

This extensive and elaborate work, which we are sorry we have been unable to notice sooner, belongs to the deservedly popular series of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library, to which it is a valuable accession. It would be in vain, in the brief space we can devote to this department of our labors, to attempt to enter into anything like an analysis of the varied and comprehensive details indicated in the title of the work as above quoted. We shall therefore confine our notice to the most obviously interesting feature of the subject at the present time—the importance of our possessions in North America to the mother country, as an outlet for our redundant population, as a market for our home manufactures and colonial produce; and as the source whence we are deriving several valuable commodities in return. This will best appear from the following summary of statistics contained in these volumes. And first of the available extent of the country. Independently of Newfoundland and the Hudson's Bay Territory on the one hand, and the Bermudas on the other, the strictly available territory of Lower Canada is 115,000 square miles; of Upper Canada, 141,000; of Nova Scotia, 15,600; of New Brunswick, 25,900; of Prince Edward Island, 2,100; making a total of 299,600 square miles. The area of Great Britain and Ireland is only 121,853 square miles, being little more than a third of this amount. Only a very small proportion of this enormous extent of territory has as yet been brought into cultivation. It is estimated that at the present time the number of acres of land cultivated in Lower Canada is 2,200,000, in Upper Canada, in 1835, it was 1,308,000; in Nova Scotia, 400,000; in New Brunswick, 250,000; in Prince Edward Island, 100,000, making a total of 4,258,000, or 6650 square miles, being little more than one-fiftieth part of the whole. What a prodigious field is here left open for the enterprise and industry of future generations of our countrymen; and what increasing accessions of opulence and power may Great Britain hope to derive, from the maturity of her infant colonies in North America, unless in her weakness and folly she allow these invaluable dependencies to be "lost or given away!" The staple export of the colonies will ultimately be their agricultural produce, in exchange for our manufactures and the produce of our other colonies. In the present stage of their cultivation, and from the annual influx of emigrants, as well as from the duty of five shillings imposed on their wheat, in addition to the expensive freight across the Atlantic, the export of grain is considerable; and their staple commodity is now, and must continue for an indefinite period to be, their valuable timber, which is at present almost exclusively imported into Great Britain and the West Indies, although a new market is opening in the Atlantic States, whose own forests have been exhausted, and who will therefore throw themselves permanently upon the Canadas for their supplies. The timber trade will of course decrease in the ratio in which agriculture increases; but ages must elapse before the stock can be exhausted. The exports of timber for 1832 amount to £963,309; in 1833 to £950,385; in 1834, to £1,237,632; and in 1835, to £1,249,387. The next article of commerce, and scarcely inferior in importance to the timber trade, is the fishery, which in 1832, produced £792,824; in 1833, £916,084; in 1834, £849,973; and in 1835, £952,163. Of this department of colonial commerce, dry cod forms the chief item, the largest shipments being made to Portugal, Spain, and the British West Indies. The train oil, which forms the next commodity in importance, is sent almost entirely to Britain. The produce of wheat, which is exported almost exclusively to this country, had decreased in 1834-5, being £99,000, and 120,000 respectively, whereas in 1831-3 it amounted to £177,000 and £174,000. The third article in importance is ashes, which in 1832, amounted to £201,717, but had decreased in 1835 to £181,506.

The total exports, under the heads of timber, fishery, produce of land, ashes, coals, and miscellaneous, for 1832, was £2,450,889; for 1833 £2,613,537; for 1834, £2,611,018; for 1835, £2,706,694. Of which Great Britain took, in 1832, £1,423,598; in 1833, £1,376,333; in 1834, £1,429,768; in 1835, £1,479,177. The West Indies stand as the next best market; Ireland appears as the third; the United States only as the fourth. Turning to the imports in British North America, which include almost every article beyond the necessaries of life, we find manufactured goods, for 1832, £1,870,924; 1833, £1,831,659; 1834, £1,413,577; 1835, £1,831,001. Tropical produce, wine, grain, provisions, coal, salt and miscellaneous, making the total value of imports, including manufactured goods as above, for 1832, £3,457,720; 1833, £3,579,905; 1834, £2,900,415; 1835, £3,316,724. From the statement of countries whence these importations took place, we find Britain set down in 1832, for £2,209,653; 1833, £2,267,235; 1834, £1,777,238; 1835, £2,330,243, being nearly two-thirds of the whole.—We find also returns of the numbers of emigrants during the seventeen years from 1821 to 1837, inclusive, giving a total of 346,269, equal to the whole combined population of Glasgow and Paisley at the present time. The smallest numbers appear in 1823-24-25; the largest in 1830-31-32-34. By far the greatest proportion of emigrants during the last nine years has been from Ireland. These interesting facts are calculated to impress us with a high idea of the present value and future capabilities of these important colonies; and if they do not also open our eyes to the interest we have in consolidating our power in British North America, and knitting still more closely our dependencies there to the mother country, by the strong bonds of British sympathy and Christian principle, they leave us no room to wonder that the cupidity of the

United States should be excited to take advantage of our apathy and neglect.

It is unnecessary to state that the history of British America—from the early struggles of the Aborigines with the superior numbers and military skill of their European conquerors, down to the present period when Britain has been called to assert her dominion, first against the rebellion of a portion of her own colonial subjects, and then against the invasion of a neighbouring power—is intensely interesting. With this history, including a general view of the country, an account of the native tribes, and the topography of the Lower Province of Canada, the first volume of the present work is occupied; and we refer particularly to the details of the late insurrection and invasion as the most complete that have yet appeared.—The second volume is devoted to a description of the commercial, social, and political condition of Canada and of the maritime provinces. The third is occupied with an account of the Hudson's Bay Territory, the subject of emigration and a general summary. The scientific reader will find the general interest of the work enhanced by the able and interesting notices of the zoology of British America by Mr. Wilson, of its botany by Dr. Greville, (alike distinguished as a christian philanthropist and a man of science,) and of its geology by Professor Trail. The geography of the country is illustrated by maps, and the scenery and costume by wood engravings. The statistical and commercial information, a large portion of which has never before been laid before the public, will give the work a peculiar value in the estimation of the mercantile community. The whole is got up with the usual good taste of the publishers.

CANTON.—This city is situated in the province of Kwang-Tung, (called by Europeans, Canton,) which is of all others best known to foreigners. The area of the province is 79,456 square miles, and it has a population of 19,174,030. A viceroy is the first officer. The city is by the Chinese commonly called Sang-Ching, or "the provincial capital." It is situated on the north bank of the Canton or Tigris River, and is built somewhat in the form of a square. The square described by the walls is intersected by a wall running east and west; and the division on the north, which is the largest, is called the old, or Tartar city; while the smaller, on the south, is called the new, or Chinese city. Both together are about six miles in circumference, and there are twelve gates in the outer walls, and four in the intersecting one. The suburbs are still more extensive than the city. "On the west," says *China Opened*, "they spread out in the form of isocetes right angled triangles, opening to the north-west, having the river on the south, and the western wall of the city for its equal sides. On the south they occupy the whole space between the wall and the river; the eastern suburbs are less extensive. The streets and canals are very numerous, and the river, which near the city, has some large rocks in its centre, visible at low water, is covered with boats of every description. Most of the dwellings are built with brick; the houses of the poor, and a great many of those belonging to their Tartar lords, consist of mud. Many of the streets are very narrow, the houses low, and, if belonging to rich individuals, surrounded by a wall, through which we pass to the house. Opulent individuals live in large buildings, like Chinese palaces. On the roofs are terraces, which serve the double purpose of drying clothes and walking." A strict watch is kept in the streets during the night, and there are bamboo towers on the roofs, whence alarm of fire or other accident may be readily given. The police require to be vigilant, so numerous are the robbers and vagrants. There are 30 colleges for promoting learning, but only a few students. The Buddhists, who have also maintained their sway over the city, have here numerous temples, of which the Hae-chwang-sze on Ho-man Island, is the highest. "It has three colossal statues, representing the three Budhas of the past, present, and future, and an immense number of smaller idols, all gilt or gorgeously decorated, and a row of apartments for 175 priests. Here, too, is the mausoleum where the ashes of the deceased saints are annually deposited. To a foreigner, a sacred pigstye, with more than ten fat and old grunters, is, perhaps, the greatest curiosity." There are about 124 other temples in and about Canton, and, adds our author, "the number of priests is said to amount to 3,000, and of the nuns to 1000, and the maintenance of these pernicious establishments is said to exceed annually one million of dollars. There is also a mosque in the city for the accommodation of 30,000 Mahomedans. In one of the factories there is a British chapel, and there are three hospitals, which are wretchedly supported."

The commerce of Canton may be traced to an early date. The province was known, under various names, at a remote period of Chinese history, but the Chinese monarchs did not turn their attention towards it till about 200 years before the Christian era. The founder of the Tsin dynasty, (Tsin-chehwang,) and the great universal monarch of China, pushed his conquests southward, and subdued Canton and other neighbouring provinces. This was the monarch who, in the vain hope of destroying the records of all but his own, caused all the ancient books to be burned; but the dynasty he had established was soon destroyed. His brother having caused his death, usurped the throne. Soon after, Chaou-to, who assumed the regal title, built the remarkable edifice called the seven storied Pagoda, which is still to be seen on a hill to the north of the city. This building is deserted, like the pagodas in general, but supposed to have a beneficial influence in keeping away evil spirits from their neighbourhood. Chaou-to afterwards retired to Cochinchina, and Canton became the place of banishment for disgraced statesmen. But even at that early period it began to rise into im-

portance. About the middle of the seventh century the Chinese annals relate, that vessels brought rare commodities to Canton from foreign countries.

The first Europeans who visited China by sea were the Portuguese. In 1516 a vessel from that country reached the islands at the mouth of the Canton river, and her voyage being successful, eight vessels were despatched on the following year. The Chinese, however, discovered that most of these foreigners were unprincipled adventurers, and even in the year 1520 a Portuguese ambassador at Peking was sent back, and eventually imprisoned and slain. The Spanish, Dutch, English, and other nations, followed the Portuguese successively, and by their mutual strifes and jealousies increased the contempt with which the Chinese had been taught to hold all foreigners. The English, says the last quoted authority, first turned their attention to China in the year 1576, but the vessels equipped were lost on their passage out. The next attempt to establish a trade here was in 1634, but the opposition of the Portuguese defeated for some years the object of this and other expeditions. In 1676 the East India Company succeeded in establishing a factory at Amoy, from whence they were driven away in 1680, by the contests of the Manchions, who had possessed themselves of the imperial throne, and those Chinese who resisted their government. In 1684, they were permitted to return to their factory; and there they remained until foreign commerce became restricted to Canton and Macao. They then established themselves at Canton, where their trade continued to increase, but with occasional interruptions, until the termination of their charter in 1833.

In Canton the manufactories are numerous, but no machinery is employed. "About 17,000 individuals, (says Gutzlaff,) women and children included, are engaged in silk, and 50,000 in cloth manufacture. About 7,300 duly licensed barbers are daily employed in shaving the head, and there are no less than 2000 physicians and quacks." There are 16,000 carpenters, and 7000 lapidaries. There are 18,000 boats, of various sizes, trading along the river between the city and Whampoa, an island where the foreign vessels find the nearest allowed anchoring ground. There are 1700 shops in Canton in which nothing is sold but firewood and Charcoal. There are daily slaughtered 24,000 pigs. The population, including those who live in the suburbs, and on board of 84,000 boats on the river, is estimated at 1,236,000.

The whole population is busily engaged in trade. The city has commercial connections with all parts of the Chinese empire, and with most countries in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The foreign factories where the merchants reside are situated in the suburbs, and are perhaps the finest buildings in the empire. They are of brick and granite, two stories high, in one row, and each containing four or five separate houses, joining each other. The names of these, as translated from the Chinese appellatives, are curious. They are "The factory of justice and harmony;" "the (English) factory that ensures tranquillity" (!) "the great and affluent factory," &c. &c.

Ships which proceed up the river must first obtain a permit and pilot at Macao. After their arrival at Whampoa, a security merchant, who must be a member of the Hong merchants, is engaged; he has to pay the duties and warrant the good behaviour of foreigners. They act as agents or consignees. The privileged company of Hong merchants constitute a body, and have a common fund levied upon shipping. They are, however, subject to heavy exactions by government, and frequently become bankrupts, when they are disgraced and exiled. They transact business expeditiously, but their system of mediation between the government and foreigners is decidedly bad. The whole trade is under the management of a Hoppo, (or superintendent of the customs,) an officer purposely sent from the imperial household at Peking. Besides measurement duty, import and export duties, foreigners have other charges, exactions, and bribes to submit to, to an almost equal amount.

The mouth of the estuary of the Canton river is entirely studded with islands, most of which are small, with the exception of Lantao and Hong-Kong. The British outer anchorage was recently at the Island of Hong-Chang, but, by the last accounts, had removed to the Tung-Hoo, higher up the river.

THE DOMINIONS OF THE VICEROY OF EGYPT.—The extent of territory under the dominion of Mehemet Ali is almost unknown in England. It far exceeds that of the mother country, and, if again added to the Turkish empire, would make it a more cumbersome machine than it was before; for people and territories, that never acknowledged the Sultan, or Mohammedanism, have been subjugated, and are now ruled by the Egyptian Viceroy. He wrung Egypt from the Porte, and has added to it the whole of Syria, a great part of Asia Minor, as far as where the Euphrates enters the Persian Gulf; all the Arabian Peninsula, except Muscat; in Nubia, Abyssinia, the ancient Ethiopia, with the plains of Sennaar, Kordofan; and as far as the foot of civilized man has followed the various wanderings of the Blue and White Nile, Mehemet Ali's power is more or less acknowledged. The extensive borders of the Red Sea, even beyond the Straits of Babelmandel, to the confines of Persia and the Indian Sea, with Candia, and the whole upper border of the Mediterranean, are now included in his dominions, and the great nomade tribes of the Bedawees of Petra, and from Bagdad to Medina, with a few exceptions, own him as their prince.—All this, greater even than the mighty empire of Sesostris, was conquered, and is now governed by the orphan boy, whose precarious living was at one time gained by the huxtering of tobacco,

but who now fills the throne of the Pharaohs and wields the sceptre of Zenobia.—*Wilde's Narrative.*

The hemp of Russia may be superseded ere long by the flax of New Zealand. It is believed, says the *New Zealand Journal*, that the labour of obtaining the latter in its coarse state, and the charges of importation, will be fully compensated by a price of £18 per ton here; the expense of dressing will be about £12 more, so that at about £30 per ton, New Zealand flax, in a state to supersede Russia hemp, will be delivered in this country. The price of Russia hemp, in 1839, was £45 per ton; it is now £36, and £40 may be deemed the average.

THEVING CROWS OF CEYLON.—I breakfasted at the fort with Lieutenant Dalgetty, part of which meal we were nearly deprived of by a crow that flew in at the window; but it was saved by the timely entrance of a servant. These birds are so audacious, that all persons who desire to be secure from their marauding excursions must be careful neither to leave doors or windows open unwatched. When the natives are carrying home baskets of provisions on their heads, they are frequently attacked by a flock of those voracious birds, who pounce upon the contents; nor will they desist from the work of spoliation, until the basket is set down, and they are literally driven from it by force of arms. The bold thieves plunder children still more mercilessly, actually snatching the food from their hands; and it is amusing to witness the art they use to dispossess a dog of a bone. No sooner has the animal laid himself down to enjoy his meal at leisure, than a predatory covey descend and hover over him; one more daring than the rest, alights beside him with the most unwelcome familiarity. The dog startled and annoyed, suspends his labours, and growls out his displeasure, but in vain; the crow advances with the same self possession of an invited guest, until, at last, the exasperated owner of the prize lets fall his bone, shows his teeth, makes an indignant snap at the pertinacious intruder, who dexterously eludes the bite which he had so cunningly provoked, while at the instant the dog's attention is diverted, another crow, which has been vigilantly watching the opportunity, seizes the coveted treasure and bears it off in triumph.—*Holman's Voyage round the World.*

THE BRIDE OF LAMMERMOOR TRAGICALLY ILLUSTRATED.—"A tragical event occurred a short time ago," says the *Quotadienne*, "at the theatre of Lucca, during the performance of *Lucia di Lammermoor*. A rivalry had been for a time existing between two of the performers, and a duel had even taken place, but they had been apparently reconciled; in the second act of the opera, however, during the combat, their former animosity revived as they thrust at each other, and the stage fight became a real duel, the public in the mean time applauding their earnestness without suspecting its cause. Suddenly the actor who was performing *Ravenwood* uttered a dreadful cry, for he had received a wound in the breast, and then fell dead upon the stage. The other actor was immediately arrested. The company, unwilling to appear again after this melancholy event, broke up on the following day, and the theatre remains closed."

CANNIBALISM IN PARIS.—The chief physician of one of the hospitals in Paris, having a few days since invited a great number of his medical friends to witness an anatomical demonstration of the liver of one of his patients who had died, and which, from its enormous size was an object of great medical interest, first regaled them with a copious and splendid breakfast. The breakfast being over, he sent a servant to the cellar to fetch the liver which he had placed there. In a few minutes he returned in a fright, and said it was no longer in the cellar. An inquiry took place, from which it appeared, that the cook, seeing more guests arrive than he had expected, and thinking that the liver which was in the cellar was that of a calf, dressed it in order to make up the deficiency of his provision. The feelings of his guests at the discovery were of the most envious disposition.

AGRICULTURE.—Sully, who was one of the greatest men France ever produced, used to say, that it ought to be the maxim of a good government to advance agriculture before manufactures, and to give to the latter only a secondary rank in the state. In vindication of his opinion, Sully used to say, that he even preferred the products of the soil, which could not easily be ravished from him, to those foreign conquests which occupy the attention of most governments, but which always excite resentment or jealousy. A large and increasing produce of the land (said he) ensures the liberty of the people, while it places foreigners in a sort of dependence; whereas the want of corn, the first necessary of life, induces a dependence upon foreigners, who can either furnish the commodity or refuse it. The produce of the land (continues he) cannot be consumed by strangers, but to the profit of the inhabitants, that is, by a traffic more advantageous than the possession of the corn itself; whereas the arts and manufactures may possibly be carried off by the artifices of rivals, and pass away, together with the artists themselves, into all the countries of the world.

The Maine Farmer says that people eat too much fine flour bread, for their health or pocket—that we ought to raise more Buck-wheat for flippers, and eat more of the old fashioned rye and Indian bread.

A HINT TO BELLES.—Lady Blessington says, that surely she ought to know, that "those who are formed to win general admiration, are seldom calculated to bestow individual happiness."