 1¼ in. above the ground; the heel is both flat and long. Burmeister has pointed out the resemblance of the foot and the position of the toes of the negro to that of the ape; and many observers have noticed that the negroes have frequently used the great toe as a thumb. After pointing out several minor particulars, in which the negro differs from the European, and quoting the opinions of several writers on the capacity of the negro cranium, the paper recommended caution in accepting such capacity of the cranium as any absolute test of the intellectual power of any race. The brain of a negro has a smoky tint, not found in that of a European. The hair is essentially different; and the voice resembles sometimes the alto of a eunuch—there being a peculiarity about it by which he can always be distinguished. Dr. Louis Büchner, after summing up the peculiarities of the negro, says they exhibit the most decided approach to the ape. Other distinguished anatomists and physiologists had expressed a similar opinion. The assertion that the negro only requires an opportunity for becoming civilized is disproved by history. The African race have had the benefit of the Egyptian, Carthaginian, and Roman civilization, but nowhere did they become civilized. The many cases of civilized blacks are not pure negroes; but, in nearly every case where they had become men of mark, they had European blood in their veins. In the West Indian Islands it has frequently been observed that all the negroes in places of trust which require intelligence have European features. Negro children are precocious; but no advance in education can be made after they arrive at the age of puberty—they still continue mentally children. It has been said that the present slaveholders of America no more think of rebellion amongst their full-blooded slaves than they do of rebellion amongst their cows and horses. That was because the tranquillity of negroes in their approach to civilization resembled the content of domestic animals. From all the evidence brought forward, the writer of the paper saw no reason to believe that the pure negro ever advances further in intellect than an intelligent European boy of fourteen years of age. After citing authorities to prove the low psychological character of the negro, the paper continued:—"We now know it to be a patent fact that there are races existing which have no history, and that the negro is one of these races. From the most remote antiquity, the negro race seem to have been what they now are." The writer could see no evidence to support the opinion of some writers that the negro had degenerated from some higher form of civilization. Everywhere we see the European as the conqueror and the dominant race; and no amount of education will ever alter the decrees of Nature's laws. The general deductions he would make were—First, that there is as good reason for classifying the negro as a distinct species from the European as there is for making the ass a distinct species from the zebra; second, that the negro is inferior intellectually to the European; third, that the analogies are far more numerous between the negro and the ape, than between the European and ape. There was in the negro that assemblage of evidence which would induce an unbiassed observer to make the European and negro two distinct species.

Mr. Galton said that among the negroes of Africa he found more abject, superstitious, and brutal tribes than elsewhere in the world. When the chiefs die, the tribes generally disintegrate and disappear, afterwards combining with other tribes. The tribes of Africa are remarkable for their rapid formation and rapid dissolution. The chiefs are often of alien descent; and most of the large kingdoms are ruled by men of the blood of the Arabs and other Asiatics. Negroes do not lie at a uniform dead level; he thought that occasionally the race had produced clever men. At the same time, he did not admit that this fact covered the more apparent fact of the slavish and brutal condition of the vast majority of the African race.

Mr. W. Craft said, although he was not a pure African, he thought he was black enough to say a few words. With regard to their common origin, he believed that black and white men had all had one Creator, and were descended from a common parent. With regard to the woolly hair and thick skull of the negro, he believed these had been given them by a kind Providence to protect them from the effects of their sultry climate. Mr. Craft then proceeded to give a number of instances in which the native African had been educated into a high degree of mental

superiority. He concluded by quoting the well-known lines of Cowper:—

Fleecy locks and black complexion,
Cannot forfeit nature's claim;
Skins may differ, but affection
Dwells in white and black the same.

Mr. Carter Blake said, if the woolly hair and thick skull of the negro were given to him by a bountiful Providence to fit him for living in a tropical climate, the inhabitants of Brazil were suffering great injustice, for they had neither woolly hair nor thick skulls. With regard to the philanthropic element, he thought it ought not to have been introduced into the discussion.

The reading of this paper and the discussion were many times interrupted by hisses and counter-cheers, in a manner more suited to a political than a scientific audience.

SECTION F.

On the Opening and Extension of Durham University Academic Endowments. By Mr. J. Haywood.—The following is an abstract:—After stating the history and giving details of the constitution, the author referred to the recommendations of the Commission under the Act of 1861, and to the opposition given by the Dean and Chapter to the ordinances drawn up by the Commissioners. The paper concluded as follows:—"Parliament would probably sanction with readiness well-devised plans for the advancement of the higher education of the country, if more public interest were expressed in favour of forming educational endowments. To the inhabitants of Newcastle, the vicinity of a university, with a revenue of £7000 a year, must be of importance; and, if the proposed appointment should be carried into effect, the examinations for half of the open scholarships annually vacant might be conducted in Durham; and the competition for the remaining half of the scholarships might be carried on in Newcastle. Under such a scheme there would be an amount of £600 per annum in 20 open scholarships of £30 each a year, tenable for two years, and a subsequent amount of £1000 in 20 open scholarships of £50 a year, tenable for one year, which might be devoted to the encouragement of literary and scientific studies in this great centre of industry and intelligence."

A long and interesting discussion ensued, in the course of which the Rev. Professor Temple Chevallier eloquently defended the University, and stated that the blame appeared to have been applied to the Dean and Chapter because they objected to illegal proceedings. Whatever blame was to be attached to the Dean and Chapter, they were exercising their proper and legitimate authority. The University itself united in opposition, and the result was that the Commissioners were found to have exceeded their powers. Their ordinances were returned to them; and it appeared to him they would have acted a more dignified part, and one more likely to give satisfaction, if they had pocketed the affront and gone on with making some new ordinances. They did not like to find themselves in the wrong. He could assure every person who had spoken and given expression to a desire that the best should be done for the University of Durham, that their wishes would be met with perfect sympathy from those with whom he was acting. He was not a member of the Chapter, and therefore did not know precisely what had been done; but he did know that the Dean and Chapter, with the concurrence of the Bishop, were arranging a scheme for the future management of the University. That scheme would, in a very considerable degree, be founded upon the best of the recommendations of the Commissioners themselves.

On the Coventry Freehold Land Society. By Mr. C. H. Bracebridge.—The author describes the working of the Society, which has been wound up in consequence of the great depression in the principal trade of the town, during the last four years.

On the Mortality in Lancashire during the year ended at Midsummer 1863, being a continuation of a paper read before the Section at the Cambridge meeting, by Mr. Frederick Purdy.—The cotton famine was felt in several of the Lancashire Unions, through a marked increase in pauperism, at the beginning of 1862. It increased till the Midsummer following, when the distress had assumed most serious proportions, which continued to augment still more rapidly up to December, when the maximum of destitution was reached; thence to Midsummer last it has steadily declined, leaving, however, the unions principally affected by a rate of pauperism which is between three and four times their normal proportion. The deaths in Lancashire during the year ended Midsummer were compared with the average of the three years ended at Midsummer 1862. The average was 61,263; last year's deaths

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SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1863.

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PAMPHLETS ON POLAND.

WE have before us two Pamphlets on the Polish Question antagonistic to each other. The one is the pamphlet entitled "*L'Empereur, La Pologne, et L'Europe*," published in Paris some six weeks ago, and purporting to be the expression of the views of the Government of Napoleon III. on the Polish question at that time. The other is a reply to this pamphlet, also in French, but published at St. Petersburg, whence copies have arrived within the last few days. It is entitled "*Réponse d'un Russe à la Brochure Française, L'Empereur, La Pologne, et L'Europe*." Who the Russian pamphleteer is does not appear; but, doubtless, the pamphlet is, in some sort, the counterblast of the Government of the Tsar to the blast which it presumes to have been blown in Paris by the direction of the French Emperor. Between the two pamphlets there is struck out such an aggregate of *pros* and *cons* on the Polish question as the judicial mind of England may like to consider. And, as the Polish question is with us no question of party-politics, but pre-eminently a question yet shaping itself in the national thought, and soliciting whatever information may help the conclusion, some abstract of the views of the two opposed pamphleteers may here be given.

The French pamphleteer begins with an apology for the French Emperor for not having plunged in hot haste into a war for the emancipation of Poland. "Doubtless," he says, "had his Majesty the Emperor consulted only the impulse of his own heart, a decisive word would long ere now have been spoken." But, in politics, the author adds, the heart must be ruled by reason; and though here, as in private matters, duty is the first consideration, yet the choice of the right time for action is of supreme importance. Now the Polish question, he proceeds to say, is a vast question. "If the suppression of this nation in the last century changed the axis of the political world, its re-establishment now would affect the existence of almost all the European states." None of the anti-imperialist parties in France, at all events, have a right to twit the Government of the Emperor with

dilatatoriness in the Polish cause. The Legitimists! what did they do for Poland in 1815 or afterwards? The-Orleanists! what, with all their promises, did they do during their tenure of power in France? The Republicans! in 1848, when Lamartine represented them, did they not, equally as in 1794, when Robespierre represented them, back out of all real concern with the Polish question in mere bows and general phrases? Napoleon I., and only he, did anything for the Poles. He did not do so much as he wished to do, and he repented at last of not having done more; but no one did so much. And good-will to the Poles is hereditary in his dynasty. Still, considering the complex relations of the Polish question—considering that the three powers of Russia, Austria, and Prussia might make common cause against any movement for the reconstruction of ancient Poland—it behoved the present Emperor of the French to proceed with care. He had proceeded with care! He had been especially considerate of the feelings of Russia. Both before the Crimean war and after did he not do everything possible to show his real friendliness to the Tsar's government? But the Polish insurrection of the present day is a great fact. It cannot be ignored; and least of all by the French Emperor, the heir of the first Napoleon. "When there is a fire *within* a house, the owner may, if he likes, claim the right of extinguishing it himself; but, when the flame gains the roofs, and the whole house is burning, then not only the nearest neighbours, but every one, has the right to concern himself in the matter, and to see that the cause of the fire is made to disappear." The Polish insurrection is no longer a small revolt which Russia can trample down; it is a great rising of a people. In what relation shall the French Emperor place himself to this great fact? Even were there no hereditary zeal for Poland in the heart of the French people, even were remembrance of Poland not an obligation of the Napoleonic dynasty, even were there no duties on the part of France to the Catholic religion oppressed in Poland, would not the ruthless conduct of the Russian Government towards the Poles, before and since the rebellion, furnish the answer? "In truth, there is not here only a question of nationality, but, before all, a question of humanity. It will not be without danger to Europe as a whole if certain rough-shod modes of government, which are not European at all, but Asiatic, should be acclimatized within her bounds." England has, on the whole, behaved well in the Polish question; Austria, considering her difficulties, has also behaved well; only Prussia, under some infatuation, has boggled and blundered. France must act! The method of diplomatic remonstrance is not yet exhausted (*was* not, we should now say, for the pamphlet is six weeks old); but, should that method fail, France must act! And Russia, with her recollections of the Crimean war, ought to know that action would not be difficult. "An Anglo-French-Swedish fleet might operate in the Baltic at the same time that an Anglo-French-Italian fleet might appear in the Black Sea. One would desire to avoid bringing the theatre of the war into the centre of Europe. The frontiers of the Russian Empire towards the West would have to be strictly guarded, and this would be the part naturally devolving on Austria and Prussia." On Prussia—ah! there would be the rub! But, in this Polish question, one would be as considerate as possible of German, and even of Prussian feeling. The sole demand we would make on Germany would be to "borrow a passage so as to reach Russia through Prussia." Let the Russian Government ponder all this. Let not the Tsar and his admirers count on staving off the question by diplomatic delays till the winter, so as to be able to deal with the insurgents in the season of snow and frost when no help from France or the West could reach them. Let them remember that the battle of the Alma was won on the 20th of September, and that it was on the 14th of October that the French conquered at Jena!

Such is the French pamphlet. It is not so ably written as some other Napoleonic pamphlets we have seen. But we note in it two things which we have noticed in all Napoleonic pamphlets—the absolute and systematic personification of all France in the individuality of the Emperor; and the entire absence of every form of that idea of non-intervention which figures so much in the politics of England. In fact, Napoleonism means intervention; and perhaps it is because this is its meaning that it now represents France.

Our Russian pamphleteer, in point of style, comes after his opponent like a lumbering wooden waggon after a light gig. Nevertheless, he does say something substantial and to the point. First of all, he pretends to disbelieve—in irony, we must suppose—that the pamphlet to which he replies has any sanction from a potentate so wise as the Emperor of the French. He will treat it only as the production of an anonymous publicist! Then he complains of the too great rapidity of this publicist. He is so rapid that he does not even settle his terms. He has written a pamphlet in favour of the reconstruction of Poland, and he does not say what that Poland is which he desires to reconstruct. Is it the Poland of 1772, with Galicia, Posnania, and the nine Russian provinces? Or is it the Poland of 1815? Or, finally, is it a Poland of new concoction, comprehending the Duchy of Warsaw, with Lithuania, Volhynia, and the Ukraine? Giving his opponent the benefit of supposing him to have had the most feasible of the three notions duly in his mind—to wit, the second—the Russian pamphleteer joins issue with him on that supposition. The reconstruction even of such a Poland he avers to be a chimera. "In politics, more than in business," he says, "it is indispensable, before undertaking any great affair, to count the cost." And what would be the cost of an enterprise on the part of France, or of any European coalition of powers, for the reconstruction of Poland? It would be enormous, the pamphleteer says. The whole Russian nation, he says, are unanimous, as if sworn by a great oath, to back their Tsar in maintaining the integrity of the Russian Empire as it now is. Against a Russia thus unanimous all the rest of Europe would dash in vain. Napoleon I. marched against Russia at the head of twelve peoples, with 600,000 men under his command; but with how many men did he return? Admit, then, that there were now a coalition against Russia on the Polish question, and admit that this coalition were formed under the most favourable circumstances possible, "still one would have to consider that a nation of sixty millions, electrically excited as Russia is, and guided by a sovereign of immense popularity, would bring to the attack a resistance of which the siege of Subastopol and the war of 1812 can give but a very feeble idea, seeing that these sixty millions are free men ready to fight, that they are a people elevated by knowledge, and who have been fretted and irritated in the most sensitive fibre of their national being." Here certainly is defiance for all Europe; but, in the rest of the pamphlet, it is evidently intimated that there is no belief at St. Petersburg that Great Britain, or Austria, or any other European power—except France—cares so much about the Polish question as to put itself in jeopardy or go to any expense on account of it. France, says the writer, is the only nation that goes to war for an idea. "*Mais encore*," he adds, "*y a-t-il idées et idées*;" and the idea of Polish independence is not an idea of the right kind. To prove this there is the usual cut-and-dry allusion to the anarchy and utter incompetence of the Poles while they yet were a nation; and the equally usual and cut-and-dry assertion that the present Polish outbreak is the mere outbreak of a few hundreds of thousands of Polish nobles, unsupported by the real Polish people, and depending only on encouragement and the chance of assistance from without. Alexander II., it is maintained, was doing everything