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THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

CONDUCTED BY FREEMAN HUNT.

VOLUME IX.

FROM JULY TO DECEMBER, 1843.

ONE YEAR

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ART. I.—THE SANDWICH OR HAWAIIAN ISLANDS:

WITH A REVIEW OF THE PAST AND PRESENT CONDITION OF THE POLYNESIAN GROUPS GENERALLY, IN CONNEKION WITH THEIR RELATIONS TO COMMERCE AND CHRISTIANITY.

THIS group has very generally, until within a recent period, retained the appellation bestowed upon it by its re-discoverer, Captain Cook. But of late, its true and more euphonious title, the Hawaiian islands, or "HAWAII NEI," pronounced, according to English idiom, *Harwhyee neigh*, is becoming more common, not only in standard works, but in maps and in charts. It is certainly desirable that the aboriginal appellation of countries new to the civilized world should be retained, if for no other reason, than that the indigenous population, after they may have disappeared before, or become absorbed in, the tide of modern civilization, should still yield a trace of their former existence, though it be but a name. The Hawaiian Court and Hawaiian Government are terms now well known in diplomacy; and during the present year a Hawaiian embassy has been received and acknowledged by the government of the United States, and the courts of England, France, and Belgium. It has been discovered that, unexpected by any one, except those zealous friends who have diligently watched and nurtured its growth, a nation, though occupying as it were but a speck upon the waters, asserts its claims, upon legitimate grounds, to the rights, titles, and immunities of the civilized world—that it has not only the desire, but the capacity to shroud itself beneath the folds of international law, and to rest its merits upon that palladium of national liberty. So successful has the embassy fulfilled the designs of its mission, that the United States, England, France, and Belgium, have either acknowledged their unconditional independence, or have engaged so to do. Diplomatic agents are to be appointed from each of those countries, to reside at the Hawaiian court; and in every respect are the Hawaiians, though but just emerging from the swaddling bands of childhood, to be respected as a free member of the community of nations.

Much of this good fortune is owing to their rapid advance in the arts of civilized life, their just and honorable course to all people who have visited their shores, and partly to their isolated and advantageous position in the North Pacific, which renders them the inn-keepers of that vast ocean. Under any one of the great naval powers, their situation would make them the law-givers and regulators of all commerce in their vicinity; but in neutral hands, the vessels of all nations meet in harmony upon common ground, with common privileges, and common interests. Consequently sound policy, as well as justice, dictated that they should remain independent, and that no one nation should there enjoy a monopoly of power or hospitality.

That a people who so lately were classed as heathen of the worst cast; who were charged with barbarously murdering England's celebrated navigator; with being pirates, and even cannibals; naked, barbarous in the extreme, and warlike, should, within so few years, cast aside their idols and their iniquities, and envelop themselves in clothing, and worship the one Jehovah, spurning and disgorging the vices and crimes of the past, and grasping and pressing forward to the virtues and progress which Christianity presented to their view, is indeed wonderful. It presents, in a strong view, the claim of man upon man—the savage upon the civilized—brethren all, though they differ in their gifts. Love has been found more cogent than force; and benevolence has accomplished brighter results in a short space of time, than centuries of warfare can exhibit. Commerce and Christianity have united in the good work—antagonistic in a few points, but often, despite of themselves, co-operating for mutual good. The history of our race hereafter will treat more of principles and their progress—of the advancement or retrogradation of mankind as one family, or members of a social community united by common interests, than of the squabbles of ambitious men, or disputes of boundary lines. Whatever adds to the well-being of the world at large, the expansion of commerce, and the regulation of trade, annually becomes of deeper interest. A railroad or canal, an opening of a new channel to mercantile prosperity or Christian benevolence, now awaken a deeper and more genuine sympathy than ever did the lordly baron, in his call for chivalrous or quixotic exploit. A steamboat or locomotive are the knight-errants of the present day. Whatever will serve to aid this progress of good, deserves perpetuation. Experience useful for the future, is to be gleaned from the past. The civil and moral revolution which has been silently but rapidly going on throughout Polynesia, is deserving not only of regard, but of study. In the present article, I shall endeavor to illustrate the general result of the action of civilization upon barbarism in that quarter of the globe, and also trace the various effects to their respective causes. In a succeeding one, it is my design to show the present commercial condition of the Hawaiian islands, their statistics, resources, prospects, &c. But no one can properly appreciate the change which twenty years has produced, without rightly comprehending the original condition of the South Sea groups generally, and the varied causes which have been in operation since, to effect this change.

Every writer, of late years, who has treated on this subject, has thought it necessary to dwell upon the enmity either existing or supposed to exist between missionaries and those more particularly engaged in commerce. If his tastes and connexions led him to favor the missionaries, his pages

were filled with eulogiums on their zeal, disinterestedness, wisdom, and purity, and with diatribes against the vice, selfishness, and violence of their opponents. If, on the contrary, he formed his ideas from intercourse with the residents abroad, he lauded in equally strong terms their liberality, enterprise, and intelligence, while he accused the missionaries of bigotry, worldliness, ambition, and many other bad qualities. Now in these, as in all partisan accounts, there is a mixture of truth and error; and the latter is particularly conspicuous in the high coloring which is given to the animosity which prevails between the two classes.

To present this subject in a proper view, I must draw the attention of my readers to the actual condition of the savages of Polynesia, before their character became modified by intercourse with foreigners. Then, by showing what causes have operated to effect the many changes which have since occurred, resulting in their present state of semi-civilization, we shall be able to judge how much of this can be attributed to commerce. It will also be necessary to advert to the missionary operations, and their results.

All the early navigators found the natives disposed to treachery and plunder; characteristics which have been repeatedly experienced, even to this day, by those whose duties or interests have led them to visit groups either wholly or partially unknown. When exceptions occur, they appear to be rather the results of fear and cupidity, than of a friendly spirit. A supreme selfishness dominated in the breasts of these savages, affording a painful contrast to the hospitality which the American Indian exercises towards those whose necessities are greater than his own. Tasman and Marion were attacked at New Zealand, Wallis at Tahiti, La Perouse at the Navigators, and Lieut. Hergest, of the *Dedalus*, with Mr. Gooch, the astronomer, were massacred at Oahu. Captain Broughton, of the *Providence*, lost several marines at Niihau in 1795—murdered from cupidity. As late as 1840, two of the officers of the United States Exploring Expedition were treacherously cut off at the Fijiis, evidently done with no other motive than to possess themselves of their arms and clothing. There is scarcely a group of islands which has not been the scene of some deplorable cruelty, at the commencement of intercourse with the whites. The first impulse of the natives, at the sight of a ship, appears to have been to surprise and capture it; and it has been only by repeated defeats, or prompt and efficient punishment, that they have been taught their own weakness. In a few instances, they regarded their first white visitors as gods, and as such revered them. While this opinion obtained, they were civil, obsequious, and hospitable. But this deportment was the result of their fear of disastrous consequences to themselves, should they offend the deified strangers, and continued no longer than their belief. They were kind or cruel, as their immediate selfish interests might direct. Even at this day, the Fiji islander considers the shipwrecked mariner and his property as lawful prizes—the one to grace his cannibal feast, and the other to gratify his vanity. No other right than that of the strongest or most artful is acknowledged. This spirit is not shown alone in their relations to foreigners. Selfish and cruel as these savages are towards strangers, they are none the less so to their own race. Navigators differ somewhat in their respective accounts of the various tribes they have visited, but not more so than would naturally arise from the different circumstances under which their acquaintance was made. No one can

peruse their pages without being convinced that the savages of Polynesia were, at the date of their discovery, a desperately wicked and sensual race. Incest and sensuality were universal, and produced no shame. Lying was not considered a fault. Child-murder was common, and not regarded as a crime. Human sacrifices were required by law. Cannibalism extensively prevailed. None were superior to theft. Cruelty was the boast of the warrior, and not even the ties of kindred were proof against treachery. Intoxicating, or rather stupifying drinks, were in daily use. Always at war, their vilest passions were ever dominant. Their chiefs practised the most grinding tyranny, and the common people had all the meanness and cunning of slaves. Their most attractive quality—it cannot be called a virtue—was a kind of easy and listless good nature, never to be depended upon, when any of their passions were called into play. If, indeed, a better disposition was sometimes displayed, and their dark characters occasionally enlivened by touches of humanity, they were sufficient only to redeem their claim to that title. And when we meet with individuals enabled by the force of their natural talents to rise superior to the common vices of their race, it marks but more strongly the degradation of the remainder.

If such, then, in plain reality, is their character, it must be worse than heathen corruption that could add anything to their vileness. Still, much has been said of the sad results which followed from the introduction of the vices and mal-practices of civilized nations among the simple inhabitants of these secluded isles—these guileless children of nature—but until some proof is adduced more cogent than the sighs of poetic sentimentality, the correctness of such an opinion must be doubted. In fact, so far from any deterioration having resulted from foreign intercourse, there is strong ground for believing that its influence has been decidedly beneficial.

The navigators who first became acquainted with the islanders, were generally men of character, seeking fortune and reputations by their adventurous voyages. Many were commanders of national expeditions. Policy, interest, and humanity, alike prompted them to secure the goodwill of the natives; and an exception to such a course is rarely to be met with. The names of Wallis, Vancouver, La Perouse, and Wilson, need not be mentioned to confirm this assertion. At times, indeed, unprovoked and treacherous attacks compelled them to severe but necessary measures of retaliation; but they were conducted in such a manner as to subserve at once the design of justice, and to forcibly impress upon the natives the power of their visitors, and their promptness to punish any aggressions. The difference in warfare, the distinction made between the guilty and innocent, the forbearance shown to the helpless non-combatants, and the care taken of the wounded, could not but produce favorable results in their minds. Useful advice for their future conduct was also freely given, presents judiciously bestowed, and the natural resources of their countries enhanced by the introduction of valuable plants and animals. A desire for foreign productions was awakened, which could be gratified only through those whose intellectual superiority they were thus unconsciously acknowledging. In this manner, they acquired the principles of a new policy, and learned that their true interest lay in maintaining a fair commerce with the strangers. The vessels flocked to their shores, and articles of foreign manufacture were exchanged for the pro-

ducts of their soil. Newly awakened wants were gratified, and instead of meeting the white man as a foe, they greeted him as a friend. Such was their first step towards civilization.

After a short time, some few adventurers, attracted by the love of license, and the natural pleasantness of the climate, left their ships, and took up their residence on shore, where they exercised an important influence over the natives. They were, indeed, generally of the lowest class—in the words of Byron,

“ Men without country, who, too long estranged,
Had found no native home, or found it changed ;
And, half uncivilized, preferred the cave
Of some soft savage, to the uncertain wave.”

Almost any person born and educated in a civilized country, however low he may be sunk in vice and ignorance, would be superior to these savages, both in moral sentiments and cultivation. Probably few, if any white men, ever banded among them, who did not feel and express a horror of the customs of human sacrifice, child-murder, cannibalism, and other atrocities practised by the natives. The most frequent charge brought against them, is their unbounded licentiousness. But it should be remembered that the natives were, in this respect, already sunk to the lowest depths of degradation ; and though these men might conform to the customs of the country, they could add nothing to the prevalent vice. Indeed, we may suppose its grossest forms would soon disgust them ; and we rarely find one so utterly lost to the associations of early life, as not, by his conduct, to at least set a better example in this respect.

The lowest class exercised at first the most influence over the natives, because in habits and propensities they were so nearly on a level with them. Consequently, the latter would be more forcibly impressed by their remonstrances. The whites, moreover, generally attached themselves to some powerful chief, of an energetic character, who, by their assistance, made himself master of the group ; and thus, of course, put a natural end to savage warfare, with all its horrid results. From the mechanics, the natives would gradually become acquainted with the simplest of the arts, which the chiefs, for their own profit, would require them to learn and practice. A gradual but perceptible improvement in their dwellings, culture of lands, and clothing, took place. This constituted the second step in their progress towards civilization.

When it was once known that life and property were safe in any island, and that it afforded an opportunity of acquiring wealth, adventurers of a higher rank, men of education and character, made their appearance. The natives began to acquire a notion of the manners, style of living, and employments of enlightened nations. The chiefs were always the first to feel the influence of this example, and to adopt new customs ; and from them the taste spread among the common people. The latter, moreover, perceiving that their chiefs were treated by the foreigners with a kind of careless superiority, gradually lost much of that slavish awe of them which was one of the principal obstacles to their improvement. A general desire became developed for a better form of government, and for an education which might raise them to an equality with their visitors.

At New Zealand, the worst features of barbarism, as well as the greatest advance in civilization of any of the Southern islands, exists. Many

tribes retain their primitive habits, but they are such only as are farthest removed from foreign influence ; while those in the vicinity of the settlements have not only discontinued their savage rites, but have adopted the customs of the whites. Their wars are far less frequent and bloody, cannibalism has generally ceased, and their enterprise is now directed towards the acquisition of property. The settlers employ them to cultivate their lands, and as body servants ; while many drive a lucrative trade, by supplying the markets and shipping from the produce of their farms. Some become sailors ; others are employed as artisans. The money which they derive from these services is spent for articles of foreign manufacture. The external forms of Christianity are recognized, and they are about being united under one general government. Yet New Zealand affords one of the worst pictures of the influence of foreigners ; for those who first settled there, were generally of the most abandoned character—convicts escaped from New South Wales, runaways from vessels, and others of equally unequivocal caste. These men brought all their vices with them, and spent their time and earnings in scenes of the grossest debauchery. Some may have compared, in vileness and crime, with the debased savages around them. Nevertheless, that their general influence tended to produce a favorable change in their barbarous associates, is evident from the fact that men of better character were soon attracted thither ; and, bringing their families, became denizens of the country where, but a short period before, it would have been unsafe to land. Many benevolent persons declaim with much earnestness against the settlement of whites on lands held by savages, and draw a lamentable picture of the condition of the native tribes in case of such an event. They conjure up scenes of past felicity and innocence, when the children of the soil, untrammelled by the artificial restraints of civilization, roamed in unrestrained freedom over the land, and all was mirth and gladness. Their readers have presented to them a scene of Arcadian bliss. This they contrast with the toil and drudgery of laboring for the whites, of their utter denationalization, loss of language, and rapid passing away from the soil where repose the bones of their ancestors. All this powerfully appeals to the sympathies ; and without further reflection, we should come to the conclusion that the contact of the two races brought nothing but misery, disease, and death, to the weaker. How far this is the case, it may be well to examine before leaving the subject ; but for the present I shall confine myself to the question of colonization.

That the whites found the savages a cruel and sensual race, has already been shown. The great mass of the people being mere slaves, and always at war to gratify the base passions of their chiefs, could have but little attachment to the soil, and nothing of the spirit of patriotism. Fear was with them the most cogent motive, and almost the only principle which entered into their government or religion. Any change would be an improvement ; and we find that after an amicable intercourse has been once opened by the whites, they are eager to enter their service. The chiefs would at first freely alienate their lands to acquire foreign luxuries, or the means of adding to their power, through the superior knowledge of their visitors. Thus the first exchanges of lands, goods, and services, were simply acts of trade, by which both parties were benefited. As the whites increased, the chiefs would naturally become more jealous ; as the body of the people would reap many benefits from their intercourse, and

lose much of the debasing subserviency so natural to despotism. But it is needless to trace the progress of all the changes which result from this system. The effect is simply this: the natives are benefited just in that proportion as the settlers are superior to them in virtue and intelligence. A few of the rulers might regret the days of violence and tyranny, when their breath was law; but this could arise only from a reprehensible selfishness. At those islands in the Pacific at the present day, where whites are numerous, or the intercourse with them has been frequent, we find good order established; laws and government suitable to the condition of the people, by which the rights of trade and property are respected; commerce and agriculture flourishing; the Christian religion recognized; in short, the elements of incipient prosperity.

Who would change this spectacle for that which formerly everywhere prevailed, even though every island in the Pacific might be densely populated by the aborigines? Had purer causes been brought to operate upon them, more good would have been accomplished. Much of this revolution has been brought about through force and bloodshed. Ambition, licentiousness, and avarice, have swayed the minds of many. Still, such are the effects; and men and manners must be viewed as they actually exist. There is something melancholy in witnessing the gradual disappearance of a race of men from the earth, and in beholding their hearths and altars occupied by another. Yet it seems a fiat of the Creator, that by death all shall live. By storms and lightning, by the earthquake's shock, the avalanche, and all the terrible machinery of the Almighty's arm, equally as with the constant recurrence of seasons, the quiet growth of vegetation, and renewal of life, the physical world is kept in order for man's abode. Pestilence, war, and famine, are no less powerful agents under His guidance, for the moral world. Who shall question the designs of Providence, or attempt to improve them? If we but view the human race simply, as Christianity teaches us, as one family, and not permit our sympathies to be confined by boundary lines, treaties, and all the artificial distinctions which separate men on earth, we shall see at a glance that this gradual extinction and blending of races follows laws as immutable and as necessary as those which regulate the physical world. Death itself is but a result of this arrangement. In no way is this truth brought more forcibly to our perception, than in the destinies of nations. Separate the distinction of color and language from our minds, and we view them all as one people, and their gradual intermingling and passing away as a succession of generations. And this is their true state. On a certain island, one portion of the human family is found sunk into the lowest depths of degradation; on another, the highest in intellect and advancement. They come in contact. Those of the former capable of receiving the cultivation of the latter, become assimilated to and amalgamated with them—consequently, the power, wealth, and government, passes into their hands. Those of the latter who are too vile and indolent to improve, gradually decay, and are swallowed up in the mass of the former. As soon as the change is completed, we have a better and more numerous race of men, civilized and enlightened, to inhabit an island where all was heathenism before. Should another race, superior to this, follow, the same results would ensue. All this is in strict accordance with the plan of universal benevolence by which this world is governed; and the operations of such causes are as inevitable as they are permanent.

The vices and enormities too commonly practised by a lawless portion of the foreign population in the Pacific, are frequently so prominent as to entirely fill up the foreground of the picture, and justly to draw forth the most severe condemnation. Still, those who indulge in such censures are apt to lose sight of the original character of the heathen, and to occupy themselves too much with the present contrast between such countries and the most civilized—a comparison as unjust as it is erroneous. They should remember that these men, so far from being capable of adding to the natural depravity of the natives, actually suffer by contact with them. The restraints of law, domestic affections, and religion, which operate to a greater or less extent in a civilized community, to restrain their passions, do not exist here; while every allurements to sin is temptingly spread before them. Yet, instances of whites becoming complete savages, in minds and habits, are rare indeed; and the odium in which such individuals are held, shows how deep is the abhorrence of such degradation. Outlawed alike by all nations, they most commonly meet with a violent death from the hands of their savage associates.

The greatest benefit which has occurred to savages through foreign influences, has been the introduction of Christianity. In many instances, its success can be traced to the previous impressions made by visitors, whom interest or adventure led to their islands. Even those who were personally unfriendly to its progress, have indirectly afforded it aid, by keeping up in the natives the desire for improvement. The most hostile, in precept and example, likewise contributed, though unintentionally, to its advancement; for the obvious distinction between their conduct, and the deportment of those who are swayed by humane and generous feelings, would inevitably prepossess them in favor of upright and honest dealings. The punishments which follow crimes among the whites, so frequently witnessed by them, would confirm this impression, and consequently their minds become more susceptible to moral distinctions. Such has often been the experience of missionaries. Those who came out before the islands were frequented by ships, were uniformly unsuccessful. At the Marquesas, their lives were endangered, and they were obliged to flee: at the Friendly islands, four of them were murdered; and at the Society group they protracted their labors unsuccessfully for sixteen years, until other influences, such as we have been treating of, were brought to the aid of their cause. If Pomare had not, chiefly by the assistance of foreigners, been enabled to make himself sovereign of Tahiti, who can say how long the favorable result might have been delayed?

Neither is it a matter of astonishment that the first reception of missionaries was hostile and unfriendly. How could savages, possessing characters so sensual and selfish as we have seen they displayed alike to strangers and the nearest of kin, conceive of a benevolence which would lead men to exile themselves for the benefit of others. The property they brought with them would also be a strong temptation to plunder; and, indeed, we find that they invariably suffered in this respect. Yet the savages treated them no worse than they would have treated their own flesh and blood, had the temptation been the same. And there is no fact more indisputable than that commerce first taught them to fear and respect the white man, and also made them dependent upon him for the very necessaries of life; and by this means they first learned to appreciate the character of a missionary. First, unchecked avarice governed them—

this punished, then fear, and finally interest, taught them to treat the pale-faced strangers as their friends. Of late, little of this difficulty has been experienced. The islanders are almost always eager to receive and cherish their teachers—a change which is in a great measure to be attributed to the new perceptions they have acquired from foreigners.

Next to New Zealand, Tahiti, of all the Southern islands, is most frequented by foreigners. Missionaries have resided there upwards of forty years, and have finally succeeded in introducing all the outward forms of Christianity—of indeed converting the natives from heathenism; and although their efforts have not been attended with so full and brilliant success as at some other points, yet this is to be attributed to the unfavorable circumstances that always attend a first experiment. The Tahitians were a nation luxurious and licentious above all others in the Pacific; and these qualities will never be entirely eradicated. They form as much a part of the nation as their color and language; and we have it from the missionaries themselves, that these vices have rather changed their forms than diminished their degrees. True it is that it is disguised; and so much improvement has taken place, that a semblance of outward decency is preserved. In other respects, the Tahitians are infinitely changed for the better. The Sabbath is observed, schools attended, the grinding tyranny of the chiefs abolished, laws respected, and tolerably regular government established. All that missionaries can well do without the assistance of foreigners, has been done, and quite as successfully as could have been anticipated. They have even attempted to introduce some of the arts of civilized life; and their zeal for encouraging agriculture, and the attempt to form an export for the islands, deserves much praise. Partial success has rewarded their labors in these particulars, but full as much as would naturally arise, from circumstances which necessarily render these considerations of a secondary nature. With a missionary, moral efforts are the great primary object; and his attention can only be devoted to the improvement of the physical condition of the people, as auxiliary to the former—consequently, it can be but partially successful. But with the merchant, the case is reversed. All his time, energies, and capital, are devoted towards the accumulation of property, and the labors of others is necessary to effect this. He cannot succeed in any honorable traffic, without benefiting others; and thus, through a law of benevolence, the good of one is made conducive to the welfare of all. Tahiti has been heretofore mostly under missionary influence; and by Christianizing the inhabitants, it is slowly becoming a desirable residence for the capitalist and merchant. They now begin to flock thither, and their enterprise will find employment for the natives. By the combination of these influences, each neutralizing in a great measure the defects of the other, a much better state of affairs will result, than if either altogether predominated.

A charge frequently brought against foreigners, has been their supplying natives with fire-arms, and otherwise encouraging them in their wars. This is true, but its results have generally been beneficial. We find that wars have ceased as soon as one leading chief secured the ascendancy; and his power has been frequently established through the assistance of whites. They would naturally prefer the service of the most energetic and capable man, as he would best appreciate their assistance; and we rarely hear of their joining indiscriminately both parties, and aiding and protracting a long and bloody warfare. At the Sandwich islands, the

Society, and indeed others, the way was opened for Christianity through these very means. When missionaries have succeeded in establishing themselves before this has occurred, wars have resulted between the advocates of the new religion and the adherents of the old. The Christian party has finally triumphed, but by the aid of fire-arms, and the superior knowledge derived from more immediate contact with the whites.

Missionaries have been established for several years at the Samoa and Friendly group, and the natives have made rapid advances in Christianity. These islands having no foreign population, and being but an occasional resort for shipping, show conclusively how much can be accomplished by missionaries, undisturbed or unaided by other influences. Their remarkable success in turning the people from their idols, and the great moral reform which has followed their labors, are unanswerable arguments in favor of missions; for no like changes have occurred where they have not been established. Still they raise a people but to a certain point, when they either remain stationary, or retrograde; unless, indeed, by imitating the Jesuits in Paraguay, and becoming their rulers, remodel their polity, introducing the customs, laws, and manufactures of Europe, and thus force them, as it were, to be civilized. This may appear to be an uncharitable conclusion, but it is far otherwise; and in making it, no censure is intended. However faithfully they may devote themselves to their work as missionaries, this will be the inevitable result. The reason is obvious. By their own inclinations, and characters as preachers of the gospel, they must necessarily confine themselves to moral and doctrinal teachings. Their hearers are engaged in every work of vice and crime, and even all their games and amusements partake of sensuality. In proportion as they become influenced by the new religion, they discontinue their old customs, and the whole government must be revolutionized. Despotism must be abolished, as inconsistent with their new belief; wars cease; and those sports whose only merit consisted in their manly activity, while they depraved and corrupted the mind, are necessarily forsaken. Industry is inculcated, both by precept and example, by their teachers; and every advice and direction for culture of the earth, instruction in simple trades, and engaging in new avocations, given. But until some more powerful motive than the mere desire to be industrious is presented, or there is a demand for labor, men will not become so. Hope of reward is necessary to stimulate them. At Samoa, the manners of the natives are rapidly becoming revolutionized. But the novelty of this change will soon wear away; and unless something occurs to employ their time profitably to themselves, a moral reaction will necessarily take place. Their natures remain much the same. At present, the desire for learning, attending meetings, and other sources of missionary instruction, which are necessarily multiplied in order to keep the minds of the natives alive to these subjects, will occupy them. But the experience of missions show that this soon palls; and unless something else is brought forward, they will do those things in secret which their new laws may forbid, but which have been sanctioned by usage with them from time immemorial. The guilt, in their view, will lay more in detection, than in any criminal act itself. The brightest conversions among the natives are those the most engaged in regular occupations.

A nation may change its religion; and by so doing, those sources of activity by which its energies (however wrongfully directed) were tried,

and hopes stimulated, are dried up, because in direct opposition to the spirit of the new. Something must now intervene, (for in these islands the mere labor for subsistence occupies but a small portion of time,) or else the nation will perish, or return to their former practices. Agriculture, trade, and commerce, are now the resort; and as missionaries cannot engage profitably in them, and retain their original character, men whose business these are, should be encouraged to settle. In this way, the dormant industry of the country will be awakened, its natural resources developed, and the natives provided with the means of becoming civilized, without which it is vain to think of keeping them Christianized.

The Roman Catholic missionaries at the Gambier islands have been eminently successful in converting the people to their faith; but in this they have been aided by many incidental circumstances. The islands are small, and contain but 2,200 inhabitants. They are far separated from other islands, little or no shipping touching there, and the people consequently were without any previous bias; and, undisturbed by conflicting doctrines, have no temptation to forsake their present faith. The population is now on the increase—the men are employed in shelling, while all the women learn to spin. The poverty of the island compels the natives to labor for their subsistence, and the various arts which are taught keep them industrious.

Before closing this article, it will be worth our attention to take a view of those islands which are wholly without missionary influence, but partially under that of foreigners. Their condition will go far to refute or confirm the assertions which I have before made. A few teachers of the Methodist persuasion have settled at the Fijii group. As their labors, though indefatigable in their cause, cannot be said to have produced a sincere convert, and the islands are so populous and extensive, I shall class them among those to which we now refer. Their white population was originally the same as that which first frequented New Zealand; but the barbarous habits of the savages seem to have had a favorable effect upon them, by strengthening the sense of their own moral superiority, which has secured to them a deserved respect among their heathen associates. This influence has been sufficiently powerful, in places where they have settled in any numbers, to put an end to cannibalism, and to associate with it a feeling of horror and disgust—certainly a great step towards changing the manners of so ferocious a race. In other respects, their example has been decidedly beneficial; particularly in regulating the intercourse with vessels that touch for trade and refreshments, and securing them from any treacherous attacks. Of late, they are even desirous to secure a missionary to reside with them, for the purpose of instructing their children; and the most favorable points for the introduction of Christianity are said to be where they reside.

Next in importance to these islands is the King's Mill group, and others in the immediate vicinity. A few stragglers from civilization are said to reside on them, but so little is known of their history, that I cannot speak of their condition with any certainty. Of some, rumor says they are in character pirates, being runaways from vessels in which they experienced ill treatment, and are now determined to revenge themselves on any whites whom misfortune or want of prudence may put into their power. Even if this is the case, the savages will soon perceive that such visitors are an injury alike to them and their own race; and the penalty which

such crimes so richly deserve must sooner or later overtake them. The savages will not fail to contrast their conduct with those who treat them justly, and the reaction of sentiment will be much in favor of the latter. A few years since, the captain and crew of a shipwrecked whaler were massacred at the group. Some time afterward, the captain of another vessel, hearing of this circumstance, sailed for the place, and opened a destructive fire upon their villages, which, of course, from its mere wantonness and injustice, only exasperated the savages, and rendered it still more dangerous for other vessels to approach their islands. In cutting off the crew of the whaler, they had acted according to the dictates of their own natural feelings and customs, and were unconscious of having committed any criminal offence. They should have been punished severely; but to have produced a good effect, it should have been with judgment, and not in a spirit of revenge. The distinction between the innocent and guilty should have been made as far as practicable, and the power and justice of the whites at the same time firmly impressed upon their minds. But, in this instance, they could perceive that the whites acted precisely as they would have done themselves in a similar case; and thus an opportunity of forcibly impressing upon them the moral as well as physical superiority of their civilized foes, which would have tended strongly to have prevented a recurrence of the like treachery, was lost. That kind treatment will conciliate even the lowest of savages, is evident from the following fact, which was related to me by the master of a vessel, who has had much experience with the South Sea tribes. Not long after the catastrophe above mentioned, he sailed for the same group. Upon making them, his vessel was surrounded with canoes filled with warriors, who immediately commenced an attack. A few balls were then fired through several of their canoes, which sunk them, and the crews of the remainder made for the shore in great trepidation. The succeeding day, they came alongside in a peaceful manner, and gave up all their weapons, which were at once destroyed. They were then admitted on board the ship, and presents distributed among them, and every method attempted to conciliate, and at the same time to impress upon their minds the power of the strangers. This treatment had the desired effect; and every time that vessel appears, the natives flock to her with gifts of fruits and vegetables, and with every demonstration of joy. And this is simply the effect of making them dread the power, and at the same time see it is for their interests to receive their visitors kindly.

It is a lamentable fact that unprovoked aggressions have been made upon natives of the South Seas, but they are now of rare occurrence. Some, it seems, have fired upon them, out of mere abuse of superior power—to *amuse* themselves at the surprise and terror of the ignorant islanders. Others, in revenge for some real or fancied injury, have lowered themselves to the level of the most cruel of the savages themselves. These cases are to be deplored; and while they lessen the amount of benefit received, they do not disprove the general fact of the utility of a commercial intercourse with the aborigines. Indeed, they are to be viewed only as exceptions to a general rule. On many islands, it is well known white men are held prisoners, and the strictest caution used to prevent their escape, so important are their services to the inhabitants. Even those unfortunate individuals who resided on Lord North's island, although suffering every privation themselves, yet, when they were released, cheerfully acknowledged

their indebtedness to the miserable beings they had been among, as having treated them well, according to *their* ideas, and preserved their lives. They rewarded them to the best of their ability, and no doubt left a most favorable impression among them of the honor and justice of the pale-faced race; and any person whom misfortune may hereafter drive upon those shores, will have reason to be thankful for the lesson. The inhabitants of Rotuma and Ascension have become, through the civilizing influences of commerce, tractable and hospitable. The former are frequently employed as sailors by whaling and other vessels, and bear a high character for industry and honesty. At the latter, property is safe, and trade with foreigners eagerly desired. They both offer great encouragements as missionary stations, and will probably before long be occupied. The inhabitants of Pitcairn's island are a remarkable instance of purity and simplicity of manner, the result of the instructions of an ignorant but simple-minded foreigner.

In the preceding remarks I have endeavored to show that commerce, even in intercourse with the most savage of the human race, has produced decidedly beneficial effects. If, however, the following description, from the pages of a popular author of the last century, is correct, I am altogether in the wrong; and happy would it have been for the "spotless minds" of these children of an earthly paradise, had the white man never visited their favored land. The missionary could bring no glad tidings to a sinless race, nor commerce benefit them—their happiness was complete.

"Is it not enough that European avarice and ambition disturb the repose of distant nations?—why should their vices and diseases taint the spotless mind or the uncontaminated frame? O! why were you ever drawn from your primeval obscurity, ye once happy natives of Otaheite? We have only taught you to feel wants which cannot be gratified, we have planted ills which never can be cured. Such are the blessings that the civilized confer on savages."

Similar opinions were entertained by many of the great and good of the past age, and are not altogether eradicated from the present. But the belief which most generally prevails at the present day among a numerous class, and one which some authors seem particularly desirous of extending, is, that the influence of commerce is necessarily prejudicial to the aborigines of a country, and an antagonist to the precepts of the gospel. This is a sophism, dangerous alike to both causes, and calculated to strengthen the enmity of feeling which unfortunately exists between the partial advocates of either view. No one will attempt to argue that it would have been better for humanity or civilization that the islands of the South Seas had never been visited, though some may contend that the latter has spread itself at the extent of the former. Unfortunately, the criminal conduct of many voyagers and traders, in their intercourse with the natives, gives room for the assertion. Who has not read of frequent acts of barbarity, committed through mere wantonness of power, by men whose boasts were of such deeds, and who themselves were savages in all but a white skin; of duplicity in trading, diseases introduced, and of the many wrongs and outrages which cause us to blush for our race? The guileless trader and innocent voyager have, in many instances, suffered by the retribution which should have been doubly visited upon the guilty. Such men are a pest to mankind; their deeds are the plague-spots of history; savage or civilized man are alike injured.

If we but look (as too many do) only upon the dark side of history, our hearts sicken at the view—the bad always appears the most prominent. Death, disease, crime, and suffering, are always in bold relief, and strike us forcibly; while the many acts of benevolence which alleviate, of generosity which cheers, and counsels that soothes or builds anew the shattered frame of man or state, the example that operates almost imperceptibly—all these, emanating from the better feelings of man, spread over the world like oil upon water, so noiselessly, that we rarely detect them but in their effects.

The South Sea islanders, upon their discovery, were made the special objects of the benevolence of the great of Europe. They had been represented in the most glowing colors, and were looked upon almost as children of a new and fairer creation. Unlike the Indians of America, their lands were respected—no mines of gold brought a cruel and avaricious conqueror to their shores to exterminate, or the priest, with cross or faggot, to proselyte. Gifts were showered down upon them; all strove to impart to them the knowledge and resources of civilization. Some of this was done with more zeal than discretion. The Duchess of Choiseul, in 1769, “ordered a considerable sum to be expended in seeds, implements of husbandry, and other articles, for the improvement of the island of Tahiti.”

The noble and disinterested conduct of Vancouver, in endeavoring to pacify the hostile parties of the Sandwich islands, is familiar to all readers—also the expense incurred in introducing cattle, various fruits and vegetables, and, in short, everything which could be useful to the natives, or enable them to support a traffic with foreigners. Instances of this nature might be indefinitely multiplied. England was the most famous in this active benevolence, and by it she is justly entitled to the good will of the islanders. When we look at them in their original state, we see tribes of naked or but half-clad natives, filthy in their habits, and with little call for industry to support them; their lives being mostly spent in sensuality, the rites of a bloody and debasing theology, or in a cruel and never-ending warfare. Their fruits, vegetables, and animals, were few in variety—of the natural resources of their soil, they knew nothing. Months were spent in manufacturing articles of domestic use, which half a day’s labor for the whites would have purchased. Riches lay everywhere around them, and yet they knew it not. They were children in knowledge, but adepts in all that was brutal and sensual. The white man came—their eyes were opened, and they saw their own nakedness. To him they were indebted for the cow, the horse, the goat, and mule; in short, for all those appendages to civilization, without which, the most fertile country is but a wilderness. Articles of but little value to them were exchanged for those which, to savages, are always inestimable.

Commerce gave a value to the sandal-wood, biche le mar, tortoise-shell, and other articles, which, without it, are as useless as the sands on the sea-shore. Commerce made it for their interest to cease warring—if the stranger could not be protected, their wants could not be supplied; nor without labor and industry could they collect the articles necessary for exchange. Commerce clothes them, and gives them the means of subsistence. It has taught them the value of the gifts of Providence—to extract sugar from the cane, to rear the tender silk-worm, to gather coffee, plant corn, and is constantly opening to their view the inexhaustible

resources of agriculture. By its means, settlers have established their home upon their shores, bringing with them the arts and refinements of civilization. Many intermarry, and thus raise them in character and respectability; and all are interested in promoting and preserving good order, in abolishing bad habits and laws, and in every way improving their adopted country. Knowledge is communicated by daily intercourse, and every resident is a missionary as far as his example for good goes. The manners and usages of civilized nations are taught them by visitors, while families show them the advantages of well-regulated households, and the virtues and enjoyments of domestic life. Commerce offers a premium to morality and intelligence, as it pays those best who possess those qualities in the highest degree. Commerce has made them sailors, artisans, and traders—it teaches them the value of property, and indirectly the rights of man. It has remodelled their polity, freed their labor, and is rapidly teaching the chiefs that, if they would have their own rights respected, they must respect the rights of others; that oppression and enterprise cannot flourish in unison; and that, if they would retain their authority, they must exert themselves to keep pace with the advance of mind and general improvement about them. Commerce keeps the springs of enterprise in motion, awakens new ideas, liberalizes their governments, and brings the arts and improvements of other lands to theirs. It would have carried them far in advance of their present condition, had they but seconded her efforts by the enactment of suitable laws to encourage the settlement of respectable whites, of securing apprentices to trades, and other means by which the interests of all are protected in more advanced countries. Commerce is an all-active principle. All that cannot float on its current, is lost in its depths. Commerce has, in all ages, been the friend of the common people. Commercial countries are always the most free; and well may the natives remember the day, with gratitude, when they first beheld the “floating island,” as they deemed the ships approaching their shores. True, it contained not “gods;” but it was a harbinger of the gifts of a bountiful Providence, to raise them from their degradation, and free them from the most sensual of all slavery.

In conclusion, we shall revert in general terms to the labors of missionaries at the Sandwich islands, and their influence in developing principles of civilization and Christianity.

On their arrival, they found the islanders victims to most cruel and debasing superstitions. These, the untiring efforts of years have uprooted, to a great extent, with their accompanying vices and crimes, and planted in their stead the worship of the one Jehovah. Religious instruction occupied their attention mostly, at first; but as soon as the mass of the people had become familiar with the doctrines of the Bible, schools and seminaries were established, in which all the common branches of education were taught. But before this could be done, the language was to be reduced to writing, and books translated—a work of labor little appreciated, but arduous in the extreme. The translation of the Bible is in itself a monument of industry. The missionaries have always furnished gratuitous medical advice and medicine to the natives, and have endeavored to destroy their barbarous customs of treating diseases, by the dissemination of correct knowledge upon this subject. Too little credit has been given them for the attempt to teach the mechanical arts, and introduce agricultural improvements. A farmer and his family were

among the first body of missionaries that arrived at Hawaii ; but, owing to the indifference of the chiefs, were obliged to suspend their labors, and return home.

Many of the native mechanics were instructed by the missionaries. They have also established manual-labor schools, and their precepts and examples tend directly to the encouragement of industry, and the introduction of the trades and manufactures of civilized life. In the female seminary at Waileiku au Mani, the girls are taught to sew, spin, braid, and knit, and other employments suitable to their sex. In all the other schools, these branches are taught as far as practicable. Every assistance and encouragement has been given to the natives, to enable them to find a profitable market for their produce, and to create exports for the purchase of foreign goods. As far as missionaries, without compromising their character as such, can go in effecting these desirable changes, they have done so ; but their success depends more upon individual wants and interests, and requires the co-operation of the merchant and agriculturist. The missionary has endeavored to civilize the natives, by inducing them to live in better houses, and forsake their old habits. It is by examining into the minutæ of daily life, that we can rightly judge of what has been accomplished. But it is needless to descend further into particulars. The labors of the missionary have been directly employed in Christianizing the natives, and indirectly in civilizing. That they have done this, and that the results are gratifying in the extreme, none can deny. They have also introduced the same system of free schools which has raised New England to her high station of intellectual power. Originating from the freest and most enlightened country, and educated in the bosom of a democratic church, their influence has been to extend human liberty and thought, and to introduce those institutions which have crowned their native land with so much honor. They have laid a broad foundation for national happiness and greatness ; and their influence, whether upon natives or whites, will cease only with the end of all things. Their character, like that of the Puritans, will leave its impress upon after ages ; and there are few of the present who do not award that sect the just praise of sowing those seeds of individual and national freedom, which have operated so powerfully in rendering America what she is. To say that their system is faultless, would be erroneous ; or that what has been done, in some instances, might not have been done better. The same truth holds good of all other human means—imperfection and decay are but too closely united with humanity.

The two principles of Christianity and civilization, modifying each other, give knowledge and freedom to the world. They are the choicest gifts of Providence to man, and his greatest happiness lies in their proper union. For their advancement, distinct professions are necessary, though each is essential to the healthy existence of the other. Mankind have moral and intellectual wants, as well as physical. Let not the professors of either narrow down their views to the horizon of their selfish interests, but look about upon the world as the common field of their labors—its improvement as their common end. Their pursuits are all necessary, all noble ; and should expand the soul, and make it grasp at brighter things than the mere possession of some trifling gratification, or petty triumph to particular opinions or designs.

J. J. J.

ART. II.—INTERNAL TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER III.

THE increasing tendency to reside in towns and cities which is manifested by the inhabitants of all countries, as they make progress in the arts and refinements of civilization, is sufficiently obvious to most men who think on the subject. But it is not so apparent to those whose attention has not been particularly turned to the matter, that the improvements of the last century have so much strengthened that tendency as almost to make it seem like a new principle of society, growing out of the combined agency of steam power and machinery. Mr. Hume, who had as clear apprehension of the relations of the various conditions of society, and the operation of the causes modifying them, as any man of his time, expresses the opinion that no city of antiquity probably ever contained more inhabitants than London, which, at the time he wrote, near one hundred years ago, was estimated at 800,000. He thought there were internal and inherent causes to check and stop the growth of the most favorably situated cities when they reached that size. Taking the then existing condition of society as the basis of his reasoning, it seems probable that he judged correctly. Neither the spinning jenny, nor the power loom, nor the steam engine, nor the canal, nor the McAdam road, nor the railway, had then been brought into use; nor had the productive power of the soil, aided by science and art, been, at that time, tasked to its utmost to bring forth human sustenance. Mr. Hume looked with the eye of a philosopher on the past and the present; but, in predicting of the future, his mistakes were nearly as numerous as his vaticinations. To judge of the future by the past may seem safe and philosophic to those who believe not in the certain advance of mankind towards a more perfect condition and nature. So to judge was in accordance with the sceptical mind of Mr. Hume. Let us avoid, so far as we may, his mistake; though to us it seems not practicable to avoid falling into some degree of error of the same sort, when we undertake to foretell future conditions and events, in a rapidly progressive community.

What has been the effect of the improvements, physical and moral, of the past century, on the growth of towns? and what is likely to be their future effect, aided by other and probably greater improvements, on the growth of towns, during the hundred years to come? We define town to mean any place numbering 2,000 or more inhabitants. It is to Great Britain we are to look for the main evidences of the effects of the labor-saving improvements of the last century. The first canal was commenced in that country by the Duke of Bridgewater, no longer ago than 1760. The invention of the spinning jenny, by Hargreaves, followed seven years after. Not long after this, the spinning frame was contrived by the ingenuity of Arkwright. In 1775, Mr. Crompton produced the machine called the mule, a combination of the two preceding. Some time afterwards, Mr. Cartwright invented the power loom, but it was not until after 1820 that it was brought into general use. The steam engine, the moving power of all this machinery, was so improved by Watt, in 1785, as to entitle him to claim, for all important practical purposes, being its inventor. At the same time that these great inventions were being brought into use, the nation was making rapid progress in the construction of ca-

nals and roads, and the duplication of her agricultural products. Indeed, great part of her works to cheapen and facilitate internal trade, including her canals, her McAdam roads, and her railways, have been constructed within the last thirty years. The effect of these, in building up towns, is exemplified by the following facts. Mr. Slaney, M. P., stated in the house of commons, in May, 1830, that, "in England, those engaged in manufacturing and mechanical occupations, as compared with the agricultural class, were 6 to 5, in 1801; they were as 8 to 5, in 1821; and 2 to 1, in 1830. In Scotland, the increase had been still more extraordinary. In that country they were as 5 to 6, in 1801; as 9 to 6, in 1821; and, in 1830, as 2 to 1. The increase of the general population for the preceding twenty years, had been 30 per cent; in the manufacturing population it had been 40 per cent; in Manchester, Liverpool, Coventry, and Birmingham, the increase had been 50 per cent; in Leeds, it had been 54 per cent; in Glasgow, it had been 100 per cent." The increase of population in England and Wales, from 1821 to 1831, was 16 per cent. This increase was nearly all absorbed in towns and their suburbs, as the proportion of people engaged in agriculture has decreased decidedly with every census. More scientific modes of culture, and more perfect machines and implements, combined with other causes, have rendered an increased amount of human labor unnecessary in the production of a greatly augmented amount of food. In 1831, but one-third of the people of England were employed in the labors of agriculture. In 1841, very little more than one-fourth were so employed. In Scotland, seven of the best agricultural counties decreased in population, from 1831 to 1841, from 1 to 5 per cent; whereas, the counties, in which were her principal towns, increased during the same period from 15 per cent to 34.8 per cent; the latter being the increase of the county of Lanark, in which Glasgow is situated. The average increase of all Scotland for those ten years, was 11.1 per cent. According to Marshall, the increase of population in England for the ten years preceding 1831, was 30 per cent in the mining districts; 25½ in the manufacturing; and 19 in the metropolitan, (Middlesex county;) while, in the inland towns and villages, it was only 7¼ per cent.

The railways, which now traverse England in every quarter, and bring into near neighborhood its most distant points, have been nearly all constructed since 1830. Their effect, in aid of the other works, in augmenting the present great centers of population, will, obviously, be very considerable; how great, remains to be developed by the future. London, with its suburbs, has now about 2,000,000 of inhabitants; but she is probably far below the culminating point of her greatness. The kingdom of which she is the commercial heart, doubles its population in forty-two years. It is reasonable, then, to suppose that, within the next fifty years, London and the other great *foci* of human beings, in that kingdom, will have more than twice their present numbers; for it is proved that nearly the whole increase in England is monopolized by the large commercial and manufacturing towns with their suburbs.

Will similar causes produce like effects in the United States? In the States of *Massachusetts*, *New York*, *Pennsylvania*, and *Ohio*, the improvements of the age operated to some extent on their leading towns from 1830 to 1840. *Massachusetts* had little benefit from canals, railways, or steam power; but her towns felt the beneficent influence of her labor-saving machinery moved by water power, and her improved agriculture

and common roads. The increase of her nine principal towns, commencing with Boston and ending with Cambridge, from 1830 to 1840, was 66,373, equal to 53 per cent; being more than half the entire increase of the state, which was but 128,000, or less than 21 per cent. The increase, leaving out those towns, was but 11 per cent. Of this 11 per cent, great part, if not all, must have been in the towns not included in our list.

The growth of the towns in the State of *New York*, during the same period, is mainly due to her canals. That of the fourteen largest, from New York to Seneca, inclusive, was 204,507, or 64½ per cent; whereas, the increase in the whole state was less than 27 per cent, and of the state, exclusive of these towns, but 19 per cent. Of this, it is certain, that nearly all is due to the other towns not in the list of the fourteen largest.

Pennsylvania has canals, railways, and other improvements, that should give a rapid growth to her towns. These works, however, had not time, after their completion, to produce their proper effects, before the crash of her monetary system nearly paralyzed every branch of her industry, except agriculture and the coal business. Nine of her largest towns, from Philadelphia to Erie, inclusive, exhibit a gain, from 1830 to 1840, of 84,642, being at the rate of 39½ per cent. This list does not include Pottsville, or any other mining town. The increase of the whole state was but 21¾ per cent.

Ohio has great natural facilities for trade, in her lake and river coasts; the former having become available only since the opening of the Erie canal, in 1826, and that to little purpose before 1830. She has also canals, which have been constructing and coming gradually into use since 1830. These now amount to about 760 miles. For the last five years, she has also constructed an extent of McAdam roads exceeding any other state, and amounting to hundreds of miles. Her railways, which are of small extent, have not been in operation long enough to have produced much effect. From this review of the state, it will not be expected to exhibit as great increase in town population, from 1830 to 1840, as will distinguish it hereafter. The effects of her public improvements, however, will be clearly seen in the following exhibit. Eighteen of her largest towns, and the same number of medium size and average increase, contained, in 1830, 58,310, which had augmented, in 1840, to 138,916; showing an increase of 138 per cent. The increase of the whole state, during the same period, was 62 per cent. The northwest quarter of the state has no towns of any magnitude, and has but begun to be settled. This quarter had but 12,671 inhabitants in 1830 and 92,050, in 1840.

The increase of the twenty largest towns of the United States, from New York to St. Louis, inclusive, from 1830 to 1840, was 55 per cent, while that of the whole country was less than 34 per cent. If the slaveholding states were left out, the result of the calculation would be still more favorable to the towns.

The foregoing facts clearly show the strong tendency of modern improvements to build towns. Our country has just begun its career; but as its progress in population is in a geometrical ratio, and its improvements more rapidly progressive than its population, we are startled at the results to which we are brought, by the application of these principles to the century into which our inquiry now leads us.

In 1840, the United States had a population of 17,068,666. Allowing its future increase to be at the rate of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, for each succeeding period of ten years, we shall number, in 1940, 303,101,641. Past experience warrants us to expect this great increase. In 1790, our number was 3,927,827. Supposing it to have increased each decade, in the ratio of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, it would, in 1840, have amounted to 16,560,256; being more than half a million less than our actual number, as shown by the census. With 300,000,000, we should have less than 150 to the square mile for our whole territory, and but 220 to the square mile for our organized states and territories. England has 300 to the square mile. It does not, then, seem probable that our progressive increase will be materially checked within the one hundred years under consideration. At the end of that period, Canada will probably number at least 20,000,000. If we suppose the portion of our country, east and south of the Appalachian chain of mountains, known as the Atlantic slope, to possess at that time 40,000,000, or near five times its present number, there will be left 260,000,000 for the great central region between the Appalachian and Rocky mountains, and between the Gulf of Mexico and Canada, and for the country west of the Rocky mountains. Allowing the Oregon Territory 10,000,000, there will be left 250,000,000 for that portion of the American states lying in the basins of the Mobile, Mississippi, and St. Lawrence. If, to these, we add 20,000,000 for Canada, we have 270,000,000 as the probable number that will inhabit the North American valley at the end of the one hundred years, commencing in 1840. If we suppose one-third, or 90,000,000 of this number to reside in the country as cultivators and artisans, there will be 180,000,000 left for the towns—enough to people 360, each containing half a million. This does not seem so incredible as that the valley of the Nile, scarcely 12 miles broad, should have once, as historians tell us, contained 20,000 cities.

But, lest one hundred years seem too long to be relied on, in a calculation having so many elements, let us see how matters will stand fifty years from 1840, or forty-seven years from this time. The ratio of increase we have adopted cannot be objected to as extravagant for this period. In 1890, according to that ratio, our number will be 72,000,000. Of these, 22,000,000 will be a fair allowance for the Atlantic slope. Of the remaining 50,000,000, 2,000,000 may reside west of the Rocky mountains, leaving 48,000,000 for the great valley within the states. If, to these, we add 5,000,000 as the population of Canada, we have an aggregate of 53,000,000 for the North American valley. One-third, or say 18,000,000, being set down as farming laborers and rural artisans, there will remain 35,000,000 for the towns, which might be seventy in number, having each half a million of souls. It can scarcely be doubted that, within the forty-seven years, our agriculture will be so improved, as to require less than one-third to furnish food and raw materials for manufacture for the whole population. Good judges have said that we are not now more than twenty or thirty years behind England in our husbandry. It is certain that we are rapidly adopting her improvements in this branch of industry; and it is not to be doubted, that very many new improvements will be brought out, both in Europe and America, which will tend to lessen the labor necessary in the production of food and raw materials.

The tendency to bring to reside in towns all not engaged in agriculture that machinery and improved ways of intercourse have created, has

already been illustrated by the example of England and some of our older states. Up to this time, our North American valley has exhibited few striking evidences of this tendency. Its population is about 10,500,000; but, with the exception of New Orleans, Cincinnati, and Montreal, it has no large towns. As a whole, it has been too sparsely settled to build up many. Too intent on drawing out the resources of our exuberantly rich soil, we have neglected the introduction of those manufactures and mechanic arts that give agricultural productions their chief value, by furnishing an accessible market. This mistake is, however, rapidly bringing about its own remedy. In Ohio, the oldest (not in time but in maturity) of our western states, the arts of manufacture have commenced their appropriate business of building towns. Cincinnati, with its suburbs, has upwards of 50,000 inhabitants; a larger proportion of whom are engaged in manufactures and trades, than of either of the sixteen principal towns of the Union, except Lowell. The average proportion so engaged in all these towns, is 1 to 8.79. In Cincinnati, it is 1 to 4.50. Indeed, our interior capital has but two towns (New York and Philadelphia) before her, in number of persons, engaged in manufactures and trades. Our smaller towns, Dayton, Zanesville, Columbus, and Steubenville, having each about 6,000 inhabitants, have nearly an equal proportion engaged in the same occupation.

These examples are valuable only as indicating the direction to which the industry of our people tends, in those portions of the west, where population has attained a considerable degree of density. Of the ten and a half millions now inhabiting this valley, little more than half a million live in towns; leaving about ten millions employed in making farms out of the wilds, and producing human food and materials for manufactures. When, in 1890, our number reaches 53,000,000, according to our estimate, there will be but one-third of this number (to wit, 18,000,000) employed in agriculture and rural trades. Of the increase up to that time, (being 42,500,000,) 8,000,000 will go into rural occupations, and 34,500,000 into towns. This would people sixty-nine towns, with each half a million.

Should we, yielding to the opinion of those who may believe that more than one-third of our people will be required for agriculture and rural trades, make the estimate on the supposition that one-half the population of our valley, forty-seven years hereafter, will live on farms, and in villages below the rank of towns, the account will stand thus: 26,500,000 (being the one-half of 53,000,000 in the valley) will be the amount of the rural population; so that it must receive 16,500,000 in addition to the 10,000,000 it now has. The towns, in the same time, will have an increase of 26,000,000, in addition to the 500,000 now in them. Where will these towns be, and in what proportion will they possess the 26,500,000 inhabitants?

These are interesting questions, and not so impracticable of an approximately correct solution, as, at first blush, they may seem.

One of them will be either St. Louis or Alton. Everybody will be ready to admit that. Still more beyond the reach of doubt or cavil, is Cincinnati. We might name also Pittsburg and Louisville; but we trust that our readers, who have followed us through our former articles, are ready to concur in the opinion that the greatest city of the *Mississippi* basin will be either Cincinnati or the town near the mouth of the Mis-

souri, be it Alton or St. Louis. Within our period of forty-seven years, we have no doubt it will be Cincinnati. She is now in the midst of a population so great and so thriving; and, on the completion of the Miami canal, which will be within two years, she will so monopolize the exchange commerce at that end of the canal between the river and lake regions, that it is not reasonable to expect she can be overtaken by her western rival for half a century.

But such has been the influx of settlers within the last few years to the lake region, and so decided has become the tendency of the productions of the upper and middle regions of the great valley to seek a market at and through the lakes, that we can no longer withstand the conviction that, even within the short period of forty-seven years, a town will grow up on the lake border greater than Cincinnati. The following facts, it is believed, will force the same conviction to our readers:

The states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, are bordered by both lake and river. All have large river accommodation, but Illinois has it to an unrivalled extent; whereas it has but one lake port.

Now let us see what has been the relative and positive growth of the river region and lake region of these states, from 1830 to 1840. Southern Ohio, including all south of the national road, and the counties north of that road which touch the Ohio river, had, in 1830, 550,000 inhabitants, and in 1840 730,000; showing an increase of 180,000—equal to 33½ per cent. Northern Ohio, in 1830, numbered but 390,000, which in 1840 had increased to 805,000; exhibiting an increase of 413,000, or 105 per cent. In 1830, Southern Ohio had 160,000 more than Northern Ohio; whereas, in 1840, the latter excelled the former 75,000. This preponderance of the lake region has not been owing to the superiority of its soil, or the beauty of its surface; for, in these respects, it is inferior to its southern rival.

Let us now see how the river and lake regions of Indiana compare, in 1830 and 1840. The national road is the dividing line.

Southern Indiana had, in 1830,	252,000	
Northern Indiana “ “	89,000	
Southern Indiana had, in 1840,	397,000	
Northern Indiana “ “	278,000	
Southern Indiana, in 1830,	252,000	} Gain 145,000, or 58 pr. ct.
“ “ “ 1840,	397,000	
Northern Indiana had, in 1830,	89,000	} Showing a gain of 189,000,
“ “ “ “ 1840,	278,000	

Such has been the rapidity of settlement of the northern counties of Indiana, for the three years since the census was taken, that we cannot doubt that the north has nearly overtaken, in positive numbers, the south half.

Illinois exhibits the preference given to the lake region, in a still more striking manner. A line drawn along the north boundaries of Edgar and Coles counties, and thence direct to the town of Quincy, on the Mississippi, will divide the state into two nearly equal parts. The three counties, Morgan, Sangamon, and Macon, we divide equally, and give two-thirds of Adams to the north, and one-third to the south.

Southern Illinois had, in 1830,.....	122,732
Northern Illinois “ “	33,852
Southern Illinois had, in 1840,.....	242,873
Northern Illinois “ “	232,222

Southern Illinois, in 1830,	122,732	} Showing a gain of 120,141, equal to 97 per cent.
“ “ 1840,	242,873	
Northern Illinois had, in 1830,	33,852	} Showing a gain of 198,370, equal to 586 per cent.
“ “ 1840,	232,222	

There can be no doubt, with those who know the course of immigration, that Northern Illinois, at this time, contains many thousands more than Southern Illinois.

It may be said that the lake region of these states, being of more recent settlement, and having more vacant land, has, chiefly on that account, increased more than the river region. This might account for a *higher ratio*, but it would not account for a greater *amount* of increase. For instance: the state of New York, between 1820 and 1830, had a greater amount of increase than any western state, though most of them increased in a far higher ratio. So, by the census of 1840, it appears that the *amount* of increase of Ohio, for the ten years previous, was about three times as great as that of Michigan, although the *ratio* of increase of Michigan was more than nine times as high as that of Ohio.

Let us compare, then, the *amount of increase* of the lake and river regions of these states.

Increase from 1830 to 1840 of	}	Northern Ohio,.....	413,000
		“ Indiana,.....	189,000
		“ Illinois,.....	198,370
			<hr/> 800,370

Increase from 1830 to 1840 of	}	Southern Ohio,.....	180,000
		“ Indiana,.....	145,000
		“ Illinois,.....	120,141
			<hr/> 445,141

Arkansas and Michigan, were it not that the latter has the advantage of not holding slaves, would afford almost a perfect illustration of the preference given to the lake region over the river country. Each has extraordinary advantages of navigation, of its peculiar kind. No state in the valley has as extensive river navigation as Arkansas, and no state can claim to rival Michigan in extent of navigable lake coast.

In 1830, Michigan had a population of.....	32,538
“ Arkansas “ “	30,388
In 1840, Michigan numbered.....	212,276
“ Arkansas “ “	97,578

These facts exhibit the difference in favor of the lake country sufficient to satisfy the candid inquirer that there must be potent causes in operation to produce such results. Some of these causes are apparent, and others have been little understood or appreciated. The staple exports, wheat and flour, have for years so notoriously found their best markets at the lake towns, that every cultivator, who reasons at all, has come to know the advantage of having his farm as near as possible to lake navigation. This has, for some years past, brought immigrants to the lake country from the river region of these states, and from the states of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, which formerly sent their immigrants mostly to the river borders. The river region, too, not being able to compete with its

northern neighbor in the production of wheat, and being well adapted to the growth of stock, has of late gone more into this department of husbandry. This business, in some portions, almost brings the inhabitants to a purely pastoral state of society, in which large bodies of land are of necessity used by a small number of inhabitants. These causes are obviously calculated to give a dense population to the lake country, and a comparatively sparse settlement to the river country. There are other causes not so obvious, but not less potent or enduring. Of these, the superior accessibility of the lake country from the great northern hives of emigration, New England and New York, is first deserving attention. By means of the Erie canal to Oswego and Buffalo, and the railway from Boston to Buffalo, with its radiating branches, these states are brought within a few hours' ride of our great central lake; and at an expense of time and money so small, as to offer but slight impediment to the removal of home, and household goods. The lakes, too, are about being traversed by a class of vessels, to be propelled by steam and wind, called Ericson propellers, which will carry immigrants with certainty and safety, and at greatly reduced expense.

European emigration hither, which first was counted by its annual thousands, then by its tens of thousands, has at length swelled to its hundred thousands, in the ports of New York and Quebec. These are both but appropriate doors to the lake country. It is clear, then, that the lake portion will be more populous than the river division of the great valley. This is one reason why the former should build up and sustain larger towns than the latter.

It has been proved that an extensive and increasing portion of the river region seeks an outlet for its surplus productions through the lakes. In addition to the proof given on that subject, we will compare the exports, in bread-stuffs and provisions, of New Orleans and Cleveland—the former for the year beginning 1st September, 1841, and ending 31st August, 1842; and the latter for the season of canal navigation, in 1842. All the receipts of Cleveland, by canal, are estimated as exports; as there is no doubt that she receives, coastwise and by wagon, more than enough to feed her people. The exports from New Orleans of the enumerated articles, and their price, are as stated in No. 4, vol. 7, of this magazine. Of the articles, then, of flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, whiskey, corn, and wheat—

New Orleans exported to the value of.....	\$4,446,989
Cleveland “ “	4,431,739

The other articles of bread-stuffs and provisions received at New Orleans during that year, from the interior, are of small amount, and obviously not sufficient for the consumption of the city. Not so with Cleveland. The other articles of grain and provision, shipped last year from this port, added to the above, will throw the balance decidedly in her favor. If we suppose, what cannot but be true, that all the other ports of the upper lakes sent eastward as much as Cleveland, we have the startling fact that this lake country, but yesterday brought under our notice, already sends abroad more than twice the amount of human food that is shipped from the great exporting city of New Orleans, the once-vaunted sole outlet of the Mississippi valley. Another striking fact, in favor of the position that on the lakes are to be the leading commercial cities of our valley, is the growth

of Cleveland, compared with Portsmouth. When the Ohio canal was completed, that portion of the state traversed by it, lying nearest to Portsmouth, was superior, in population and productiveness, to that which was nearest Cleveland. Portsmouth is at the river end of the canal, and Cleveland at the lake end.

Portsmouth, including the township in which it is situated, numbered, in 1830,.....	1,464
In 1840,.....	1,844

Increase of Portsmouth, including the township, in ten years,.. 380

Cleveland village numbered, in 1830,.....	1,076
“ city, including Ohio* city, in 1840,.....	7,648

Increase of Cleveland in ten years,..... 6,572

The case of Alton and Chicago is calculated to illustrate the same position. The former is so finely situated on the Mississippi, just above the entrance of the turbulent Missouri, at the best point for concentrating the river trade on all sides, and doing the business of one of the finest and best settled portions of Illinois, that we have thought it might yet excel St. Louis, and perhaps rival Cincinnati. The country in its rear was settled long before that lying back of Chicago; and Alton, in consequence, sooner became an important commercial point. How many inhabitants it had in 1830, we have at hand no means of ascertaining. Certain it is that, at that time, it was far more populous than Chicago.

In 1840, Alton numbered.....	2,340
“ Chicago “	4,470

Two short canals—one of about one hundred miles, connecting the Illinois canal with the Mississippi, at or near the mouth of Rock river; and the other of about one hundred and seventy-five miles, connecting the southern termination of the Wabash and Erie canal, at Terre Haute, with the Mississippi, at Alton—would, with the canals already finished or in progress, secure to the lakes not less, probably, than three-fourths of all the external trade of the river valley. With the Wabash and Erie, and the Miami canal, brought fairly into operation, the lakes will make a heavy draft on the trade of the river valley; and every canal, and railroad, and good highway, carried from the lakes, or lake improvements, into that valley, will add to the draft. The lake towns will then not only have a denser population in the region immediately about them, and monopolize all the trade of that region, but they will have at least half the trade of the river region. They will be nearer and more accessible to the great marts of trade and commerce of the old states and the old world; and this advantage will be growing, in consequence of the progressive removal of impediments to navigation between the lakes and the ocean.

The facts we have adduced, taken altogether, seem conclusive in favor of the lake towns. As a body, they come out of the investigation decidedly triumphant. But how shall we decide on their relative merits? There are several, whose citizens would claim pre-eminence for each—

* Ohio city is separated from Cleveland only by a narrow stream, and has grown since 1830.

Oswego, Buffalo, Cleveland, the Maumee town, (be it Maumee city or Toledo,) Detroit, and Chicago. Unless we have failed in our opening article, New Orleans, Montreal, and Quebec, although destined greatly to increase in size and wealth, may be left out of the contest.

Oswego has a fine position, as a point of shipment, between the lakes and the eastern states; and on the completion of the enlarged Welland canal, she will probably gain rapidly on Buffalo, in amount of goods forwarded west, and produce of the lakes sent to the Hudson. Her water-power will enable her to compete successfully with Rochester, in the manufacture of flour; and it must, before many years, be used extensively in other manufactures. As a point for the wholesale or jobbing of goods, she will be inferior to Buffalo. But both towns are too near, and too convenient to New York and Boston, to become great marts for the sale of European and eastern manufactures. Buffalo, in her suburb of Black-rock, has an almost exhaustless water-power, which, long within the period of forty-seven years, will make her a considerable manufacturing town. If the Erie canal enlargement should be delayed many years after the completion of the Welland canal, it would not surprise us to see Oswego overtake Buffalo, in size and business.

Buffalo has a cramped harbor; and, like Oswego, she has but a small country in her rear, to sustain her trade. Her position for carrying on foreign trade, after the enlargement of the Welland canal, will be less favorable than Cleveland, Maumee, Detroit, or Chicago. But before entering on the comparison of Buffalo and Cleveland, it will be well to lay down some principles that may be reasonably supposed to control or influence their future growth. And first, it may be asserted that a position favorable to an interchange of productions of a large country lying about it, is more advantageous than a situation which merely favors the passage of a great amount of productions through it. Boston and Charleston will illustrate this principle. The former exchanges, in her own market, the productions gathered into it from the coast, from the interior, and from foreign countries. Charleston is far less a gathering point of commodities, but she has a much larger value passing through the hands of her merchants.

Boston, between 1830 and 1840, <i>increased</i>	33,611
Charleston, “ “ “ <i>decreased</i>	1,628

Other causes, no doubt, aided in this result; but that under consideration we believe to have been the chief.

Second. While a country is new, the first exchanges will be of agricultural products of one climate for those of a different climate, and of agricultural products for manufactured articles of first necessity. As society progresses in wealth, in addition to these articles finer fabrics, and of greater variety, become the subjects of exchange; so that when its condition approximates that of England, much of its exchangeable capital comes to be composed of the highly wrought productions of the various cities—each mainly engaged in its own peculiar production, and therefore dependent on all the others for all its articles of consumption, except the one article of its own fabrication.

Let us apply these principles. Buffalo has the advantage of a greater transit of produce and goods. In the former, however, she is not very much in advance, and Cleveland is rapidly gaining upon her. In propor-

tion to her population, Cleveland is already far ahead. As to goods passing to the upper lakes from the old states and Europe, Buffalo will divide chiefly with Oswego the advantages of their receipt and shipment up the lakes. Hers, for some time to come, will be the lion's share—at least until the completion of the Canadian improvements. But these goods, though of great value, will employ no great amount of tonnage, especially when sugar, molasses, cotton, rice, and tobacco, shall be sent to the lakes by the Miami and Illinois canals, as will soon be the case.

Long within the period under consideration, the position of Cleveland will be much more favorable for concentrating the business of the surrounding country than that of Buffalo. Canada will, before that time, form a part of our commercial community, whether she be associated with us in the government, or not. She will then have about five millions of people. The American shores of the lakes lying above the latitude of Cleveland will be still more populous.

Cleveland is the lake port for the great manufacturing hive at the head of the Ohio river—so made by the Mahoning canal, which connects her with Pittsburg. She commands, and she will long command, by means of her five hundred miles of canal and slackwater navigation, the trade of a part of western Pennsylvania, most of western Virginia, and nearly all the east half of the state of Ohio, in the intercourse of their inhabitants with the lake coasts, the eastern states, Canada, and Europe. Her position is handsome; and although her water-power is small, the low price of coal will enable her to sustain herself as a respectable manufacturing town. Her harbor, like that of Buffalo, though easy of entrance, is not sufficiently capacious. If coal should not be found on Lake Huron, more accessible to navigation than the beds on the canal, south of Cleveland, this article will greatly increase her trade with the other lake ports. It is now sold on her wharves at eight cents per bushel.

A glance at a map of the country will suffice to show that Buffalo is not well situated to be a place for the exchange of agricultural productions of the cold regions for those of the warm regions of the valley. In that respect Cleveland, though not unrivalled, is clearly in a better position than Buffalo. As a point for exchanging the products of the field for manufactured goods, Buffalo will not probably, for any long time, have the advantage of Cleveland. Such traders as live within the influence of the canals and rivers that pour their surplus products into Cleveland, and stop short of New York and Boston, will, it seems to us, be more likely to purchase in Cleveland than in Buffalo. Not every man who supplies a neighborhood with store-goods relishes a voyage on the sometimes tempest-tost waters of the lake; and, as we before remarked, Buffalo now being but a few hours' ride from New York or Boston, by a pleasant and safe conveyance, will hardly stop many purchasers of goods from those great markets. On the completion of the Canadian canals, Cleveland will have the advantage of Buffalo, in foreign trade, for the following reasons:—Her articles of export will be cheaper; and by that time, as we believe, more abundant. By means of her canals and roads, Cleveland is a primary gathering-point of these articles. Not so Buffalo. To arrive at her store-houses, these products must be shipped from the store-houses of other ports up the lakes, where they must be presumed to bear nearly the same price as at Cleveland. The cost of this shipment, together with a profit on it, will then be added; and, by so much, enhance

their price in Buffalo. A vessel entering Lake Erie by the Welland canal, seeking a cargo for a foreign port, would therefore clearly prefer going to the head of the market, where it could be bought at the cheapest rate. If the difference in price of exportable products, between the market at Buffalo and the market at Cleveland, is such as to warrant the payment of a freight to Buffalo, and the cost of a transshipment there to the foreign vessel, there can be no doubt of its being the interest of the foreign vessel to proceed directly to Cleveland for her cargo; and so to any other considerable market on Lake Erie, and probably the lakes above. It seems likely, therefore, that within our allotted period of forty-seven years, Cleveland will be larger than Buffalo or Oswego.

Is it probable that, within the period under consideration, Cleveland will have a successful rival in Maumee, Detroit, or Chicago? It will be proper, on account of its comparative obscurity, and the peculiarity of its position, for us to explain in regard to Maumee.

The estuary of the Maumee river receives the tide of Lake Erie, and the waters of the river, at a point thirteen miles above its mouth. This estuary forms a harbor of Lake Erie, thirteen miles long, with a navigable channel of about one hundred rods. Its depth, in a low stage of the lake, is from six and a half to twenty-four feet. It is entered by a wide channel through the bay, having in its shoalest part 8.25 feet, when the lake is in its lowest stage. On the southwest end of this harbor, Maumee city and Perrysburg are situated; the former on the north, and the latter on the south bank. Both are on the same plane, sixty-three feet above the harbor. Eight miles below, on the north bank, is Toledo, most of it on a plane about forty-five feet high; and three or four miles below Toledo, is Manhattan, elevated in its highest part about twenty-five feet above the water. Their population, respectively, including the civil township, was, according to the census of 1840—Maumee city, 1,290; Perrysburg, 1,065; Toledo, 2,053; Manhattan, 282. Each of these places has access to the canal by a side-cut, and flight of locks. It is not our purpose to decide on their relative merits; but for convenience, and because that is the name of the harbor, we will call the successful point *Maumee*.

The contest is now fairly narrowed down to Cleveland, Maumee, Detroit, and Chicago. Which of these will be greatest in 1890? We have shown, in a previous article, (No. 2 of this series,) that the Miami canal route will command the eastern and European trade of Kentucky, most of Tennessee, large portions of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and small portions of Missouri, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Alabama. So long, then, as this eastern and European trade shall continue of paramount importance to the great country embraced by the description above, as controlled by the Miami canal, so long must the point most favorably situated at its lake termination have the advantage of the other lake towns. We have also shown, in the same article, that the interior exchanges, the exclusively home-trade of the North American valley, between the lake regions of the north and the river regions of the south, will be chiefly carried on through the same Miami canal. Of the towns now under comparison, Maumee is the smallest, and Detroit the largest. This, in the minds of the superficial, will be taken as conclusive in favor of the latter. The claim in favor of a town just emerging from the forest, to rival, at a future time, an already populous city, is usually met by ridicule from such

persons ; and, in general, is treated with little attention or respect by any class. We dare say that when the people of the city of old and renowned York were informed that, in the wilds of America, some settlers had named their collection of rude houses New York, they felt no other emotion than contempt, and treated the presumptuous ambition of the settlers with derision. It is probable that the inhabitants of old Boston held in like contempt the assumption of the name of their town by those who planted the capital of New England. Who, forty-seven years ago, would not have ridiculed the opinion, if any one had been visionary enough to express it, that, within that time, there would grow up, in the valley of the Ohio, a city containing fifty thousand inhabitants ; and that, within the same period, that part of the northwestern territory, now composing the state of Ohio, would contain nearly two millions of people ? We then had, as a basis of increase, but four millions ; whereas it is now over eighteen millions ;—and, including Canada, near twenty millions. For the past forty-seven years, our growth has been from four millions to near twenty millions. During the next forty-seven years it will be, according to our estimate, from near twenty millions, to seventy-seven millions ; or, according to the more elaborate and probably more correct estimate of Professor Tucker, fifty-five millions. This increase will certainly make it necessary that many towns, now small, should become great ; and sensible men, when contemplating their probable destiny for half a century in advance, will look at the natural and artificial advantages of our lake towns, rather than at the few thousands, more or less, of present population. The towns under consideration are all destined to become large. The leading advantages of Cleveland have been already stated. Detroit has a pleasant site, and a noble harbor. A few McAdam roads, leading north, northwest, and west, into the interior, would give her the direct trade of a large and fertile portion of Michigan. Until such roads, or some reasonably good substitute, are made, the railways leading north and west will, at least while they are new and in good order, make the chief gathering points of trade at their interior terminations, and at convenient points on their line. Pontiac, Ypsilanti, Ann Arbor, and other towns west, will cut off from Detroit, and centre in themselves the direct trade with the farmers, which, with good wagon-roads, without the railways, would have centered in Detroit. One train of cars will now bring to her warehouses what would have been brought to her stores by one hundred wagons. These wagons would have carried back store-goods and the products of Detroit mechanics, whereas these will now be bought in the interior towns. Most of the money borrowed by Michigan, and for which she is so largely in debt, has been expended with a view to center the trade of the state mainly in Detroit and Monroe ; but we much doubt whether the effect of the railways constructed for that purpose will not be the reverse of what is anticipated by their projectors. The effect of the Erie and Kalamazoo railway, from Toledo to Adrian, has been to convert a small cluster of houses at the latter place into a flourishing town of near two thousand inhabitants ; while at Toledo, its effect has been mainly perceptible in the filling a few warehouses with produce and goods, and leaving its business-street nearly deserted of wagons, and its hotels almost destitute of any but minute-men travellers. We do not believe that machines so expensive, and so complicated in their construction and operation as railways, can be sustained in an agricultural country, so new and

sparsely settled as Michigan. But whether this is a correct view or not, matters little to Detroit, if, as we suppose, her railways will but substitute trains of cars, passing through to her warehouses, for the throng of wagons that, but for her railways, would have crowded her broad avenue. The extent of country that will find in Detroit its most convenient point of exchanges, is not very great; yet sufficient, when well settled and improved, to sustain her in a considerable advance beyond her present size and business.

If we now narrow down our comparison by leaving out Detroit, we trust we shall be justified by our impartial readers.

Cleveland, Maumee, and Chicago, only remain to contest the prize. Of these, Maumee alone has a harbor capacious enough to accommodate the commerce of a great city. Good harbors may be made, without a very heavy cost, at Cleveland and Chicago, either by excavating the low grounds bordering their present harbors, or by break-waters and piers in the lakes outside. Some expenditure will also be needed to deepen the entrance into the Maumee harbor, and to remove obstructions within it. In water-power, Maumee has greatly the advantage over her rivals. Chicago has, and she can have none. Cleveland has but a small amount; whereas Maumee has it to an extent unrivalled by any town on the lake borders, above Buffalo—and it is so placed as to possess the utmost availability. Along her harbor, for thirteen miles, the canal passes on the margin of the high bank that overlooks it. This canal—a magnificent mill-race, averaging near seven feet deep, and seventy feet wide at the water-line—is fed from the Maumee river, seventeen miles above the head of the harbor, and is carried down on the level of low water in the river above, for twenty-two miles, to a point two miles below the head of the harbor; where it stands on a table-land, sixty-three feet above the harbor. Descending, then, by a lock seven feet, the next level is two miles long, and stands fifty-six feet above the harbor. Descending again, by a lock, seven feet, the level below is three and a half miles long, and stands forty-nine feet above the harbor. Again descending, within the city of Toledo, by four locks, thirty-four feet, the next and last level is nearly five miles long, and stands fifteen feet above the harbor. At many points of these thirteen miles, the water may be used conveniently from the canal to the harbor; and at most of these points, it may be used directly on the harbor. The Board of public works, in their last report, say:—"From the experience the Board have had, as to the quantity of water required to propel one pair of four and a half feet mill-stones, with all the labor-saving machinery necessary for the manufacture of superfine flour, they are fully of opinion that there will be power sufficient, that can be used on these levels, to propel two hundred and twenty-five pairs of stone." The lowest estimate for the driest season, allows it this amount of power. At other times, the amount is so great, that for all practical purposes, for many years to come, it may be set down as without limit. The current occasioned by the use of the great power estimated by the Board, would not be one mile an hour. If more should be used, so as to occasion a current of one mile and a half an hour, the obstruction to navigation would be rather nominal than real. The down-freights, for many years, will be three or four times as heavy as the up-freights. The current, then, would aid the movement of three or four tons, where it would hinder the movement of one ton. If, at some future day, the water furnished during the

dry seasons should not be sufficient for the machinery then needed at this point, steam may be used temporarily, during the lowest stage of water. Coal will be afforded at ten cents per bushel; and wood, for many years, will not cost more than \$1 50 to \$2 00 per cord. Will this be a good point for the use of water-power? This will depend on its facilities for procuring raw materials, and distributing the manufactured articles to consumers. As to facilities for procuring wheat for the manufacture of flour, there can be, as all will admit who know the country within reach of the canals, no better point in the states. Sheep are so rapidly multiplying in Indiana and Illinois, and are already so abundant in the Miami country of Ohio, that a supply of wool to an extent beyond any probable demand for its manufacture, may be safely anticipated. As to cotton, it has been proved that the Miami canal is the best channel for its import to the lakes. From Florence, in Alabama, it may be brought to the factory on the Maumee by a course three hundred miles shorter than its usual route to New Orleans. Should the Tennessee river fail to furnish enough cotton, the Arkansas, and the Mississippi above the mouth of the Arkansas, will be able to supply any additional demand. For the distribution of the manufactured goods, the whole west is easily accessible by means of lakes, canals, and rivers.

As a point for manufacturers and mechanics, the aids and facilities above-mentioned give Maumee an incontestible superiority over Cleveland and Chicago. Let us now compare their commercial advantages. Those of Cleveland have been already set forth to some extent, in comparing her claims with those of Buffalo. In the exchange of agricultural products of a warm and of a cold climate, Cleveland, by her canals and her connexion with the Ohio, can claim south, as against the Miami canal, no farther than western Virginia and eastern Kentucky. Maumee will supply the towns on the lakes Erie, Huron, and probably Ontario, with cotton, sugar, molasses, rum, (may its quantity be small,) rice, tobacco, hemp, (perhaps,) oranges, lemons, figs, and, at some future day, such naval stores as come from the pitch-pine regions of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Chicago will furnish a supply of the same articles to Lake Michigan, Lake Superior, when that lake becomes accessible to her navigation, and perhaps the northern portion of Lake Huron. How important these commodities are in modern commerce, need not be enlarged on in a magazine whose readers are mostly intelligent merchants. During the forty-seven years under consideration, the countries to be supplied with these articles from Maumee will continue to be more populous than those depending on Chicago for their supply. This position seems too obvious to need proof. It is clear, then, that as a point of exchange of agricultural products of different climates, Maumee has advantages over Chicago—the only place on the lakes that can set up any pretension of rivalry in this branch of trade.

What are the relative merits of these towns for the exchange of agricultural products for the manufactures of Europe and the eastern states? The claims of Cleveland, in this respect, have already been considered; and to some extent, also, those of Maumee. The control of Cleveland, south and southeast, embraces a country of about 40,000 square miles; being a quarter larger than Ireland. For early spring supplies, and light goods, this domain may be invaded from Philadelphia and Baltimore; but for the shipments east, and the bulk of goods from New York and Europe, it belongs legitimately to Cleveland.

Maumee will have in this trade the chief control of not less than 100,000 square miles—say 12,000 in Ohio, 30,000 in Kentucky, 30,000 in Indiana, 10,000 in Illinois, 13,000 in Tennessee, 5,000 in Mississippi and Alabama, and 5,000 in Michigan—to say nothing of her claim on small portions of Missouri and Arkansas. This domain is half as large as the kingdom of France, and twice as fertile. The Miami canal, connecting Maumee with Cincinnati, will, with that part of the Wabash and Erie which forms the common trunk after their junction, be two hundred and thirty-five miles long. The Wabash and Erie canal, from Maumee to Terre Haute, will be three hundred miles long. Of this, all but thirty-six miles, at its northern extremity, will be in operation the present season. By means of these canals, and the rivers with which they communicate, great part of this extensive region will enjoy the advantage of a cheap water transport for its rapidly increasing surplus.

Chicago, on the completion of the Illinois canal, may command, in its exchange of agricultural for manufactured products, an extent of territory as large as that controlled by Maumee. Admitting it to be larger, and of this our readers must judge for themselves, it does not seem to us probable that within forty-seven years it can even approximate, in population or wealth, to the comparatively old and well-peopled territory that comes within the range of the commercial influence of Maumee. We have not sufficient data on which to calculate the extent of country that will come under the future commercial power of Chicago. That it is to be very great, seems probable, from the fine position of that port in reference to the lake, and an almost interminable country southwest, west, and northwest of it. An extension of the Illinois canal, to the mouth of Rock river, seems destined to give her the control of the eastern trade throughout the whole extent of the upper Mississippi, except what she now has by means of the Illinois river. She will also probably participate with Maumee in the lake trade with the Missouri river and St. Louis. On the whole, we deem Chicago alone, of all the lake towns, entitled to dispute future pre-eminence with Maumee. The time may come, after the period under consideration, when the extent and high improvement of the country making Chicago its mart for commercial operations, may enable it at least to sustain the second place among the great towns of the North American valley, if not to dispute pre-eminence with the first.

When we properly consider the future populousness of our great valley; the tendency of modern improvements to build up large towns; the great and increasing inclination of population and trade to and through the lakes, and the decided advantages which Maumee possesses over any other lake port, we need not fear being over sanguine in anticipating for the leading town on that port a growth unrivalled by any city whose history has been recorded.

The conclusions to which we have come, in this and the preceding articles on internal trade, are not expected to be universally or generally acceptable. Many of them run counter to the hopes and preconceived opinions of too many persons for us to expect that they will be considered with candor, or judged with impartiality. The facts therein contained will be encountered with less alacrity. On these we rely. For these we ask a dispassionate and fair examination. If other and different conclusions are deducible from them than those we have drawn, it would give us pleasure to acknowledge our error, and correct it. But if, after a

thorough examination of the subject, we have gone beyond the anticipations of men, who, with more ability, have bestowed much less thought on it, let them not condemn merely because our conclusions seem to them extravagant; but let them examine for themselves, or, if they will not do that, let them hesitate before they pass a hasty judgment on what we have investigated with the utmost care, and with an earnest desire to arrive at the truth.

J. W. S.

ART. III.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XVII.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDUSTRIOUS CLASSES.

In 1820, for the first time, the census took an account of the number of persons who were severally employed in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. In the succeeding census, no notice was taken of the occupations of the people; but that of 1840 gave a fuller enumeration of the industrious classes, distinguishing them under the several heads of mining, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, navigating the ocean, internal navigation, and the learned professions. The result of each census may be seen in the following tables:—

TABLE I.

Showing the number of persons engaged in Agriculture, Commerce, and Manufactures in the several States, according to the census of 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Agriculture.	Commerce.	Manufactures.	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Agriculture.	Commerce.	Manufactures.
Maine,	55,031	4,297	7,643	South Carolina, ..	166,707	2,684	6,747
New Hampshire, ..	52,384	1,068	8,699	Georgia,	101,185	2,139	3,557
Vermont,	50,951	776	8,484	Southern States,	718,510	11,883	54,484
Massachusetts, ...	63,460	13,301	33,464	Alabama,	30,642	452	1,412
Rhode Island,	12,559	1,162	6,091	Mississippi,	22,033	294	650
Connecticut,	50,518	3,581	17,541	Louisiana,	53,941	6,251	6,041
New England S.,	284,903	24,185	81,922	Tennessee,	101,919	882	7,860
New York,	247,648	9,113	60,038	Arkansas,	3,613	79	179
New Jersey,	40,812	1,830	15,941	Southwestern S.	212,148	7,958	16,142
Pennsylvania,	140,801	7,083	60,215	Kentucky,	132,161	1,617	11,779
Delaware,	13,259	533	2,821	Ohio,	110,991	1,459	18,956
Maryland,	79,135	4,771	18,640	Indiana,	61,315	429	3,229
Dist. of Columbia,	853	312	2,184	Illinois,	12,395	233	1,007
Middle States,	522,508	23,842	159,839	Missouri,	14,247	495	1,952
Virginia,	276,422	4,509	32,336	Michigan,	1,468	392	196
North Carolina, ..	174,196	2,551	11,844	Northwestern S.	332,577	4,625	37,110
Total of United States,	2,070,646	72,493	349,506				

TABLE II.

Showing the number of persons engaged in Mining, Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, Navigating the Ocean, Internal Navigation, and the Learned Professions, according to the census of 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Mining.	Agriculture.	Commerce.	Manufactures.	Navigating the Ocean.	Internal navigation.	Learned professions.	Total.
Maine,	36	101,630	2,921	21,879	10,091	539	1,889	
New Hampshire, ..	13	77,949	1,379	17,826	452	198	1,640	
Vermont,	77	73,150	1,303	13,174	41	146	1,563	
Massachusetts,	499	87,837	8,063	85,176	27,153	372	3,804	
Rhode Island,	35	16,617	1,348	21,271	1,717	228	457	
Connecticut,	151	56,955	2,743	27,932	2,700	431	1,697	
New England S.,	811	414,138	17,757	187,258	42,154	1,914	11,050	675,082
New York,	1,898	455,954	28,468	173,193	5,511	10,167	14,111	
New Jersey,	266	56,701	2,283	27,004	1,143	1,625	1,627	
Pennsylvania,	4,603	207,533	15,338	105,883	1,815	3,951	6,706	
Delaware,	5	16,015	467	4,060	401	235	199	
Maryland,	320	72,046	3,281	21,529	717	1,528	1,666	
Dist. of Columbia,		384	240	2,278	126	80	203	
Middle States, ...	7,092	808,633	50,077	333,947	9,713	17,586	24,512	1,251,580
Virginia,	1,995	318,771	6,361	54,147	582	2,952	3,866	
North Carolina, ...	589	217,095	1,734	14,322	327	379	1,086	
South Carolina, ...	51	198,363	1,958	10,325	381	348	1,481	
Georgia,	574	209,383	2,428	7,984	262	352	1,250	
Florida,	1	12,117	481	1,177	435	118	204	
Southern States, ..	3,210	955,729	12,962	87,955	1,987	4,149	7,887	1,073,879
Alabama,	96	177,439	2,212	7,195	256	758	1,514	
Mississippi,	14	139,724	1,303	4,151	33	100	1,506	
Louisiana,	1	79,289	8,549	7,565	1,322	662	1,018	
Arkansas,	41	26,355	215	1,173	3	39	301	
Tennessee,	103	227,739	2,217	17,815	55	302	2,042	
Southwestern S.,	255	650,546	14,496	37,899	1,669	1,861	6,381	713,107
Missouri,	742	92,408	2,522	11,100	39	1,885	1,469	
Kentucky,	331	197,738	3,448	23,217	44	968	2,487	
Ohio,	704	272,579	9,201	66,265	212	3,323	5,663	
Indiana,	233	148,806	3,076	20,590	89	627	2,257	
Illinois,	782	105,337	2,506	13,185	63	310	2,021	
Michigan,	40	56,521	728	6,890	24	166	904	
Wisconsin,	794	7,047	479	1,814	14	209	259	
Iowa,	217	10,469	355	1,629	13	78	365	
Northwestern S.,	3,843	890,905	22,315	144,690	498	7,566	15,425	1,085,242
Total,	15,211	3,719,951	117,607	791,749	56,021	33,076	65,255	4,798,870

TABLE III.

Comparative View of the number of persons employed in Agriculture, Commerce, and Manufactures, in the five great divisions of the United States, in 1820 and 1840, and the relative proportions of each class.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	Number of persons employed in			Total.	Centesimal proportions.			
	Agriculture.	Com-merce.	Manu-factures.		Agriculture.	Com-merce.	Manu-factures.	
New England S.,	1820	284,903	24,185	81,922	391,010	72.8	6.2	21.
	1840	414,138	17,757	187,258	619,153	66.9	2.9	30.2
Middle States,.....	1820	522,508	23,842	159,839	706,189	74.	3.4	22.6
	1840	808,633	50,077	333,947	1,192,657	67.8	4.2	28.
Southern States,...	1820	718,510	11,883	54,484	784,877	91.6	1.5	6.9
	1840	955,729	12,962	87,955	1,056,646	90.5	1.2	8.3
Southwestern S.,...	1820	212,148	7,958	16,142	236,248	89.8	3.4	6.8
	1840	650,546	14,496	37,899	702,941	92.5	2.1	5.4
Northwestern S.,...	1820	332,577	4,625	37,119	364,321	88.5	1.3	10.2
	1840	890,905	22,315	144,690	1,057,910	84.2	2.2	13.6
Total U. States,	1820	2,070,646	72,493	349,506	2,483,645	83.4	2.9	13.7
	1840	3,719,951	117,607	791,749	4,629,307	80.4	2.5	17.1

TABLE IV.

Showing the proportions in which the several industrious classes of the Union, according to the census of 1840, are distributed among its great geographical divisions.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	Per centage of persons employed in—							Total.
	Mining.	Agri-culture.	Com-merce.	Manu-factures.	Naviga-ting the Ocean.	Internal naviga-tion.	Learn-ed pro-fessions.	
New England States,.....	5.3	11.1	15.1	23.6	75.3	5.8	16.9	14.1
Middle States,	46.7	21.7	42.6	42.2	17.3	53.2	37.6	26.1
Southern States,.....	21.1	24.8	11.	11.1	3.5	5.6	12.1	22.3
Southwestern States,.....	1.6	18.5	12.3	4.8	3.	12.5	9.8	14.9
Northwestern States,.....	25.3	23.9	19.	18.3	.9	22.9	23.6	22.6
	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.

TABLE V.

Showing the ratio which the number of persons in the several industrious classes of each great geographical division of the States bears to the whole population of such division, according to the census of 1840.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	Number of persons employed in—							Whole laboring class, as 1 to
	Mining, as 1 to	Agri-culture, as 1 to	Com-merce, as 1 to	Manu-factures, as 1 to	Naviga-ting the Ocean, as 1 to	Internal naviga-tion, as 1 to	Learn-ed pro-fessions, as 1 to	
New England States,.....	2755	5.4	126	12.	53	1161	202	3.31
Middle States,	723	6.3	102	15.3	528	291	209	4.08
Southern States,.....	1038	3.5	257	37.9	1677	802	422	3.01
Southwestern States,.....	8806	3.4	155	56.6	1345	1206	351	3.14
Northwestern States,.....	1075	4.6	185	28.5	8336	546	267	3.8
	1122	4.58	145	21.5	304	516	261	3.55

It seems, by the preceding tables, that the whole number of persons employed in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, bears nearly the same proportion to the whole population in both enumerations. In 1820, these classes, amounting to 2,483,645 persons, in a population of 9,638,131, were 25.7 per cent of the whole number; and, in 1840, the same classes amounted to 4,629,307 persons in a population of 17,069,453, which is 27.1 per cent. If the four classes, then added, be taken into the estimate, the proportion will be 28 per cent. This proportion must be regarded as a very large one, when it is recollected that the three classes in question comprehend a very small number of females, and that one-half, or very nearly half of the males, are under seventeen years of age.

The proportion of adult males, in the industrious classes of Great Britain, seems to be nearly the same as in the United States, so far as we can compare them by means of the very different plans adopted in the two countries of enumerating those classes by the census. There, only the males of twenty years of age and upwards are reckoned; whilst here, all persons employed in the several branches of industry are counted, without distinction of age, sex, or condition.

In 1831, the whole number of males in Great Britain, twenty years of age and upwards, was 3,944,511, who were thus distributed, according to the census:—

Employed in agriculture, as occupiers or laborers,.....	1,243,057	} equal to 31.5 p. cent.
“ manufactures,.....	404,317	
“ in retail trade or handicraft,.....	1,159,867	
Laborers, employed in labor not agricultural,.....	608,712	} “ 39.7 “
Servants,.....	78,669	
Capitalists, professional and other educated men,.....	214,390	} “ 28.8 “
Other males,.....	235,499	
Total,.....	3,944,511	100.

From this enumeration, it appears that, exclusive of the two last mentioned classes, amounting to 449,889 persons, there were 3,494,622 males above the age of twenty who were engaged in profitable, and, for the most part, manual occupations; and, consequently, according to Mr. G. R. Porter, one of the most accurate statistical writers of that country, the residue, who were not thus engaged, constitute 114 out of every 1,000 males of twenty years of age; and if the males included in the army and navy, and as seamen in registered vessels, be added to the whole population, the number will be reduced to 106 of every 1,000, or 10.6 per cent.

To ascertain the number of the industrious class in the United States, correspondent to that in the British enumeration, we must deduct, from the whole number returned by the census of 1840, the slaves comprehended under that class, the free colored persons, the white females, the white males under twenty years of age, and the professional men, for none of which deductions, except the last, have we any data at once precise and authentic. The following conjectural estimate, however, is probably not wide of the truth. 1. *The slaves.* As in this part of the population, both women and children are employed in field labor, especially in the cotton growing states, we are led to assign to the laboring class a far greater proportion of the whole number than is usual; but, on the other hand, that proportion must be greatly reduced when we recol-

lect that nearly 34 per cent of the whole number are under ten years of age; and that much the larger part of the females, as well as a considerable number of the males, both adults and boys, are employed as household servants, who were not reckoned in this part of the census. When, to these deductions, we make a fair allowance for the infirm and superannuated, two-fifths of the whole number would seem to be a liberal estimate for the slave labor comprehended in the census; and this rough estimate receives confirmation from a careful inspection of the returns, and a comparison between the number of productive laborers in the slaveholding and other states. 2. The occupations of the free colored being nearly the same as those of the slaves, we will also deduct two-fifths of their whole number. 3. *The white females.* These are rarely employed in any branch of industry noted in the census, except in the manufactories of cotton, and other woven fabrics. The whole number thus employed, in doors and out of doors, was, according to the census of 1840, 109,612. If, in some of these establishments, the females are the most numerous, in others, there are few or none. We will, therefore, suppose one-half of the whole number to be females. 4. *The white males under twenty years of age.* In the absence of all other data, let us suppose that the number of this description is equal to the whole number of white males between fifteen and twenty years of age, (756,022,) after deducting the scholars attending the colleges and grammar schools, (180,503.) This would make the boys, comprehended in the industrious classes, 575,519, though the number can scarcely be so great.

If the several deductions be made, in conformity with the preceding views, the result will be as follows:—

In all the departments of industry,.....	persons	4,798,870
Deduct, for two-fifths of the colored population,.....		1,149,598
“ the white females employed in manufactures,.....		54,806
“ white males under 20 years of age,.....		575,519
“ professional men,.....		65,255
		1,845,178
The whole number of white males above 20 years of age employed in trade and manual labor,.....		2,953,692

Now, the whole number of free white males over twenty years of age, was, by the census of 1840, 3,318,837; from which, if the above number of 2,953,692 be deducted, the difference, which is 365,145, and which comprehends the professional, the superannuated, and the idle classes, is equivalent to 110 adult males out of 1,000, or 11 per cent. If, however, two-fifths be too large a proportion for the working slaves reckoned in the census, as many will think, a reduction of their number will, to the same extent, increase the number of white male laborers, and diminish the number of the professional and unproductive class. But the proportion of this class is not likely to differ much in the two countries; for, in truth, nineteen-twentieths of the men in every country are compelled to work by their hands or their wits for the means of subsistence, suited to their habits and tastes, and the difference between different countries is not so much in the quantity of the labor performed, as in its quality and efficiency.

Whilst all civilized countries are so much alike as to the amount of labor put in requisition to satisfy human wants, they differ very greatly as to the distribution of that labor among the three principal branches of industry; and the difference is very great in this respect, not only between

the several states, but in the whole United States, in 1820 and 1840. It is seen by Table III, that the proportion of labor employed in agriculture and commerce had diminished; while that employed in manufactures had, in twenty years, increased from 13.7 per cent to 17.1 per cent of the whole. The positive increase in that time was from 349,506 persons employed in 1820, to 791,749 employed in 1840.

This increase was greatest in the New England states, whose manufacturing population had enlarged from 21 per cent, in 1820, to 30.2 per cent, in 1840; in which time the same class of population had nearly trebled in Massachusetts, and more than trebled in Rhode Island. In the southwestern states, alone, the proportion of agriculture had increased; in all the others it had diminished. In the middle and northwestern, the proportion employed in commerce experienced a small increase. In several of the states, not only was the proportion less in 1840 than it had been in 1820, but the number of persons actually employed in commerce was less. This was the case in Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maryland, and, to a smaller extent, in Delaware, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Is this falling off to be attributed solely to the loss of our legitimate share of the West India trade since 1830, or in part, also, to some difference in the mode of taking the census, by which a part of the seamen, who, in 1840, were separately numbered, were, in 1820, reckoned among the persons employed in commerce? The first cause seems quite adequate to the effect produced.

If we suppose that the whole labor of Great Britain is distributed among the several departments of industry in the same proportions as the labor of the males above twenty years of age, the difference of distribution in that country and this is very striking. In that country, agricultural labor is but 31.5 per cent of the whole; here, it is 77.5 per cent. In that country, manufactures and trade employ 28.8 per cent of the whole labor; here, they employ but 18.9 per cent. Each country employs its industry in that way which is most profitable and best suited to its circumstances.

Table IV shows how the different departments of productive industry are distributed among the five great divisions of the states, in centesimal proportions. Two-thirds of the mining labor is in the middle and southern states. The southern states stand foremost in agricultural labor, though they hold but the third rank in population. The middle states employ the least labor in agriculture, in proportion to their numbers. In commerce, however, they employ the most, and next to them, the New England states. The same two divisions take the lead in manufactures, they contributing nearly two-thirds of the labor employed in this branch of industry. Three-fourths of the seamen are furnished by New England, of which nine-tenths belong to Massachusetts and Maine. More than half the labor employed in inland navigation is in the middle states, and, next to them, are the northwestern states.

Of that department of industry which comprehends the learned professions, and which is at once the best fruit of civilization, and the most powerful agent of its further advancement, the New England and middle states have the largest proportion, though there is less diversity in this than in the other industrious classes.

Of the individual states, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia employ the greatest number in mining; in agriculture, New York, Virginia,

and Ohio ; in commerce, New York, Pennsylvania, Louisiana, and Massachusetts ; in ocean navigation, next to Massachusetts and Maine, but far behind, is New York ; in internal navigation, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Virginia furnish 20,000 out of the 30,000 employed.

In Table V, we see the various ratios which the persons employed in the several branches of industry bear to the whole population in the several divisions of the states. According to this table, without regarding local diversities, taking the whole United States together, the great classes of occupation range themselves in the following order, viz :—

The number of persons employed in agriculture is.....	1 out of	4½
“ “ “ manufactures is.....	“	21½
“ “ “ commerce is.....	“	145
“ “ “ the learned professions is.....	“	261
“ “ “ navigating the ocean.....	“	304
“ “ “ internal navigation,.....	“	516
“ “ “ mining,.....	“	1122

Taking all the employments together, the number engaged is 355 out of every 1,000 of the whole population ; which implies, on the grounds already stated, that there can be but a very small proportion of males who are not occupied in some mode of profitable industry.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EDUCATION.

IN addition to the new subjects already mentioned, the census of 1840, also, for the first time, embraced the statistics of education. For this purpose, all schools for the instruction of youth were divided into three classes, viz : 1. Universities or colleges. 2. Academies and grammar schools. 3. Primary schools ; and the number of each description, together with the number of scholars attending each, in the several states, were given. It also enumerated the scholars educated at the public charge in each state, and the number of white persons over twenty years of age who could not read and write.

Of the many substantial benefits of educating the people, it is scarcely necessary now to speak ; since, wherever the experiment has been made, it has been found to favor industry, prudence, temperance, and honesty, and thus eminently to conduce to the respectability and happiness of a people. But the motives for giving knowledge a wide diffusion are peculiarly strong in this country, where the people, being the sole source of political power, all legislation and measures of public policy must, in a greater or less degree, reflect the opinions and feelings of the great mass of the community, and be wise and liberal, or weak and narrow-minded, according to the character of those by whose suffrages authority is given and is taken away. If the body of the people be not instructed and intelligent, how can they understand their true interests—how distinguish the honest purposes of the patriot from the smooth pretences of the hypocrite—how feel the paramount obligations of law, order, justice, and public faith ?

Table showing the number of Universities or Colleges, of Academies and Grammar Schools, of Primary and Common Schools, in the United States, with the number of Scholars of each description, the number of Scholars at public charge, and the number of White Persons over 20 years of age who cannot read and write, according to the census of 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Universities and colleges.	Students.	Academies & Grammar Schools.	Scholars.	Primary Schools.	Scholars.	Scholars at public charge.	Illiterate.
Maine,.....	4	266	86	8,477	3,385	164,477	60,212	3,241
New Hampshire,....	2	433	68	5,799	2,127	83,632	7,715	942
Vermont,.....	3	233	46	4,113	2,402	82,817	14,701	2,276
Massachusetts,.....	4	769	251	16,746	3,362	160,257	158,351	4,448
Rhode Island,.....	2	324	52	3,664	434	17,355	10,749	1,614
Connecticut,.....	4	832	127	4,865	1,619	65,739	10,912	526
New England States,	19	2,857	630	43,664	13,329	574,277	262,640	13,041
New York,.....	12	1,285	505	34,715	10,593	502,367	27,075	44,452
New Jersey,.....	3	443	66	3,027	1,207	52,583	7,128	6,385
Pennsylvania,.....	20	2,034	290	15,970	4,978	179,989	73,908	33,940
Delaware,.....	1	23	20	764	152	6,924	1,571	4,832
Maryland,.....	12	813	133	4,289	565	16,851	6,624	11,817
District of Columbia,	2	224	26	1,389	29	851	482	1,033
Middle States,	50	4,822	1,040	60,154	17,514	741,565	116,788	102,459
Virginia,.....	13	1,097	382	11,083	1,561	35,331	9,791	58,787
North Carolina,.....	2	158	141	4,398	632	14,937	124	56,609
South Carolina,.....	1	168	117	4,326	566	12,520	3,524	20,615
Georgia,.....	11	622	176	7,878	601	15,561	1,333	30,717
Florida,.....	18	732	51	925	14	1,303
Southern States,.....	27	2,045	834	28,417	3,411	79,274	14,786	168,031
Alabama,.....	2	152	114	5,018	639	16,243	3,213	22,592
Mississippi,.....	7	454	71	2,553	382	8,236	107	8,360
Louisiana,.....	12	989	52	1,995	179	3,573	1,190	4,861
Arkansas,.....	8	300	113	2,614	6,567
Tennessee,.....	8	492	152	5,539	983	25,090	6,907	58,531
Southwestern States,	29	2,087	397	15,405	2,296	55,756	11,417	100,911
Missouri,.....	6	495	47	1,926	642	16,788	526	19,457
Kentucky,.....	10	1,419	116	4,906	952	24,641	429	40,018
Ohio,.....	18	1,717	73	4,310	5,186	218,609	51,812	35,394
Indiana,.....	4	322	54	2,946	1,521	48,189	6,929	38,100
Illinois,.....	5	311	42	1,967	1,241	34,876	1,683	27,502
Michigan,.....	5	158	12	485	975	29,701	998	2,173
Wisconsin,.....	2	65	77	1,937	315	1,701
Iowa,.....	1	25	63	1,500	1,118
Northwestern States,	48	4,222	347	16,630	10,657	376,241	62,692	165,463
Total,.....	173	16,233	3,248	164,270	47,207	1,845,113	468,323	549,905

Table showing the Ratio which the number of College Students, of Scholars in the Grammar Schools and in the Primary Schools, and the number of the Illiterate in each State bear to the white population of such State.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rat. to white pop. of sch. in			Ratio to Illiter'e.	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rat. to white pop. of sch. in			Ratio to Illiter'e.
	Colleges.	Gram. Schools.	Primary Schools.			Colleges.	Gram. Schools.	Primary Schools.	
Maine,.....	As 1 to 1883	As 1 to 59.	As 1 to 3.	As 1 to 154.	Florida,.....	As 1 to 38.1	As 1 to 30.2	As 1 to 21.4	
N. Hamp,..	656	48.8	3.4	300.	Southern S.,	939	67.5	24.2	11.4
Vermont,....	1250	70.8	3.5	128.	Alabama,....	2205	66.8	20.6	14.8
Massachus.,	948	43.5	4.5	164.	Mississippi, ..	394	70.1	21.7	21.4
R. Island,....	326	28.8	6.	65.4	Louisiana,..	160	79.4	44.3	32.6
Connecticut,	362	62.6	4.6	574.	Arkansas,	258.	29.6	11.8
N. Engl'd S.	774	50.6	3.8	169.6	Tennessee, ..	1302	115.	25.5	10.9
New York, .	1851	68.5	4.7	53.5	S'western S.	666	90.2	24.9	13.7
New Jersey,	793	116.	6.7	55.	Missouri,	654	168.	19.3	16.6
Pennsylvan.	825	105.	9.3	49.4	Kentucky, ..	416	120.	23.9	14.7
Delaware,....	2546	76.6	8.4	12.1	Ohio,.....	874	348.	6.8	42.4
Maryland,....	391	74.3	16.9	26.9	Indiana,.....	2107	233.	14.	17.8
Dist. of Col.,	136	2.2	36.6	29.6	Illinois,.....	1518	240.	13.5	17.1
Middle S.,...	998	80.	6.5	47.	Michigan,....	1382	436.	7.1	97.3
Virginia,	678	60.9	20.9	12.6	Wisconsin,	473.	15.9	18.
N. Carolina,	3662	110.	32.4	8.5	Iowa,.....	1717.	28.6	38.4
S. Carolina,	1542	59.9	20.7	12.5	N'west'n S.,	912	231.	10.2	23.3
Georgia,	655	51.7	26.2	13.2	Total,....	874	86.37	7.69	25.27

The preceding table shows that the number of college students amounts to somewhat more than a nine-hundredth part of the white population; that the scholars of the academies and grammar schools are ten times as numerous as the college students; that the scholars of the primary schools are near twelve times as numerous as the last; and that the scholars of every description are equal to just one-seventh of the white population. The relative numbers, distributed in centesimal proportions, would be as follows:—

College students,.....	0.8 per cent.
Scholars in grammar schools,.....	8.1 “
“ primary schools,.....	91.1 “

100.

If the free colored be added to the white population, in consideration of that class furnishing a proportion of the scholars in the primary schools, the proportion which each description of scholars bears to the free population would be thus reduced, viz: college students, as 1 to 8.98; scholars in grammar schools, as 1 to 88. $\frac{7}{8}$; scholars in primary schools, as 1 to 7. $\frac{9}{16}$; and the scholars of every description, as 1 to 7. $\frac{19}{16}$.

The diversity among the states, as to the proportion of scholars, is principally in those of the primary schools. In the number of college students, no division of the states has greatly above or below the average of 1 to 874 of the white population; and in the scholars of the grammar schools, the northwestern states differ widely from the other divisions.

But in the primary, or elementary schools, the proportion in New England is nearly double that of the middle states, nearly three times that of the northwestern states, and between six and seven times as great as those of the southern and southwestern states. The difference as to the number of illiterate, is yet greater. If the other divisions be compared with New England, the number who cannot read and write is three and a half times as great in the middle states; seven times as great in the northwestern states; twelve times in the southwestern states; and nearly fifteen times in the southern states.

These diversities are attributable to several causes, but principally to the difference in density of numbers, and in the proportion of town population. In a thinly-peopled country, it is very difficult for a poor man to obtain schooling for his children, either by his own means, or by any means that the state is likely to provide; but where the population is dense, and especially in towns, it is quite practicable to give to every child the rudiments of education without onerously taxing the community. This is almost literally true in all the New England states and New York, and is said to be the case in the kingdom of Prussia. It is true that, in the northwestern states, and particularly those which are exempt from slaves, the number of their elementary schools is much greater than that of the southern or southwestern states, although their population is not much more dense; but, besides that, the settlers of those states, who were mostly from New England or New York, brought with them a deep sense of the value and importance of the schools for the people; they were better able to provide such schools, in consequence of their making their settlements, as had been done in their parent states, in townships and villages. We thus see that Michigan, which has but a thin population even in the settled parts of the state, has schools for nearly one-seventh of its population. The wise policy pursued first in New England, and since by the states settled principally by their emigrants, of laying off their territory into townships and of selling all the lands of a portion before those of other townships are brought into market, has afforded their first settlers the benefits of social intercourse and of co-operation. In this way, they were at once provided with places of worship, and with schools adapted to their circumstances.

The census also shows a great difference among the states, as to the number of scholars at public charge; but this difference is owing principally to the different modes in which they have severally provided for popular instruction. In some, the primary schools are supported by a tax, as Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont; in others, by a large public fund, as in Connecticut, Virginia, and some others; and others, again, partly by the public treasury, and partly by private contribution, as in New York. In both the last cases, the children are not considered as educated at the public expense, though the difference between them and the first class of cases is essentially the same, so far as regards the public bounty.

Of the three descriptions of schools, the elementary, by their great number, seem to be far the most deserving of consideration, if we look merely to their direct influence on individuals; but if we regard the political and general effects of each, it is not easy to say which contributes most to the well-being of the community. The primary schools give instruction and improvement to the bulk of the voters, the great reservoir

of political power. The grammar schools educate that class whose views and feelings mainly constitute public opinion on all questions of national policy, legislation, and morals, and who thus give political power its particular directions. It is from the least numerous class—the collegiate—that the most efficient legislators, statesmen, and other public functionaries are drawn, as well as those professional men who take care of the health, the rights, and the consciences of men.

There is another important class of instructors of which the census takes no separate notice, that is, the ministers of religion, who, once a week or oftener, besides performing the rites of worship, each according to the modes of his sect, indoctrinate large congregations in articles of faith, and inculcate man's religious and moral duties. The number of ministers of every denomination was computed to exceed 20,000, at the taking of the last census, and the deeply interesting character of the topics on which they treat gives to this class of teachers a most powerful influence over the minds of men; but fortunately it is so divided by the mutual counteractions of rival sects, that it can no longer upheave the foundations of civil society, or seriously affect the public peace; yet the influence of the ministers over their respective followers is rather enhanced than diminished by the rivalry of different sects, and the more as they are all improving in information and oratorical talent. They now bear away the palm of eloquence, both from the bar and the deliberative assemblies. If this vast moral power spends its force yet oftener on speculative subtleties, than on awakening emotion or influencing conduct; if it aims, in a word, more to teach men what to think, than how to feel or to act, this circumstance affords, perhaps, as much matter of congratulation as regret, when we recollect how easy the pure, mild, and healthy influence which religion might exert, and which we sometimes see it exert, could be converted into bitter intolerance and the excesses of wild fanaticism.

There is yet another source of popular instruction—the periodical press—which is noticed by the census as a branch of manufacturing industry, and which is exclusively occupied, not only with worldly affairs, but with the events of the passing hour. It keeps every part of the country informed of all that has occurred in every other, that is likely to touch men's interests or their sympathies—volcanoes, earthquakes, tempests, conflagrations, and explosions. Nor, in attending to the vast, does it overlook the minute. No form of human suffering escapes its notice, from the miseries of war, pestilence, and famine, to the failure of a merchant, or the loss of a pocket-book. Every discovery in science or art, every improvement in husbandry or household economy, in medicine or cosmetics, real or supposed, is immediately proclaimed, as are all achievements in any pursuit of life, whether in catching whales or shooting squirrels, or in riding, running, jumping, or walking. There scarcely can be an overgrown ox or hog make its appearance on a farm, or even an extraordinary apple or turnip, but their fame is heralded through the land. Here we learn every legislative measure, from that which establishes a tariff to that which gives a pension—every election or appointment, from a president to a postmaster—the state of the market, the crops, and the weather. Not a snow is suffered to fall, or a very hot or very cold day to appear, without being recorded. We may here learn what every man in every city pays for his loaf or his beefsteak, and what he gives, in fact, for almost all he eats, drinks, and wears. Here, deaths and marriages, crimes and follies, fash-

ions and amusements, exhibit the busy, ever-changing drama of human life. Here, too, we meet with the speculations of wisdom and science, the effusions of sentiment, and the sallies of wit; and it is not too much to say, that the jest that has been uttered in Boston or Louisville, is, in little more than a week, repeated in every town in the United States: or that the wisdom or the pleasantry, the ribaldry or the coarseness, exhibited in one of the halls of Congress, is made by the periodical press to give pleasure or distaste to one hundred thousand readers.

Nor is its agency limited to our own concerns. It has eyes to see, and ears to hear, all that is said and done in every part of the globe—and the most secluded hermit, if he only takes a newspaper, sees, as in a telescope, and often as in a mirror, everything that is transacted in the most distant regions; nor can any thing memorable befall any considerable part of our species, that it is not forthwith communicated, with the speed of steam, to the whole civilized world.

The newspaper press is thus a most potent engine, both for good and evil. It too often ministers to some of our worst passions, and lends new force to party intolerance and party injustice.

Incenditque animum dictis, atque aggeratiras.

But its benefits are incalculably greater. By communicating all that is passing in the bustling world around us, whether it be little or great, virtue or crime, useful or pernicious, pleasurable or painful, without those exaggerations and forced congruities which we meet with in other forms of literature, it imparts much of the same just knowledge of men and things as experience and observation. Its novelties give zest to life. It affords occupation to the idle, and recreation to the industrious. It saves one man from torpor, and relieves another from care. Even in its errors, it unconsciously renders a homage to virtue, by imputing guilt to those it attacks, and praising none to whom it does not impute merit and moral excellence. Let us hope that it will, in time, without losing any of its usefulness, less often offend against good taste and good manners, and show more fairness in political controversy.

According to the census of 1840, there were then in the United States 138 daily newspapers, 1,142 issued weekly, and 125 twice or thrice a week, besides 227 other periodical publications. Such a diffusion of intelligence and information as these numbers, has never existed in any other country or age.

ART. IV.—THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM.

NUMBER II.

ITS EXPEDIENCY AND NECESSITY.

IN our first number, we attempted to show that the doctrine of protection was designed not so much for the rich, as for the poor—not for the capitalist, but for the laborer; and that this doctrine was interwoven with our institutions, so that the object for which our government was formed could not be secured without its exercise. We also attempted to show, and we think succeeded in showing, that this doctrine was free from all constitutional objections. It was there seen that the power to “lay duties” was restrained by nothing but the “general welfare” of the coun-

try, and that this general welfare required the exercise of the protective principle. It was also clearly shown that the phrase, "to regulate commerce," engrafted upon the constitution, was understood by the people to include the power "to encourage manufactures"—that this meaning of the phrase was settled by the usage of all nations, and particularly by the usage of the states under the confederation; and that, when this power was granted to Congress, it was understood by the framers of the constitution, and by the people who ratified it, that the commercial power thus granted included the power to foster our own industry, and protect our manufacturing interests. It was further shown that the first Congress which assembled under the constitution, composed of many of the distinguished statesmen who framed the constitution, and who were members of the state conventions where that instrument was ratified—that this Congress were *unanimous* in the opinion that the constitution gave full power in the premises; and that they passed a protective tariff bill, setting forth, in the preamble, that duties were imposed "for the discharge of the debt of the United States, and for the encouragement and protection of manufactures." It was likewise shown that this cotemporaneous construction of the constitution, given by its authors, had been acquiesced in by all departments of the government, for more than half a century; that every President and every Congress had given it their support; and that there had never been a moment, since the passage of the first tariff by the first Congress, when protection had not been the law of the land.

From this view of the argument, I think it will be seen that whatever may be thought of the expediency, there can be no doubt of the constitutionality of protection.

The propriety of sustaining our own interests, and fostering our own industry, is so obvious, that little need be said upon the subject, further than to answer some of the principal objections which have been made against this policy. But before we consider these objections, it may be well to take a passing notice of the doctrine of "free trade," which is put forth at the present day with some degree of confidence. And what is this boasted doctrine of free trade? If it means anything which is intelligible, it means that all duties on imports should be removed; and that all laws and treaties which secure any advantage to our own commerce and shipping, over that of other nations, should be annulled. In a word, this doctrine goes on the ground that an American Congress should cease to legislate for the American people, and legislate for the world. I do not say that the advocates of free trade avow this, or that this is their design; but I do say that their principles involve this idea—and if they were carried out to their full extent, such would be the practical result. The doctrine of free trade also implies "direct taxation;" and the advocate of it must, to be consistent, maintain that all the burdens of the government should be borne by a direct tax upon the people.

Now who is prepared for this? Who is willing that all restrictions should be removed from our commerce, and that no preference should be given to American, over foreign productions? The most numerous class of free trade men will probably be found among our merchants, and those engaged in the navigating interest. They maintain that all restrictive tariffs impair our commerce, and hence should be removed. But while they are pleading for free trade for others, they are enjoying protection for themselves. From the establishment of the government to the present

time, a preference has been given to American shipping. A duty on tonnage, for the express purpose of securing our own carrying trade to our own shipping, was imposed by the first Congress; and other provisions have been added, from time to time, seeking the same end. We are far from objecting to these provisions; we contend that they are wise and proper—that, in our navigation and coasting trade, there should be a preference given to American bottoms. But it is totally inconsistent for those who are enjoying this protection to advocate free trade. It would seem, however, that, like many other theorists, they hate the doctrine for others—not for themselves. Great Britain, since the days of Adam Smith, has been for free trade in theory; but whenever she has been called upon to carry this doctrine into practical effect, she has always felt herself “free” to adopt such regulations as were the most productive of her own interests, regardless of the interests of other nations. And so of our commercial men, who advocate free trade. They demand protection for themselves, but deny it to others. Is it not so? Are those concerned in navigation willing that all laws imposing duties on foreign tonnage should be repealed, and that foreigners be permitted to compete with them for our carrying and coasting trade? Are the ship-builders disposed to yield the protection which is extended to them? Until they are disposed to give up the advantages which they derive from our legislation, the cry of “free trade” comes from them with an ill grace.

There is another class of free trade men, who shrink from the necessary corollary, *direct taxation*. They would have all duties on imports repealed, and hence all revenue from that source cut off; but, at the same time, they would not consent to impose a direct tax upon the people! Now I should like to know what such men would have? If they are in favor of free trade, let them come up to the work like men, and provide the means for carrying on the government by a direct tax. But they tell us that they are in favor of a tariff for revenue; that they go for a 20 per cent horizontal rate of duty. But what can be more absurd than this? Opposed to all restrictions upon commerce, and at the same time in favor of a duty of 20 per cent upon all articles! This is as far removed from free trade, as our present system. During the last commercial year, the free articles imported into the country exceeded \$66,000,000—being but a fraction short of one-half of our foreign imports; and if to these we add the articles paying less than 20 per cent, it would amount to considerable more than one-half of our entire imports. Now, according to this notion of unrestricted commerce, one-half of all our imports which are now free, or nearly so, are to be embarrassed by a duty of 20 per cent; and this is called “free trade!”

I mention these things, to show the extremes into which the advocates of free trade are compelled to go. Beginning with a system which is totally impracticable, they are compelled to have recourse to almost every subterfuge to defend it. The fact is, free trade is impossible in the nature of things; and an attempt to adopt it would be destructive of our best interests.

Suppose we should at once repeal our tariff of duties, and blot from our statute-book every act which gives a preference to American shipping—would this constitute free trade? Take our commerce with England for example. We open all our ports to her, and receive her commodities free of duty. What treatment do we receive from her in return? Does

she open her ports, and admit our staples free of duty? No—in her revised tariff of 1842, she imposes a duty which, if carried out ad valorem, would amount to the following rates:—Salted beef, 59 per cent; bacon, 109 per cent; butter, 70 per cent; Indian corn, average, 30 per cent; flour, average, 30 per cent; rosin, 75 per cent; sperm oil, 33 per cent; sperm candles, 33 per cent; tobacco, unmanufactured, 1,000 per cent; tobacco, manufactured, 1,200 per cent; salted pork, 33 per cent; soap, 200 per cent; spirits from grain, 500 per cent; spirits from molasses, 1,600 per cent.

Here is the free trade which Great Britain extends to us. She imposes such duties as her own interest requires. It is an absurdity to talk of *free trade*, unless it is reciprocated. Opening our ports to Great Britain, and admitting her commodities duty free, while she pursues her present policy, is far from constituting what can with any propriety be called free reciprocal commerce. But there is a sort of looseness in the phrase, “free trade,” which renders this discussion embarrassing. The advocates of this doctrine do not tell us with sufficient precision what they mean by the phrase. If they mean that we should take off all restrictions from commerce, whether other nations do or not, it is one thing; but if they mean that we should do it towards those nations which will reciprocate the favor, is quite another thing. But the phrase must imply a trade which is mutually beneficial, or it must not. If it does not imply a trade that is mutually unrestricted and mutually beneficial, that is a good reason for rejecting it. I have not made sufficient proficiency in the science of political non-resistance, to advocate a system of trade which enriches other nations by impoverishing us. I cannot consent to open our ports, duty free, to those nations which throw every embarrassment in the way of our commerce. My political creed does not require me to love other nations better than my own. But if free trade implies a trade mutually advantageous, I am willing to adopt it; but this can never be done by taking off all commercial restrictions. If the trade is to be mutually beneficial, it must not only imply a reciprocity in commercial regulations, but a similarity in condition. The position of one nation may give her such an advantage, that the removal of all commercial restrictions would enable her to swallow up all others. Great Britain has, in her manufactures, “so got the start of the majestic world,” that she is able “to bear the palm alone.” The same rate of duty which she requires to protect her manufactures, would be no protection to us. She has other advantages, besides the perfection of her manufactures. As compared with us, she is densely populated; the capital there employed is not worth more than two-thirds as much as it is in this country, and labor can be had there for one-third of what it costs here. Now, under these circumstances, a removal of all commercial restrictions would operate to her advantage, and to our injury. The English manufacturer, owing to the low price of iron for his machinery, the reduced rate of interest, the cheapness of labor, and other causes, can prepare his mill for operation some twenty per cent less than the manufacturer in this country; and after it is in operation, his labor will cost him less than half the sum the American manufacturer would be compelled to give. The mutual repeal of all duties on manufactured goods, would be the ruin of our manufactures; and, in fact, bring labor in this country down to the low price given in Europe. And the same would be true of our shipping interest. Remove the protection given to this interest, and England would do our carrying and

coasting business for us, at the ruin of our shipping interest. Unrestrained trade between us and Great Britain would be like free intercourse between the wolf and the lamb. In both cases, the stronger would devour the other.

And what is true of Great Britain, is substantially true of France and Germany. The low rate of interest, and the cheapness of labor, give them a decided advantage over us in their manufactures; and unrestrained commerce between them and us would redound to their advantage, and to our injury. We, as a nation, are peculiarly situated. We are separated from the old world by distance, and by the nature of our institutions. Our leading characteristic is, that our citizens are freemen, and are laborers. The nature of our institutions tends to elevate the working classes, and to secure to the laborer an ample remuneration for his toil. This raises the price of labor—it makes the laborer a *man*. So long as we maintain this, our national characteristic, by protecting our own industry, our country will be prosperous. But let the pleasing but delusive doctrine of free trade obtain in our land—let that policy under which we have grown up and prospered, be abandoned, and let us open our ports to the fabrics of those nations whose hardy laborers can obtain but a shilling a day, and board themselves, and it requires no spirit of prophecy to predict the embarrassment and distress which would ensue. When our navigators are driven from the ocean, and our manufacturers and mechanics from their mills and their workshops, and all are compelled to cultivate the soil, the beauties of free trade would be realized. We might have agricultural products, but we should have no market. Being dependent upon other nations for many of the comforts of life, and at the same time deprived of a market for our produce, we should be compelled to toil for a mere pittance, and should, like *Tantalus* in the fable, perish in the midst of agricultural plenty.

But it seems unnecessary to depict the evils of free trade, as there is not the least prospect of its being adopted, unless we blindly open our ports to those nations which close theirs against us. The new tariff of Great Britain, which has been hailed as an approach to free trade, does not practically make the same amount of reduction that has generally been supposed. We have already noticed the duties she imposes upon some of our staples. The rate of duty on the articles we have mentioned, would average more than 350 per cent, *ad valorem*. She has made considerable reductions in her new tariff, but many of them are of but little practical consequence. Some articles which were formerly prohibited, she now admits, but on a duty so nearly prohibitory, that they can never come in, except in extreme cases. Another large class of articles on which she has made liberal reductions, consists of raw materials used in her manufactures; and such reductions render her policy more protective. On manufactured articles, her duty is generally low, for the plain reason that she fears no competition on such fabrics. But when she comes to any article where other nations are in advance of her, she is careful to impose a duty sufficient to protect her own interests. Take silk, for example. Fearing the competition of France, Italy, &c., she imposes an average duty of about 30 per cent on imported silks, which is much higher, under the circumstances, than we impose upon the same article. Our duty upon silks will average about 33 per cent, being nominally 3 per cent higher than that of Great Britain. But when we take the situation of the two nations into view, her duty is much higher in effect—much more protective than ours. Labor and capital, the two great elements which go into all manufactured articles, are

nearly as cheap in Great Britain as on the continent ; and in skill she may be considered as their equal. Under these circumstances, a duty of 30 per cent is a high duty. But with us the case is different. Our capital costs us one-third more, and our labor three times as much as it would in France and Italy. This, to all practical purposes, brings our duty on silks down to one-half of the rate imposed by Great Britain. In her situation, 30 per cent is as protective as 60 per cent would be in ours. If Great Britain can protect herself against those nations which are her equals or inferiors in the art of manufactures, by a duty of 30 per cent, it by no means follows that the same rate of duty is sufficient for us, who are England's inferior in these manufactures ; and especially when our capital and labor are much dearer than hers. If England is to be our model, let us impose duties as protective in our case, as her duties are in hers. The new tariff of Great Britain, which has been hailed as the harbinger of the free trade millenium, is, after all, strictly protective ; and the great falling off in her revenue from imposts, during the past year, is a guarantee against further reductions.

And even the reductions which England has adopted, have been induced, not by her love of free trade, but by the fact that Russia, France, and the Prussian Commercial Union, had adopted, or were about to adopt new tariffs, retaliatory upon her. Sir Robert Peel saw that manufactures were springing up upon the continent, and that these nations were about to protect them by law ; and his sagacity enabled him to perceive, at once, that it was for the interest of Great Britain to reduce her scale of duties, hoping thereby to prevent the continuation, or the adoption of measures upon the continent, which would operate to the exclusion or diminution of her fabrics in those countries. And if we look nearer home, we shall find the protective policy strictly adhered to on the western continent. Mexico, a neighboring republic, has, within the last year, adopted a tariff which is absolutely prohibitory upon all articles which she can grow or manufacture. Among the prohibited articles, are some of our staples, viz : Rice, flour from wheat, except from Yucatan ; raw cotton, cotton-yarn and thread, coarse cottons, hogs' lard, tallow, tobacco, &c.

Now, does the policy of other nations afford us any encouragement to relax our policy on the subject of discriminating, protective duties ? Within the last eighteen months, Russia, Prussia, France, and Mexico, have revised and increased their duties ; and Great Britain, though she has reduced her tariff, still retains her protective policy, and with these reductions can safely compete with us or any other nation. Such is the policy of the nations with which we have our principal commercial intercourse ; and it seems to be no time for us to relax, when they are becoming more restrictive. Under these circumstances, it would be madness ; it would be suicidal in us to abandon our protective system ; and how any true friend of American interests can advocate such a policy, is more than I can comprehend.

But we have already devoted more space to this branch of the subject than we intended. We will now adduce some considerations in favor of the protective policy, and notice some objections which have been urged against it.

In the first place, there is a class of manufactures, necessary to national defence, which our government ought to protect. No nation has a right to expect perpetual peace ; and it is a maxim, venerable for age, "in peace prepare for war." Some articles, such as arms and ammunition,

are essential to the defence of the country ; and unless we have the means of supplying them ourselves, we might, in case of war, be reduced to the greatest extremity. The fact that we are thus dependent upon foreign nations for the munitions of war, would naturally invite aggression, and might prove the cause of involving us in hostilities. Arms, ammunition, and clothing, are indispensable in war. Every man who knows how much we suffered in our revolutionary struggle for the want of these, will readily appreciate the weight of this argument. And even in our late war with Great Britain, some of these evils were severely felt. In looking over the expenses of that war, one is forcibly struck with the large amount, and the high prices paid for *blankets*, and other articles of woollen, for the clothing of the army and navy. These expenses would have been greatly reduced, if the manufacture of woollens had enjoyed the protection of the government prior to that period. We would pursue this branch of the argument farther, but most of the advocates for free trade allow that, so far as national defence is concerned, it is the duty of the government to protect manufactures.

Now this admission, on the part of the friends of free trade, yields the very principle for which we contend. It is an admission which will cover the whole ground of the protective policy. The articles necessary for national defence are very numerous, and extend to almost every department of manufactures ; and the same principle which will justify the protection of these, will justify all the protection for which we plead. The various manufactures of iron for cannon, mortars, muskets, pistols, swords, gun-carriages, camp utensils, chains, cables, anchors, spikes, bolts, tools for ship-building, intrenching, and constructing works and bridges ; machinery for steamships and steam-batteries—of hemp for sails, cordage, and tents—of leather for shoes, cartridge-boxes, belts, and harnesses—of salt for the preservation of provisions—of clothing of all kinds—of powder ;—these, and a great variety of other articles of manufacture, are necessary for the defence of the country. Soldiers must have shoes, as well as arms ; and clothing is as essential to a successful campaign as ammunition. But national defence implies something more than mere military operations. It has been justly said that “money is the sinew of war ;” and in order to carry on military operations, the people must have the ability to supply the means. It is as much the duty of the government to aid the people in supplying the means to carry on a war, as it is to aid the soldier, by supplying him with arms. The people, especially in this country, are the source of all power—upon them, the government are dependent for men and for money. And if it is wise in the government to protect certain manufactures, that thereby they may save themselves some thousands of dollars in time of war, it is certainly as wise in the government to protect other manufactures, that millions may be saved to the people, and thereby the people rendered more able to supply the means for prosecuting the war. If we were involved in a war with such a nation as England or France, and had no manufactures, the extra expense for manufactured articles, which would be thrown upon the people, would be a hundred fold greater than the extra expense which would be thrown upon the government. And shall we be told, in this day of boasted political light, that this paramount interest of the people should be neglected, and the minor, the paltry interest of the government, guarded ? Is the interest of the people to be sacrificed on the altar of the government ? The dis-

inction which the friends of free trade make between the people and the government, when they admit that the government should protect certain articles for the benefit of the government, but should not protect other articles for the benefit of the people, is entirely at variance with our free institutions. It is the language of other countries, the doctrine of despots—which is well enough when applied to some foreign governments, but totally repugnant to the institutions of a free people. The fathers of the republic repudiated the idea that our government had an interest distinct from the people. But it seems that the friends of free trade, in their zeal to carry out what they denominate *democratic* principles, are disposed to revive some of the old, exploded, and odious doctrines of despotisms. We admit no such distinctions. The government are the people, and the people are the government. The government has no right to protect any article, unless that protection will subserve the interests of the people; and the interests of the people are no greater in war than in peace. If the government protect certain manufactures to promote the interest of the nation in times of war, they are equally bound to protect others to promote the interests of the people in times of peace. Thus it will be seen that the admission of the friends of free trade, that government should protect articles necessary in war, yields the whole principle, and furnishes us with an argument in support of the general system for which we contend; and that this conclusion cannot be avoided, unless we adopt the maxim of despots—that the people were created for the government, and not the government for the people. But if it be said, in answer to this, that the protection necessary to national defence is for the benefit of the people, and not of the government, we reply that the interests of the people, in time of peace, are as important as in time of war; and it is as much the duty of the government to protect us against the pauper labor, as the hired soldiers of the old world. It is certainly as essential to the nation that its millions of laborers should be prospered, as that its hundreds of soldiers should be successful in battle. The same reasons which would urge us to protect our troops, would urge us to protect our laborers.

Another argument in support of the protective system, is drawn from the policy of other nations. We have already seen that each nation guards its own particular interests; and that, by the operation of this foreign policy, our great staples, flour, pork, bacon, &c., are in a measure excluded from the principal markets of Europe. Now self-defence, that first law of nature, applicable alike to nations and to individuals, requires us to adopt some measures to counteract the influence of these restrictions upon our commerce. This principle is so self-evident, that the advocates of free trade, from Adam Smith downward, have generally admitted the propriety of countervailing duties, at least in all cases where this measure would tend to produce a relaxation of foreign policy, or would secure us against the evil effects of that policy. Here, again, our opponents yield us the whole for which we contend. Our protective system is, in its general principles, countervailing; and the success with which it has been attended shows conclusively that it comes within that class of cases in which countervailing duties can be wisely imposed. England and France impose heavy duties upon our flour and pork—we, in return, impose protective duties upon their manufactures; and if we do not induce them to take our flour and pork, we do that which is practically the same thing—we create a market for them at home. These duties build up manufactures in our own country; and, by

taking a portion of our labor from agriculture, we diminish the quantity of beef and pork; and, as the manufacturers must have meat and bread, they take what foreign nations exclude, and so a market is created for these staples. This one example will illustrate our whole protective policy, and show conclusively its propriety and wisdom. We allow that this policy may be unwisely exercised; but the abuse of a principle is no argument against the principle itself.

Here, then, we take our stand; and we are happy in being supported by intelligent free trade men, themselves. *It is the duty of our government to adopt measures to counteract the injurious effects which the policy of foreign nations is calculated to have upon our commerce.* If Great Britain or France, or any other nation, should enact a law to-morrow, imposing new and severe restrictions upon our commerce, there is scarcely a free trade man in the land who would not cry out for some countervailing measure on the part of our own government. What we should ask of foreign nations, in such a case, would be, that there should be a reciprocity of interest—a fair and equitable competition between our own and foreign labor. If this competition was destroyed by the special act of a foreign government, we should protest against it. Now it matters not from what cause this inequality arises—whether from a single act of foreign legislation, or from their general policy—if a fair competition is destroyed, it is the duty of the government to throw her protecting shield around her citizens, and prevent their being driven from their fields and their workshops by the degraded labor of foreign countries. If the manufacturers of Great Britain can destroy the manufactures of this country; I care not whether this ability arises from an order in Council or an act of Parliament—whether it is the result of one law, or fifty—whether the policy was introduced last year or last century—its effects upon our citizens are the same, and the duty of the government is in no degree altered. The advantages which the foreign manufacturer has over our own, arise, in a great degree, from causes which, if they are not produced by any one act of legislation, grow out of the general policy which their government have adopted. But whether it arises from their general policy, or from one special provision, the case is equally injurious. For example: Great Britain pays a bounty upon glass which is sent to this country. This gives the British manufacturer an advantage over our own. Those who are engaged in this species of manufacture here, find themselves undersold at their own doors. This competition, which is so ruinous to the glass-manufacturer in this country, arises, in this case, partly from the direct action of the British government. But there are other causes in this, and especially in some other cases—such as the low price of the raw material, the cheap rate of interest, a dense population, and consequent low price of wages—which give the foreign manufacturer a decided advantage over our own. The cheapness of capital and labor gives the foreigner his principal advantage; and we have the same right to come in, and by legislation counteract the influence of these causes, as we have to pass countervailing duties in any other case whatever.

Let the advocates for countervailing duties show us any difference, in principle, between protecting our citizens against a single enactment of a foreign nation, and that low price of wages which grows out of their general policy or local condition. In the one case, they ask the interference of the government—they complain that we are injured—that fair competition is destroyed. But no statute can be more ruinous to fair competi-

tion than the low price of money and labor in foreign countries; and, though this may not arise from any one act of the government, it is, in a great measure, to be ascribed to the general and long-cherished policy of those nations. Foreign manufacturers can obtain their capital for about two-thirds, and their labor for from one-third to one-quarter of what it costs the manufacturer in this country. The idea of anything like fair competition, under these circumstances, is altogether out of the question. Our manufacturers, therefore, must abandon their business altogether, or the price of labor must come down to the European standard. Is this desirable? Do the free trade men wish to see the hardy laborers of this country reduced to the necessity of toiling fourteen or sixteen hours per day, for the paltry sum of one shilling, exclusive of board? This is the European rate of wages, as appears from a report made to the English parliament in 1840. We will give a brief statement of the price of wages, as gathered from that report:—

Average prices per week of the hand-loom weavers in Europe, including the weavers of silk, cotton, linen, and woollen, in all their varieties, exclusive of board.

Great Britain,.....	8s. 0d.	per week.
France,.....	7s. 0d.	“
Switzerland,.....	5s. 7d.	“
Belgium,.....	6s. 0d.	“
Austria,.....	3s. 0d.	“
Saxony,.....	2s. 1d.	“

These are the average prices given for adult male laborers, female labor being from 30 to 80 per cent less. Here is a picture of foreign labor in 1840. But as low as these prices are, it appears by a report made to Parliament in 1841, that the prices had fallen at least 10 or 12 per cent from the preceding year. We ask, again, whether the friends of free trade, who profess to be the friends of the people, are desirous of seeing the free, independent laborers of this country, brought down to the European standard—to the miserable pittance of eight or ten pence per day? A greater evil could not be inflicted on our citizens—a more withering calamity could not befall our country. The wealth of a nation consists principally in the labor of its citizens; and, as a general thing, there can be no surer test of national prosperity than the price that labor will command.

It will be seen that we deduce the necessity of protective duties from the disparity there is between the price of capital and labor in this country and Europe. The argument from this source deserves great consideration; for, unless we are prepared to have the price of labor in this country reduced to six or eight shillings per week, we must protect it against foreign competition. I am aware that this argument has been regarded, by some free trade men, as deserving of no consideration; and that it has been said that the low price of capital and labor abroad furnish an argument against protection, as that policy deprives us of the benefits of their cheap capital and labor, which we might otherwise enjoy.*

This objection to our argument for protection, drawn from the low price of labor in foreign countries, is founded on the principle that sound political economy requires that a nation should, at all times, and under all circumstances, allow its citizens to buy where they can buy cheapest, and

* See Article II, June number of Merchants' Magazine for 1841, pp. 523, 524.

sell where they can obtain the highest price. But plausible as this doctrine may appear, it is far from being sound. In time of war, when our commerce is obstructed, a citizen might buy cheapest of the enemy, and in return dispose of his products to them at the highest price. But even the advocates of free trade would not contend for this. They would admit that such a trade should be restrained for public considerations—for *purposes of state*. Now the very principle which would justify restraint in this case, will justify a protective tariff. Public considerations justify the one as much as the other. If it be proper, in time of war, to interdict a trade which might prove profitable to some of our citizens, it may be equally proper in time of peace. Our government is instituted for the benefit of the people in peace as much as in war; and public consideration should have a controlling influence at one period as much as at another.

Again, this doctrine would be as fatal to our shipping as to our manufacturing interest. If it be wise at all times to purchase at the cheapest market, it would also be wise to employ the cheapest carriers. Now it is a notorious fact that foreigners can build ships, as well as factories, cheaper than we can; and the low rate of wages enables them to navigate their ships, as well as run their factories, at less cost than we can do it. One fact, drawn from an official source, will illustrate the effect of a trade comparatively free. In our commercial intercourse with the Hanseatic cities, established by treaty in 1828, we adopted the bases of equality of duties on navigation and commerce in the direct and indirect trade. "The liberality of the United States," says the Secretary of State, "extended to the Hanse towns under treaty, in allowing all ships *owned*, instead, as in the case of the English convention with those towns, all ships *built* within their dominions, to enjoy the privileges of the flag, has nearly shut American vessels out from the carriage in the German trade; and, as it respects the port of Bremen, (concerning the commerce of which, the department is placed in possession of more official information than that of Hamburg,) has thrown almost the entire carrying trade between that port and the United States into the hands of the Bremen ship-owners. By an official statement of the number of vessels arriving at that port during the year 1840, from this country, it appears that there were ninety-nine—of which number seventy-five were Bremen, twenty United States, and four belonged to other German ports.

"In order to show the numerical proportion of arrivals from the United States, and their comparative increase, it may be stated that they were, on an average, from the years 1826 to 1830, inclusive, five-sevenths American, and two-sevenths Bremen; from 1831 to 1835, inclusive, three-sevenths American, and four-sevenths Bremen; and from 1836 to 1840, inclusive, one-fifth American, and four-fifths Bremen. From this estimate, drawn from official statements, the rapid increase of the Bremen shipping in the trade with the United States, and the proportionate diminution of our own, since the treaty between the two countries in December, 1828, must be obvious."*

Here is the practical effect of free trade upon our shipping interest; and what is true of our commerce with the Hanse towns, would be substantially true of our commerce with the other European powers. I will

* See the elaborate and able report of the Secretary of State, Mr. Webster, to the House of Representatives, March, 1842, pp. 42, 43, House Document No. 163, 2d session, 27th Congress.

give another example illustrative of this point. Up to 1830, there were restrictions upon the trade of the United States with the British American possessions. On that year, an act was passed by Congress, opening our ports, without any restrictions, to all British vessels from these colonies, provided these colonial ports should be opened on the same terms to us. By this arrangement, a trade perfectly free, so far as *shipping* was concerned, was opened between the United States and the British colonies in America; and this arrangement has proved highly detrimental to our navigation. This will be seen by the fact that, since that period, the British tonnage entering our ports has increased 500 per cent, while our own tonnage entering our ports has increased only about 50 per cent; and by the further fact that, in the districts of Passamaquoddy, Portland, &c., situated near the British provinces, they have monopolized almost the whole trade. Every view we can take of this subject, leads to the same result. The cheapness of foreign capital and labor would enable them not only to drive our laborers from their workshops, but our ships and mariners from the ocean. This is the result to which the argument before us would lead; for, if we ought to buy in the cheapest market, we ought also to employ the cheapest carriers. We ought to avail ourselves of the boasted advantages of the cheapness of foreign labor, in the latter case, as much as in the former. But the friends of free trade will probably say that our navigating interest requires protection, and that public policy calls upon us to support our commercial marine. But why should this interest be protected more than any other? According to the late census, there were but 56,000 persons engaged in navigation, while there were 791,000 engaged in manufactures; and we demand on what principle the claims of 56,000, employed on the ocean, are greater than fourteen times that number, employed upon the land? The same principles of public policy which call for the protection of our commercial marine, call for the protection of our industry at home; the latter being as essential to national independence as the former.

Thus we see that the soundness of the position that we should avail ourselves of the cheapest market, is admitted by the friends of free trade to fail in time of war, and with reference to our navigating interest. Nor are these the only cases in which that principle will fail. It is far from being a sound principle in political economy, always to buy at the cheapest market. It is not sound in the case before us. Such a policy, if adopted here, would turn 850,000 manufacturers and mariners out of employment; and this would inflict an evil upon the country greater than all the blessings to be derived from cheap purchases. Again—if the foreign market is the cheapest at the present time, there is no certainty that it would continue so. When, by their low prices, they have destroyed all our manufactures, and driven our ships from the ocean, we should be entirely at their mercy. By the monopoly they would have thus acquired, they could dictate to us such prices as their own interest might suggest. All that would be necessary to bring about such a state of things, is to have some two or three of the great powers of Europe combine; and they could dictate to us on the subject of commercial regulations and prices, as effectually as they did to the Grand Sultan, in relation to Greece and Egypt.

It is with a nation as it is with an individual—the market where he can buy cheapest is not always the best, even in a pecuniary point of view. It may be good policy in an individual to buy at the dearest market—it

may be nearest at hand, or it may be the best market at which to sell his products. The cheapest market for purchase may require payment in specie, while a dearer market may receive other commodities in payment. The cotton manufacturers at the north might purchase their cotton in India, as they undoubtedly would, to some extent, if the duty on cotton were taken off; and they might find it profitable to themselves, especially as they could buy cheaper, and at the same time open to some extent a new market for their fabrics; but, as this would injure the home market for the cotton-grower at the south, the injury inflicted upon the planting states would be greater than the benefits obtained by the northern manufacturer. For reasons of state, a preference should be given to domestic cotton. The northern manufacturer who consumes one hundred bales of cotton grown in this country, not only gives employ indirectly to those who labor to produce that article, but he gives employ to those who raise the meat and grain which the laborer consumes while raising the cotton; whereas the manufacturer who consumes one hundred bales of cotton raised in India, encourages foreign, instead of domestic industry. In the former case, the profits of the entire business are kept in the country; while, in the latter, half of the profits accrue to foreigners. The same remarks may be made upon other manufactured articles. He who patronizes domestic manufactures, creates a home market, and so encourages our own industry. The people of Tennessee, for example, by wearing American cottons, even if they should cost them a trifle more than the foreign fabric, would thereby not only promote the interest of the country, but their own. By patronizing the domestic manufacture, they not only prevent a greater competition in the production of their great staples, corn and wheat, but, by sustaining the manufacturer, they increase the demand for their own products. The southern planter, while growing his cotton, and the northern manufacturer, while converting it into cloth, are both living upon the corn and wheat of Tennessee; or, which is practically the same thing, on the corn and wheat of some other state, whose bread-stuff comes in competition with their own. But if they wear the fabrics of British looms, made of cotton grown in India, they lose all these advantages. The interest of the country, and the ultimate interest of the individual there, would be promoted by the purchase of the domestic fabric. If the first cost were higher, the individual advantages which would result from such a policy would more than balance the difference in price.

The idea that we must purchase abroad, rather than manufacture at home, is a dangerous one; and whenever it has been generally adopted by a people, their home industry, and consequently their prosperity, declines. There may be articles not adapted to our climate, such as *tea*, the *spices*, &c., which we must purchase abroad; and in such cases it is desirable that we raise some other article which we can exchange for them. But when we can produce the articles which we need, in our own country, and this exchange can be carried on between different sections of the United States, where the business cannot be disturbed by foreign legislation, it is the dictate of wisdom and of prudence to seek supplies at home, and thus be independent of foreign nations. If we adopt the policy of procuring everything abroad, because it can be obtained cheaper, we shall in a short time find our industry paralyzed, and our resources so reduced, that even cheap articles will be beyond our reach. Ask the industrious mechanics, and the hard-working farmers in the interior—those

whose means are limited, and who are compelled to husband their resources—and they will tell you the advantages of exchanging the products of their labor for the articles they purchase—“of getting things in their own line, without paying money,” as the phrase is. This homely expression embodies more true political economy than the more elegant one, “of purchasing in the cheapest market.” If the farmers who cultivate the rugged soil of New England, should neglect to raise their own bread-stuff and pork, because these articles could be produced cheaper at the west, they would soon find that, cheap as western grain and pork were, they would not have the means of purchasing them. And the same is true of the country. If we employ foreign manufacturers and carriers, and turn 850,000 of our own out of their present employ, they will seek employment in agriculture; and instead of being 850,000 consumers of agricultural products, as at present, they would become 850,000 producers—making a difference of 1,700,000; a number equal to more than one-third of all employed in agriculture at the present time. The effect of this upon the agriculture of the country, must be obvious. The products of the soil, which are now so abundant that they would be almost valueless were it not for the market found in manufacturing districts, would become more abundant. And where would they be disposed of? Not in the domestic market, for that would be in a great measure destroyed; not in a foreign market, for the policy of other nations excludes them. With this increased production, and loss of the home market, agriculture, that parent calling, which employs more of our people than all others put together, would receive a severe blow. Wages would fall, industry would be paralyzed; and foreign fabrics would, to all practical purposes, become dear, for the plainest of all reasons, that we should have nothing comparatively to purchase with.

The protective system is as important to the agriculturist as to the manufacturer. Though the enemies of this system have represented it as hostile to the farmer, I am fully persuaded that this is a great mistake. In the first place, agricultural products enjoy as high a protection as manufactures, to say the least. I will give a few articles as a specimen, and will resolve the duty into an ad valorem rate, founded on the price current at Boston, six months after the present tariff went into operation.

Cotton, duty 3 cents per lb.,.....	equal to 40 per cent ad valorem.		
Wool, 30 per cent, and 3 cts. per lb.,	“ 44 “ “		
Beef, 2 cents per lb.,.....	“ 62 “ “		
Pork, 2 cents per lb.,.....	“ 55 “ “		
Ham and bacon, 3 cents per lb.,.....	“ 50 “ “		
Cheese, 9 cents per lb.,.....	“ 175 “ “		
Butter, 5 cents per lb.,.....	“ 41 “ “		
Lard, 3 cents per lb.,.....	“ 44 “ “		
Potatoes, 9 cents per bushel,.....	“ 30 “ “		
Flour, \$1 25 per bbl.,.....	“ 27 “ “		
Wheat, 25 cents per bushel,.....	“ 28 “ “		

Here we have a list of eleven articles of agricultural products, and they average 54 per cent protection—a rate much higher than is enjoyed by manufactured articles. Neither have we, in this estimate, adopted the doctrine of anti-tariff men, and supposed that the duty increased the price to the amount of the duty. If we had adopted that mode of estimating

prices, we should have swelled the per cent of protection much higher. I know it is said that these duties are unavailing, as these articles need no protection; but this is a great mistake. These articles have been imported into the country, on an average, for the last five years, to the amount of nearly \$2,000,000 annually.

There is an identity of interest between the manufacturer and the agriculturist. They are not enemies, nor even rivals, but intimate friends. Viewed on a large and liberal scale, manufactures and agriculture are only different departments of the same great system of national industry; and whatever tends to give prosperity to the one, will give prosperity to the other. They both need the fostering care of the government. The case of wool and woollens is an example in point. The wool-growing interest has become an important one, and is more widely diffused over the whole country than almost any other. The annual product may safely be estimated at \$16,000,000. Withdraw protection from wool, and this great interest would languish—withdraw protection from the woollen manufactures, and the influx of foreign woollens would destroy the wool-growing interest. This example illustrates the immediate connexion there is between agriculture and manufactures. We have already seen that the destruction of manufactures would drive those now engaged in that business into agriculture; and by the loss of the home market, and by the increased competition in agriculture, the prices of the products of the former would decline to a ruinous extent.

The farmer has as direct an interest in the protective policy as the manufacturer. In the first place, he enjoys as much protection upon his products as the manufacturer does upon his fabrics. But the great advantage to the farmer arises from the home market which manufactures create. The great importance of a market is too often overlooked. How is it that wheat is worth \$1 20 in one part of the country, and 12 1-2 cents in another? That an acre of land will, for agricultural purposes, sell for \$300 in one place, and for but \$2 in another? Every man knows that this is the fact; and why is it so? Simply because the one is near a market, and the other remote. I hesitate not to say, that the capital now invested in manufactures has augmented the value of real estate in the country to an amount vastly greater than the whole sum invested in manufactures. The value of the home market, created in a great degree by manufactures, will be seen by the fact that Massachusetts alone consumes as much of the beef, pork, ham, and lard of her sister states, as the whole amount that is exported to all foreign nations; and that she consumes a larger amount of the flour and grain of other states, than the average which has been exported to England and her provinces for the last six years. Take the whole country, and the amount of agricultural products consumed by manufacturers is infinitely greater than the amount sent abroad.

Compared with the foreign, the home market is the most valuable, in every respect. A market in a manufacturing district, at home, is always more sure than any foreign market. The demand is constant, and may always be relied upon; whereas the foreign market is always uncertain. Suppose that one of the western states had 100,000 barrels of flour to dispose of annually, and they looked to Great Britain for a market. That market would depend upon the crops in Europe. When the crop was good upon the continent, England would take but 50,000 barrels; and

when the crop was short, she would want 150,000 barrels. Though her annual demand would amount to 100,000 barrels, on an average, yet it would fluctuate from 50,000 to 150,000. Under these circumstances, the farmer could make no calculations how much wheat to sow. This uncertainty, depending upon contingencies which he could not possibly foresee, would hang like an incubus upon him, and paralyze his efforts. But let the same state depend upon the home market created by manufactures, and the farmer can calculate with great certainty. He knows that there are 100,000 persons employed in manufactures, and that they will want a barrel of flour each; and he knows that the crops on the eastern continent will have little or no connexion with the demand here. Under these circumstances, he knows, with a good degree of certainty, how much to sow; and, being sure of a market, his industry will redouble, and he will realize a greater profit from his labor. Every practical man knows that much depends upon the certainty of a market; and, from this glance at the subject, it must be seen, at once, that the home market is more sure than the foreign. But this difference between the foreign and home market would be still greater in time of war. In case of hostilities with a great maritime power, like Great Britain, whether our commerce were with her or with any other foreign nation, it would be in a great degree cut off, so that the foreign market would fail. These considerations show conclusively that the home market must, after all, be the farmer's chief dependence—his best market in peace, and his only reliance in war.

From the view we have taken of this subject, I trust it will appear that the farmers have as deep an interest in the protective system as the manufacturers; and that the hardy tillers of the soil, who did so much to obtain our independence, will be the last to abandon a policy which preserves us a free people.

But it is said that protection is injurious to commerce. No objection can be more fallacious than this. We have already seen that our commerce drew its first breath in the protective system, and that its last respiration is to be ascribed to the same policy. And it is a strange position, that the very policy which first created, and still sustains commerce, is injurious to it. But if it be said that the protection which is extended to manufactures injures commerce, we reply that, according to the late census, there are 791,000 persons engaged in manufactures, while there are but 117,000 engaged in commerce; and we know of no good reason why the many should be sacrificed to the few—why the interests of 800,000 should not be regarded as well as the interests of 117,000. But is the protection afforded to manufactures injurious to commerce? We think not. Our imports will be according to our ability to purchase, and our exports according to what we produce; and as the protective system stimulates our industry, and so increases our productions and ability to purchase, it will benefit rather than injure commerce. That general prosperity, which protection is calculated to produce, is the life of commercial enterprise; and whatever drives the plough or the machinery, tends, at the same time, to spread the sail. This consideration is of itself a sufficient reply to the objection that protection is detrimental to commerce. But there are other considerations which show the weakness of this objection. Many of the articles consumed in manufactures are brought from abroad; and as the raw materials are more bulky and heavy than the manufactured articles, more shipping is employed in supplying the

raw materials than would be necessary to supply the article manufactured. This principle is illustrated in the case of *refined sugar*. Without protective duties, a large portion of our sugar would be imported in its refined state; but the duty of six cents per pound upon refined sugar, induces the sugar-refiners to import the brown sugar, which they manufacture into loaf. Now it must be manifest that more shipping is employed in bringing to our refiners the raw sugar, than would be requisite to bring the lesser quantity of the refined, to supply the wants of the people. Our manufactures, by increasing the business connexion between different portions of the country, increase the coasting trade and the internal commerce. Add to this the amount of manufactured products which are shipped to foreign countries, and I think it will appear that our commerce is not injured by stimulating the industry, and developing the resources of the country. The manufactured articles, the fruit of protection, which are sent to every part of the world, amounted the last year to about \$11,000,000—being more than one-tenth of our entire export of domestic productions. The advantages resulting to our commerce from this source, must be manifest. On many of these articles, our shipping have a double employment. The refined sugar to which we have referred, is an instance in point. We have already said that more shipping is required to import the raw sugar, than would be requisite to bring in the refined sugar which we consume. But this is not all—the brown sugar imported is, after it is manufactured into the loaf, exported to the amount of nearly a million and a half of dollars annually. Thus do our manufactures give life and energy to our commerce; and hence the protective system, which fosters the one, cannot be detrimental to the other.

But the great objection to the protective system is, that it enhances the price of all articles to the amount of the duty, and so imposes a heavy tax upon the consumers. This objection, specious as it is, is far from holding good to the extent that is pretended. That it is not true in all cases, appears from the fact that many articles, as coarse cottons, nails, &c., have been selling for years at a price less than the duty. We admit that duties, self-considered, have a tendency to increase prices for the time being; but to what extent, and for what length of time, must depend upon many considerations. Prices depend mainly upon supply and demand. It will also be found true, that a small deficiency in the supply will raise the price of the whole commodity in the market far above the value of the deficit; and, on the other hand, a surplus, though small, will reduce the price of the whole commodity in the market far beyond the value of the surplus. A surplus of \$10,000 will frequently produce an aggregate reduction of the whole quantity of the commodity in the market, to the amount of \$50,000. This principle is so important to a right understanding of this part of the subject, that I trust I shall be pardoned by the reader if I attempt a more full illustration. We will suppose that there are ten shops in a village, owned by as many individuals, and that \$100 per quarter is a fair rent for each of them; but the number of traders wishing to occupy these shops is but nine, thereby leaving a surplus of one shop. Now what will be the practical result of this state of things? Nine shops will be occupied, and one will be vacant. The owner of the vacant shop, seeing all his neighbors enjoying an income of \$100 per quarter, while he receives nothing, offers his shop for \$90, on the wise principle that he had better take that sum than nothing. This offer induces one of the traders,

who is paying \$100, to quit the shop he occupies, and to take the one he can have for \$90. This change leaves another shop empty, and this induces its owner to put that at \$90 per quarter. This induces another to remove, and take a shop at \$90; and so they will go through with each shop, till all are brought down to \$90. Here has been a reduction of \$10 on each shop, making an aggregate of \$100, being just equal to the value of the surplus. And how stands the matter now? Why, there is one empty shop, as at the beginning; and the same process of reduction will go on, till the price is brought down so low as to induce some person to embark in trade, who, under other circumstances, would not think of engaging in this kind of business.

This principle, which every practical man will readily acknowledge, enters largely into our commerce, both foreign and domestic, and has an all-important bearing upon prices. Keeping this principle in view, let us inquire into the effect of a tariff upon prices. Suppose an article now paying 20 per cent, be subjected to a duty of 20 per cent more. According to the free trade theory, the price will rise 20 per cent in our market. But, in fact, this will not be the case. The American merchant, who has been in the habit of taking this article of an English house to the amount of \$2,000, writes to his correspondent in Great Britain, that, in consideration of the increase of duty, and consequently the diminished sale which he anticipates, he can now take but \$1,000 worth of the article, unless the manufacturer will reduce his price. The British manufacturer, knowing full well that if \$1,000 worth of this fabric be thrown into his home market, it will reduce the price, and lessen the value of his whole stock on hand, immediately reduces his price, and so supplies his old customer with the usual quantity of the article. The amount of reduction will depend upon the state of the market—sometimes it will be more, and sometimes it will be less. The average, perhaps, would be one-half of the increased duty. The foreign manufacturer paying one-half of the additional duty, the actual duty paid by the importer would be 30 per cent, instead of 40. This would raise the price in our market only 10 per cent. But, as the increased duty would protect our manufacturers, they would embark with Yankee zeal in this species of manufacture. This would produce competition at home, and the increased quantity of the article thrown into our market would have a tendency to produce a surplus, and this would serve to keep down the price. Here would be a double competition—a competition between the foreign and the domestic manufacturers, and a competition between the domestic manufacturers themselves. The natural tendency of this would be to reduce the price. Its operation would be more or less sudden, according to the character of the manufacture. If it were a costly kind of manufacture, or one which required great skill, it would take longer to bring about this reduction. But if the manufacture were of such a nature as to require but little capital or little experience, the competition, and consequent reduction, would be more immediate. After making all due allowances for fluctuations, from various causes, we lay it down as a principle which will hold good, that where duties are judiciously laid upon articles, the manufacture of which is suited to our condition, the tendency is ultimately to reduce, rather than increase the price. To this, of course, there are exceptions; but the case of coarse cottons, and many articles of hardware, clearly show the truth of our position.

Let any man compare the prices now with what they were twenty years ago, and he will see that there has been a great reduction in the price of almost every manufactured article. But this statement is met by saying that competition has produced labor-saving machines, and the great improvements in machinery have had the effect to reduce the prices of manufactured articles. We admit this, to its fullest extent. But what has caused this improvement in machinery? Protection created a competition, and competition has been the efficient cause of these improvements. That inventive power which has been exerted in perfecting machinery, would have slumbered for ages to come, as it has for ages past, had not manufactures been prosecuted under such brisk competition, that necessity, which is the mother of invention, demanded the employment of labor-saving machines. It is to protection that we owe competition, and to competition we owe those improvements in machinery, which have contributed to reduce prices. So that, after all, this reduction is to be ascribed to protection, to the industry which it stimulates, and to the genius which it excites.

The remarks which have been offered upon prices, brief as they are, are deemed sufficient to show that no objection can be made to the protective system on the ground of its raising the price of the fabrics protected. In some instances, it will not raise the price at all—in others, only for a short period; and if, in other cases, it does produce a permanent increase of price, that is more than compensated for in the stimulus which this system gives to industry, in the home market which it creates, and in the general prosperity which it produces. There are some species of manufactures which give employment to women and children, whereby they are enabled to support themselves, when, without this employ, they would be a public charge. Every consideration of this sort is to be taken into the account, in estimating the profit and loss of the system we advocate. Suppose that the system which we advocate does increase the price of a few articles, so that the poor man has to pay some five or six dollars in a year more than it would otherwise cost him; this policy, by increasing business, creates a demand for his labor, and enables him to earn one or two dollars per month more than he could otherwise earn. Instead of suffering, he is actually a gainer by this system.

But, in answer to our reasoning above, it may be said that if protective duties do not increase prices, they afford no protection to the manufacturer. By recurring to what we have said, it will be seen that we do not take the ground that protective duties do not, in any case, increase the price of the article in our market. Our position is this: that a protective duty laid upon articles which we can manufacture with propriety in this country, would not ultimately increase the price, but would frequently reduce it. If the duty be laid upon articles which we do not manufacture, or cannot manufacture or grow with propriety, the tendency would be to increase the price; though, even in such a case, the price is rarely increased to the amount of the duty. But a duty, in a given case, may protect the manufacturer, and at the same time produce an ultimate reduction in the price of that article. I will illustrate this principle by a familiar case.

An article, now free of duty, is selling in our market for \$1 20. The elements which make up this price, are these: cost in foreign market, \$1; cost of importation, ten cents; importer's profits, ten cents—making \$1 20. At this price, the article can be manufactured and sold in this country.

Now, let one of our citizens go into the manufacture of this article, and what will be the result? Why, the foreign manufacturer, who has heretofore enjoyed the monopoly of our market, and who is enjoying large profits, will immediately put the article at ninety cents to the American importer—this being the cost of the article. He will willingly forego all profit for the time being, for the purpose of crushing the infant establishments in this country; and the importer will give up one-half of his profits, rather than lose this portion of his business. This will reduce the price of the article fifteen cents, bringing it down to \$1 05. The American manufacturer immediately finds the article in the market at this reduced price, which is, in fact, less than he can manufacture the article for. He must, therefore, abandon his business, give up his establishment at a great sacrifice, and yield the market to the foreign manufacturer, who, finding his new rival destroyed, will immediately demand the old price, and put his article at \$1; and the consumer in this country will be compelled to pay \$1 20, or perhaps \$1 25, to make up the loss which the importer and foreign manufacturer sustained during the period of competition. This is the result when the article is free of duty.

Now, we will take the same article, at the same price, both in Europe and America, with protective duties. A duty of fifteen cents is imposed upon the article, to encourage domestic manufactures. This, added to the former price, \$1 20, would bring the article up to \$1 35. The foreign manufacturer fears that he shall lose the American market; and consequently, to prevent a surplus in his own home market, and to create a surplus here, he will at once put his article at cost, ninety cents; the importer will forego half his profits, and take off five cents, which will bring the article down to \$1 20, the very price which the article brought before the duty was imposed. In the mean time, the American manufacturer produces the article, which he can sell for the same price. Here, then, the manufacturer is protected, and the consumer has no additional price to pay. The importation will not be materially checked; and this, with the domestic production, will create a surplus, which will tend to a reduction of the price. A sharp competition will ensue; and necessity, that mother of invention, will bring out improvements in machinery, so that the article can be produced at a cheap rate. The skill, also, which is acquired, will enable the manufacturer to turn off the article at less expense, and so afford it to the consumer at a reduced price. Thus will discriminating duties protect the manufacturer, and at the same time cheapen the article. Is it not so? Does not experience justify this position? Without a duty, the foreign manufacturer sells at the maximum price—with the duty, he sells at the minimum. Without the duty, he could profitably reduce his price to destroy our manufacturer—with the duty, he must come down to the lowest price to compete with him.

It has often been objected to the protective system, that it operated unequally; that its benefits were enjoyed by the north, and that its burdens fell upon the south. The injustice of this objection will appear from the fact that there is scarcely a northern interest, *as such*, which is protected; while there are several southern interests which have always enjoyed protection. Sugar, cotton, rice, and tobacco, are southern articles, and cannot be cultivated in the northern section of the country. Coal and lead are highly protected, but they are hardly found in the northern states. Hemp is among the protected articles, but is cultivated not in the northern and

eastern, but in the southwestern states. The articles of wool, salt, and iron, are the product of almost every section of the country, and pertain to the southern as much as to the northern states. Many of the articles mentioned above are southern, and cannot be produced at the north—all the advantages, then, of their protection, must accrue to other sections of the country. But it will be said that the cotton, woollen, paper, glass, and many other species of manufactures, which enjoy protection, are located at the north, and hence they enjoy peculiar benefits from the tariff.

But why are these manufactures located at the north? There is nothing in the acts of Congress which gives them any particular location. When the tariff of 1816 was passed, there were but few manufactures in the northern states; and if that law held out any great inducements to go into manufactures, why did not the south avail themselves of the benefits? Cotton can be manufactured at the south as well as at the north. The south could save the transportation of the raw material. They could raise the cotton, and manufacture it in the same neighborhood. And there is nothing in the woollen, glass, or paper manufacture, which excludes it from the southern states. They have water-power sufficient to drive machinery enough to manufacture for the world; and if they have not availed themselves of the privileges they enjoy, the fault is not chargeable to the northern states. The fact is, the northern states were in a great degree commercial, and they were compelled to go into manufactures by southern policy. The sterility of their soil forbade the idea of competing with the more fertile sections of the country; and, rather than leave the graves of their fathers, they embarked in this new species of industry. And is it to be charged to them as a crime, that they have been more enterprising and industrious than their southern friends, and have made greater proficiency in the arts of manufactures?

As to the burdens of the tariff, they fall upon the middle and northern states more than upon the southern. Every one who knows the character of southern society, knows that the dutiable articles are there used principally by a select class of the population; while, at the north, they are used by almost the entire population. Let the revenue from customs be abandoned, and let the burdens of the government fall upon the states according to federal numbers, and the south would see at once that her present complaints are unfounded. We have no disposition to excite local jealousies—we would rather strive to allay them. We have no disposition to build up one section of the Union at the expense of another—hence we are in favor of a tariff which shall protect every interest, and encourage enterprise and industry, in whatever business it may be employed, or in whatever part of the country it may be located.

But we are told that protection diminishes importations, and that our exports must correspond with our imports, and a tariff is a tax upon the exportation of cotton. We have no disposition, at this time, to go at length into this subject; but will content ourselves with observing that, if this argument be sound, the planting states are more clamorous for protection than any other section of the country. For they ask the government to shape their policy so as to meet their interest alone—to repeal those restrictions upon commerce which every nation has found necessary for national prosperity, and even national independence, that they may reap all the advantages in the sale of their great staple. But, suppose their request were granted, it would, on their own theory, operate in the

end to their own disadvantage. A repeal of discriminating duties would destroy our manufactures, and paralyze our industry, so as to render us unable to purchase foreign fabrics. Importations, then, would in a measure cease; and as imports and exports must correspond with each other, the export of cotton would be diminished. But we have no room to pursue this subject.

We are in favor of the protective system, because we believe it is calculated to promote the interest of our country, and our whole country. We believe that there is no one question of national policy in which the people have so deep an interest, as the one we have been considering. We are in favor of it, because it will promote the interest of the manufacturers, and save from ruin the \$300,000,000 of capital invested in that useful department of human industry. We are in favor of it, because we believe that it is productive of the commercial interests. We are in favor of it, because we regard it as essential to agriculture, that great and paramount interest, which is the foundation of every other. But, above all, we are in favor of the protective system, because it promotes the interest of the laborers of the country. This, after all, is the interest which requires the most protection. The rich man can rely upon his money for his support. If the times are hard, his money becomes more valuable, as it will command a better interest, and furnish him more of the comforts and luxuries of life. But to the poor man, the laborer, who has no capital but his ability to toil—to such a one, a prostration of business is absolute ruin. Now, as the protective policy is calculated to revive business, and give to the laborer the due reward of his toil, we regard it as the poor man's system—as his rightful inheritance.

This system has already done much for the poor man. There is no article of clothing which goes into the consumption of the poor man's family so extensively as cottons, in their various forms; and this policy has reduced the price of common cotton cloth more than three-quarters. Those shirtings, which in 1816 would cost some thirty cents per yard, can now be purchased for six cents; and other cottons have fallen nearly in the same proportion. We commend this to the special consideration of those who eat their bread in the sweat of their brow, who constitute the great mass of the people.

We say, in conclusion, that Congress not only possesses the power to lay protective duties, but the good of the country demands the exercise of this power. So thought the "Father of his country"—so thought the patriots and sages of the revolution. And shall the mere theorists of this day, with their refined closet-dreams, lead us from the paths which our fathers have trod, and which experience has shown us to be the paths of wisdom and of prosperity? Every feeling of national honor, every dictate of patriotism, every interest in the country, cries out against it.

THE skill of the merchant or tradesman is exhibited in the combination of the greatest profit with the least expense; and he will make the most money who calmly looks from the "beginning to the end," rather than to be attracted by any intermediate point, however profitable it may appear.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE abundance of money, which has so long been a marked feature of our financial affairs, continues unabated, and the value of money is perhaps lower than for twenty years. Trust funds, and other large amounts of money, have been freely offered to the large brokers' houses at call at less than 4 per cent per annum, and in some cases loans have been made at rates as low as $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The banking institutions, especially those with large capitals, were under the imperative necessity of employing their funds even in stock loans, in order to maintain their dividends. We pointed out this, in former numbers, as the cause of the very rapid rise in stocks which has taken place within the last ninety days. Subsequent to the publication of our June number, prices rose several per cent higher than the rates then quoted. United States 6 per cent rose to 116; New York 7, to 109; Ohio 6's, to 94; Kentucky 6's, to par; and Illinois, to 41. By that time, however, the quantity held by the banks as collateral, and for investment, was very large. Prices had reached very high figures, and those who had purchased the stocks, and pledged them with the banks, and were paying the interest to carry them, became desirous of realizing, and the upward tendency was checked. The steamer of the 19th, from Liverpool, then arrived, bringing accounts that were, although not unfavorable to American interests generally, less so as to stock operations, inasmuch as the rate of money in London had risen, under the effective demand for business purposes, from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 per cent, without any disposition to invest in American stocks having been produced by the previous inability to employ money to advantage. The plenteousness of money there, had long been confidently depended upon as likely, sooner or later, to overcome the prejudices against American securities—when, therefore, money again began to rise in value there, without having produced that effect, some disappointment was felt. The banks, however, continue to loan on the dividend-paying stocks, at 4 per cent, reserving a margin of 10 per cent. The great decrease in general business dependent upon banking facilities, leaves the institutions no resource but to invest in stocks, or to diminish their dividends. The imports into New York alone, for the year 1842, fell off \$25,000,000, as compared with the previous year. This, with the diminished trade of the interior, added to the growth of the cash method of doing business, must have made a difference of at least \$75,000,000 in the amount of business-paper offered at the banks. There are twenty-four banks in the city of New York, whose means of investment on the 1st January, 1843, consisting of capital, circulation, deposits, &c., amounted to \$55,000,000. A diminution of \$75,000,000 in the means of employing this amount, must have a very marked effect upon their profits; and it is only those of small capitals, and a popularity that procures them a large proportion of deposits, that can make good their usual dividends.

In our April number, we gave a table of prices of agricultural produce at the west, showing a great decline from July to March, during the contraction and liquidation of the banks. We then pointed out the indications that the funds which had so long been accumulating on the Atlantic border would soon effect a rise in prices, and consequently seek the west, and supply the depleted channels of circulation. Since the opening of the spring navigation, that process has been going on; and the lake trade, even at this early period of the season, presents a scene of activity seldom witnessed. Money is, at the leading lake ports, hourly becoming more plenty, and the buoyancy of the markets is steadily increasing. The success of the Ohio loan has had a great effect upon the people of that state; and the money distributed among them, followed by an effective demand for produce, gives a great impulse to business. In Illinois, the same features are apparent. At the extreme west, the same price for wheat, and other produce, affords a far greater margin to the producers than in the more easterly states—that is to say, sixty cents at Chicago is better for the Illinois farmer, than the same price at Cleveland is for him of Ohio. In the southern states, the price of cotton governs the prosperity of the section. For the last year, this has been low, on account of the great abundance of the crop, and the depressed state of the English markets. This latter circumstance has a powerful effect upon the condition of trade throughout the Union. The mere multiplication or diminution of banks and their paper, in the United States, has very little ultimate effect upon the real value of cotton; although, for the moment, by facilitating the movements of speculators, a competition is engendered, by which prices have been maintained in former years, at the south, uniformly higher than contemporaneous prices in Liverpool. Such a state of things is unhealthy, and dependent upon a continued rise in prices to avoid disaster. The effective demand in England, and the prices there actually

obtained, is that which governs the value of the cotton crop. For years, the English consumption of cotton has been rapidly on the increase. The enterprise and vigor of its government, in constantly procuring and extending new markets for the manufactured goods, has sustained the demand even in those years when the failure of the wheat crop, operating upon an impoverished people, wonderfully diminished the home consumption for cotton goods. In order to observe the progress of the cotton trade, we will take from parliamentary tables the pounds of raw cotton imported annually into England, and the value of cotton goods exported, as follows:—

	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Import cotton, ...lbs.	507,850,577	389,396,559	592,488,010	437,093,631	487,143,200
Exp. cot. goods, ...£	24,147,726	24,530,375	24,668,618	23,499,478	21,662,760
U. States crop, .bales	1,360,532	2,177,835	1,634,945	1,683,574	2,220,000

The markets of the north of Europe have been developed but in a small degree; as the progress of the continental manufactures has, backed by the increasing tariffs, checked the increased import, although they do not appear to have diminished the consumption of British goods. It is in the Brazils and the British colonies, particularly the East Indies, that the greatest increase is perceptible. The latter trade has more than doubled within four years, and now is equal to 25 per cent of the whole exports, while the settlement of the late difficulties leaves a far broader field for exertion. The exports to the United States show the greatest diminution during the descending scale of the duties under the compromise act. The total quantity exported from England, it appears, has doubled in the period embraced within the above table, while the aggregate value increased but 22 per cent; showing a depreciation in money-value to that extent. In 1840, 60,000,000 yards more cotton cloth were given for the same money than in 1839. At the same time, the price of the raw material, on the first of May each year, was as follows:—

	1843.			1842.			1841.			1840.			1839.		
	Mid.	Fair.	G'd.												
Sea Isl'd,	9d	10d	15d	10d	11½d	16d	15d	16d	20d	13½d	15d	18½d	22½d	24½d	29d
Up. Bow.	4	4½	5¼	4¾	5½	6½	6¼	6¾	7¼	5¾	6¼	6¾	8¼	8½	9¾
N. Or.,	4½	4½	6	4¾	5¾	7	6¼	7	7½	5½	6¾	7	8¾	8¾	9¾
Mobile, .	4½	4½	5½	4¾	5½	6¼	6½	6¾	7½	5½	6¼	6¾	8¾	8¾	9¾

Thus the cost of the raw material has been diminishing, and the cost of the manufactured article falling in the same degree. A cheap supply, with the renovation of trade under the present superfluity of money, will enhance the consumption, and all the connected interest rise on the ascending scale.

The past year has been one of greater depression in England than for many previous ones—at the same time, the production of the United States cotton has exceeded the average of the two previous crops by 470,000 bales, or 30 per cent. The consequence was very low prices. For the coming year, the reverse is likely to be the case. Money, from being 6 per cent, as at this period last year, has, for several months, been as low as 1½ a 2 per cent, in London—a position of affairs which we illustrated in our May number. By the last steamer, advices were received that the rate of money had advanced to 2 per cent under the improved demand, caused by increasing trade. Prices of provisions, which are the great element of the prosperity of the English internal trade, were very low, at the same time that money was very abundant. The effect was a marked improvement in the cotton trade of Lancashire, leading to a rise in the raw material, notwithstanding that the full extent of the crop—2,220,000 bales—was known. These are elements of American prosperity far more durable and beneficial than any improvement of stocks, unaccompanied by such indications. As yet, it is far too early to judge of the appearance of the cotton crops; but the probability is, that it will not be so large as last year. Should it, however, run as high, the opening of the East India markets for goods, and of the Chinese market for East India cotton, are combined causes likely to add at least \$10,000,000 to the money-value of our great staple. A rise of two cents per pound in a crop of the extent of the present one, makes a difference of \$18,000,000 in the means of the planters to purchase supplies, and forms the real basis of our national prosperity. A sustained rise in cotton, with a proportionate rise in money-value of the agricultural surplus produce, is the groundwork of the whole trade of the country. A rise in cotton and tobacco has a far greater effect on trade than on other produce, because nearly the whole quantity raised is sold abroad; while, in other produce, only the surplus, after the wants of the producer are satisfied, is affected by the money-value. If a farmer raises no more than he consumes, the market price is of no consequence to him—

as soon as he has a surplus, it becomes of first consequence to him. With the cotton and tobacco planter, the whole quantity raised is sold, and mostly abroad. Hence, the higher the cash price in Liverpool, the more he, as well as the nation, becomes enriched. That cash value abroad depends upon the state of the currency, and the proportion which supply bears to consumption. For the last year, the currency has been very dear, and the supply in excess of consumption. For the coming year, the currency will be very cheap, and consumption increased on a diminished supply. Another circumstance is also likely to favor the planter. The English duty on cotton is 7 per cent; and the ex-chancellor, Sir F. Baring, in a recent debate, proposed a reduction of that duty, with a view to "renovate England's drooping trade."

The whole policy of England seems now to favor that system of commercial reciprocity to which the world has been advancing, by slow degrees, since the conclusion of peace, in 1815; when, for the first time, for a period of one hundred and seventy years, during which the navigation act of England had been in full operation, its provisions were modified in favor of the United States. The navigation act provided that no goods should be imported into England, in other than English ships, except from Europe; and goods coming from Europe, in vessels belonging to the country of their production, were subject to high discriminating duties. In 1815, by mutual convention between the United States and Great Britain, the vessels of both countries were admitted into the ports of each nation on the same footing, without discrimination. The commerce of Great Britain has hitherto regulated that of the world, because of its extent and importance. Great Britain, under the old system of universal restriction, rose to be the wealthiest nation by the force of its physical situation, in spite of governmental restrictions. The release of the United States from her control, in 1776, started into life a new and powerful nation, whose liberal principles caused her to grow with unparalleled rapidity. At the end of the bloody wars, terminating in 1815, it was found that a new departure was to be taken, and liberal principles alone could sustain the position of England. This, the deep sagacity of Mr. Pitt had discovered at the close of the last century. That great statesman labored long and hard to liberate the colonies; to grant to the United States a free trade with the whole empire of Great Britain, and to open a commerce with France on terms of the most extensive reciprocity. He was ably seconded by Mr. Jefferson, on this side, in his report of March, 1792, in which a broad plan of commercial reciprocity was ably projected. The long and bloody wars which succeeded, frustrated these designs; but the moment peace returned, the navigation act was virtually abolished in regard to the United States. In 1822, the trade of the colonies became comparatively free. In 1824 to 1826, most of the countries of Europe obtained a modification of the navigation laws on terms similar to the United States. Scarcely a year passed thereafter, but the people of England have obtained some important concessions from the aristocracy. The tariff has been reduced until it is scarcely a skeleton of what it was. We will here look back at the navigation of Great Britain and the United States since 1815, and France since 1820, although the English treaty with France was not concluded until 1826, admitting French ships into English ports on terms of reciprocity. In order the better to compare the tonnage of the three nations, we take the national and foreign tons entered in each year.

TONNAGE ENTERED THE THREE NATIONS OF FRANCE, UNITED STATES, AND GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Entered the United Kingdom.		Entered the U. States.		Entered France.	
	British.	Foreign.	American.	Foreign.	French.	Foreign.
1815,.....	1,372,108	746,985	700,000	217,413
1816,.....	1,415,723	379,465	807,462	259,142
1817,.....	1,625,121	465,011	780,136	212,166
1818,.....	1,886,394	762,457	755,101	161,414
1819,.....	1,809,128	542,648	783,579	85,898
1820,.....	1,668,060	447,611	801,253	78,859	335,942	354,550
1821,.....	1,599,274	396,256	765,098	82,915	316,243	367,092
1822,.....	1,664,186	469,151	787,961	112,407	285,560	423,044
1823,.....	1,740,859	582,996	775,271	117,297	229,129	423,162
1824,.....	1,797,320	759,441	850,033	89,481	316,480	438,005
1825,.....	2,144,598	958,132	880,754	94,836	329,735	414,670
1826,.....	1,950,630	694,116	942,206	120,716	355,756	544,682
1827,.....	2,806,898	751,864	908,861	137,562	353,102	475,509
1828,.....	2,094,357	634,620	863,381	147,006	346,591	527,639
1829,.....	2,184,525	710,303	872,949	130,098	331,049	581,755
1830,.....	2,180,042	758,828	967,227	136,440	340,171	669,283
1831,.....	2,367,322	874,605	922,952	217,656	333,216	461,194

TONNAGE ENTERED FRANCE, THE UNITED STATES, AND GREAT BRITAIN—Continued.

Years.	Entered the United Kingdom.		Entered the U. States.		Entered France.	
	British.	Foreign.	American.	Foreign.	French.	Foreign.
1832,.....	2,185,980	639,979	949,622	421,667	399,948	714,638
1833,.....	2,183,844	762,085	1,111,441	520,874	358,157	622,735
1834,.....	2,298,263	833,905	1,074,670	568,052	394,486	736,918
1835,.....	2,442,734	866,990	1,352,653	641,310	407,999	766,033
1836,.....	2,505,473	988,899	1,255,384	680,213	550,121	889,345
1837,.....	2,616,166	1,005,940	1,299,720	765,703	592,124	910,111
1838,.....	2,785,387	1,211,666	1,302,974	592,110	620,140	915,000
1839,.....	3,101,650	1,331,365	1,490,279	624,814	642,130	924,220
1840,.....	3,197,501	1,460,294	1,576,946	712,363	665,178	1,076,737
1841,.....	2,900,749	1,081,380	1,631,909	736,444	630,071	1,193,289
1842,.....	2,680,838	974,768

The policy of Great Britain, since 1815, has been consistent, and constantly increasing in liberality. She has taken the sure method of encouraging her navigation—that is, by continually reducing the duties on the materials of ship-building, she has enabled her ships to compete with those of all the world. The policy of the United States, on the contrary, has been the most absurd and contradictory imaginable. A government allowance has been made to 70 or 80,000 tons employed in fishing, to encourage the growth of a naval marine. By laws and treaties, all discriminating duties on the ships of most of the countries of Europe have been abolished; all nations have had the privilege of importing the produce of any country, direct or otherwise, without exacting alien duties. Everything has been done to clear the paths of the ocean to the ships of all nations; yet our own ships, staggering under the weight of the competition thus brought against them, have been crushed by the onerous taxes laid upon the materials for ship-building, under pretence of protecting the producers of those materials. It has been the policy to enlarge the intercourse with all the world for empty ships of the most expensive construction. The only encouragement or protection which American shipping wants, is a prompt repeal of duties upon iron, hemp, sail cloth, &c. Railroads have been protected by refunding the duty; yet the mariner, the right arm of our defence, has been obliged to carry the load. In the above table of American tonnage, the ratio of foreign to American, in 1815, was 30 per cent. It gradually fell, until, in 1822, it was less than 9 per cent. In 1828, it had risen to 15 per cent. Under the enormous tariff of that year, it rose to 50 per cent in 1832, and 60 per cent in 1828. This was the tonnage in the foreign trade. The coasting tonnage from 1828 to 1836, eight years, did not increase at all. In the latter year, it was 984,328 tons. In 1841, it had risen to 1,284,940 tons, under the falling rates of the compromise tariff. In order to show the burden actually imposed upon American navigation, as compared with that of Great Britain, in 1828, we give the following table:—

DUTIES ON THE MATERIALS CONSUMED IN BUILDING A SHIP OF FIVE HUNDRED TONS, NOT COPPER FASTENED.

	British duty.		American duty.	
7 tons Swedish iron, at	\$6 66	equal \$46 66;	at \$22 40	equal \$156 80
13 “ English “	None.	“	37 00	“ 481 00
20,160 lbs. chain cables, 9 tons,...	6 66	“ 60 00;	“ 03	“ 604 80
4,600 lbs. anchors,.....	“	“ 02	“ 92 00
62 pieces heavy duck, 2,356 yards				
20 “ light “ 760 “				
	3,116 “	at 7½d “	432 67;	“ 12½ “ 389 50
15 tons cordage, 12 tons hemp, at \$20 74	“	“	248 88;	“ 60 00 “ 720 00
British tax on a ship of 500 tons,.....	\$788 21;		American tax, \$2,444 10	
			British tax,.... 788 21	
Premium on British ships of 500 tons,.....	\$1,655 91			

Now the British ship, costing so much money, has been allowed the same privileges as the American vessels since 1828, when this duty was imposed. In this, we have the undoubted cause of the rapid increase of British tonnage in our waters. The American policy has been, as we have said, to extend navigation for ships, and to leave the ships

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR FIFTY-ONE YEARS.

THE following table, which we have compiled from official sources, exhibits the value of all the exports in each year from 1790 to 1841, and the value of those of domestic and foreign origin since 1803:—

To Sept. 30.	Val. of Exp. of Domestic Origin. Dollars.	Val. of Exp. of Foreign Origin. Dollars.	Total Value of Exports. Dollars.	To Sept. 30.	Val. of Exp. of Domestic Origin. Dollars.	Val. of Exp. of Foreign Origin. Dollars.	Total Value of Exports. Dollars.
1791,	19,012,041	1817,	68,313,500	19,358,069	87,671,569
1792,	20,753,098	1818,	73,854,437	19,426,696	93,281,133
1793,	26,109,572	1819,	50,976,838	19,165,683	70,142,521
1794,	33,026,233	1820,	51,683,640	18,008,029	69,691,669
1795,	47,989,472	1821,	43,671,894	21,302,488	64,974,382
1796,	67,064,097	1822,	49,874,079	22,286,202	72,160,281
1797,	56,850,206	1823,	47,155,408	27,543,622	74,699,030
1798,	61,527,097	1824,	50,649,500	25,337,157	75,986,657
1799,	78,665,522	1825,	66,944,745	32,590,643	99,535,388
1800,	70,971,780	1826,	53,055,710	24,539,612	77,595,322
1801,	94,115,925	1827,	58,921,691	23,403,136	82,324,829
1802,	72,483,160	1828,	50,669,669	21,595,017	72,264,686
1803,	42,205,961	13,594,072	55,800,033	1829,	55,700,193	16,658,478	72,358,671
1804,	41,467,477	36,231,597	77,699,074	1830,	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508
1805,	42,387,002	53,179,019	95,566,021	1831,	61,277,057	20,033,526	81,310,583
1806,	41,253,727	60,283,234	101,536,963	1832,	63,137,470	24,039,473	87,176,943
1807,	48,699,592	59,643,558	108,343,150	1833,	70,317,698	19,822,735	90,140,433
1808,	9,433,546	12,997,414	22,430,960	1834,	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973
1809,	31,405,702	20,797,531	52,203,233	1835,	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,693,577
1810,	42,366,675	24,391,295	66,757,970	1836,	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040
1811,	45,294,043	16,022,790	61,316,833	1837,	95,564,414	21,854,962	117,419,376
1812,	30,032,109	8,495,127	38,527,236	1838,	96,033,821	12,452,795	108,486,616
1813,	25,008,152	2,847,845	27,855,997	1839,	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416
1814,	6,782,272	0,145,169	6,927,441	1840,	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,946
1815,	45,974,403	6,583,350	52,557,753	1841,	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803
1816,	64,781,896	17,138,555	81,920,452				

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1803 TO 1841.

The following table, compiled with great care from official documents, exhibits the value of the products of the Sea, of the Forest, of Agriculture and of Manufactures exported in each year, from 1803 to 1841, a period of nearly 40 years. It shows, at a glance, the proportion of each general description of our productive industry:—

Years.	Of the Sea.	Of the Forest.	Of Agriculture.	Of Manufactures.
1803.....	\$2,635,000	\$4,850,000	\$32,995,000	\$1,355,000
1804.....	3,420,000	4,630,000	30,890,000	2,100,000
1805.....	2,884,000	5,261,000	31,562,000	2,300,000
1806.....	3,116,000	4,861,000	30,125,000	2,707,000
1807.....	2,804,000	5,476,000	37,832,000	2,120,000
1808.....	832,000	1,399,000	1,746,000	344,000
1809.....	1,710,000	4,583,000	23,234,000	1,506,000
1810.....	1,481,000	4,978,000	33,502,000	1,907,000
1811.....	1,413,000	5,286,000	35,556,000	2,376,000
1812.....	935,000	2,701,000	24,555,000	1,355,000
1813.....	304,000	1,107,000	23,119,000	399,000
1814.....	188,000	570,000	5,613,000	246,300
1815.....	912,000	3,910,000	38,910,000	1,553,000

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1803 TO 1841—Continued.

Years.	Of the Sea.	Of the Forest.	Of Agriculture.	Of Manufactures.
1816,.....	\$1,331,000	\$7,293,000	\$53,354,000	\$1,755,000
1817,.....	1,671,000	1,484,000	57,222,000	2,551,000
1818,.....	2,187,000	5,691,000	62,987,000	2,777,000
1819,.....	2,024,000	4,927,000	41,452,000	2,245,000
1820,.....	2,251,000	5,304,000	41,485,000	2,342,000
1821,.....	1,499,188	3,794,341	35,407,992	2,754,631
1822,.....	1,384,589	3,815,542	41,272,379	3,121,030
1823,.....	1,658,224	4,498,911	37,646,726	3,139,598
1824,.....	1,610,990	4,889,646	38,995,198	4,841,383
1825,.....	1,595,065	4,938,949	54,237,751	5,729,797
1826,.....	1,473,388	3,951,250	41,253,001	6,100,985
1827,.....	1,575,332	3,343,970	47,065,143	6,680,225
1828,.....	1,693,980	3,889,611	38,610,924	6,241,391
1829,.....	1,817,100	3,681,759	43,954,584	6,025,200
1830,.....	1,725,270	4,192,004	46,977,332	6,258,131
1831,.....	1,889,472	4,263,477	47,261,433	7,147,364
1832,.....	2,558,538	4,347,794	49,416,183	6,461,774
1833,.....	2,402,469	4,906,339	55,343,421	6,923,922
1834,.....	2,071,493	4,457,997	67,380,787	7,113,885
1835,.....	2,174,524	5,397,004	85,049,964	8,567,590
1836,.....	2,666,058	5,361,740	91,625,924	7,261,186
1837,.....	2,711,452	4,711,007	78,385,281	8,995,368
1838,.....	3,175,576	5,200,499	78,194,447	9,463,299
1839,.....	1,917,969	5,764,559	84,923,834	10,927,529
1840,.....	3,198,370	5,323,085	93,125,339	12,868,840
1841,.....	2,846,851	6,264,852	81,747,947	13,523,072

RICE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

EXPORTS OF RICE FOR FIFTY-ONE YEARS—1791 TO 1841.

We have compiled, from official documents, the following table, showing the quantity of rice exported from the United States in each year, from 1791 to 1841; also, the value of the same, from 1803 to 1841:—

The culture of this valuable and most nutritious vegetable was introduced into South Carolina about the year 1694.* Different accounts have been given as to the manner of its first introduction. The account given by Dr. Ramsay, in his valuable history of South Carolina, published in 1809, is probably the most correct, and which we shall give in his own words.

“Landgrave Thomas Smith, who was governor of the province in 1693, had been at Madagascar before he settled in Carolina. There he observed that rice was planted and grew in low and moist ground. Having such ground at the western extremity of his garden, attached to his dwelling-house in East Bay-street, he was persuaded that rice would grow therein, if seed could be obtained. About this time a vessel from Madagascar, being in distress, came to anchor near Sullivan’s island. The master of the vessel inquired for Mr. Smith as an old acquaintance. An interview took place. In the course of conversation Mr. Smith expressed a wish to obtain some seed-rice to plant in his garden, by way of experiment. The cook being called, said he had a small bag of rice suitable for that purpose. This was presented to Mr. Smith, who sowed it in a low spot in his garden, which now forms a part of Longitude-lane. It grew luxuriantly. The little crop was distributed by Mr. Smith among his planting friends. From this small beginning the first staple of South Carolina took its rise. It soon after became the chief support of the colony.”

* Pitkin’s Statistics.

Its introduction contributed much to the prosperity of that part of North America. It became valuable, not only for consumption at home, but as an article for exportation. By an Act of Parliament, of 3 and 4 of Anne, (1706,) rice was placed among the enumerated commodities, and could only be shipped directly to Great Britain; but afterwards, in the year 1730, it was permitted to be carried, under certain limitations and restrictions, to the ports of Europe lying south of Cape Finisterre. Its culture had so increased, that, as early as 1724, eighteen thousand barrels of it were exported; and from November, 1760, to September, 1761, no less than one hundred thousand barrels were shipped from South Carolina.*

In 1770, the value of this article exported, being in quantity about one hundred and sixty thousand barrels, amounted to \$1,530,000.

Years.	Tierces.	Value.	Years.	Tierces.	Value.
1791	96,980		1817	79,296	2,378,880
1792	141,762		1818	88,181	3,262,697
1793	134,611		1819	76,523	2,142,644
1794	116,486		1820	71,663	1,714,923
1795	138,526		1821	88,221	1,494,923
1796	131,039		1822	87,089	1,553,482
1797	60,111		1823	101,365	1,820,985
1798	125,243		1824	113,229	1,882,982
1799	110,599		1825	97,015	1,925,245
1800	112,056		1826	111,063	1,917,445
1801	94,866		1827	133,518	2,343,908
1802	79,822		1828	175,019	2,620,696
1803	81,838	\$2,455,000	1829	171,636	2,514,370
1804	78,385	2,350,000	1830	130,697	1,986,824
1805	56,830	1,705,000	1831	116,517	2,016,267
1806	102,627	2,617,000	1832	120,327	2,152,631
1807	94,692	2,367,000	1833	144,166	2,774,418
1808	9,228	221,000	1834	121,886	2,122,272
1809	116,907	2,104,000	1835	110,851	2,210,331
1810	131,341	2,626,000	1836	212,983	2,548,750
1811	119,356	2,367,000	1837	106,084	2,309,279
1812	77,190	1,544,000	1838	71,048	1,721,819
1813	120,843	3,021,000	1839	93,320	2,460,198
1814	11,476	230,000	1840	101,660	1,942,076
1815	129,248	2,785,000	1841	101,617	2,010,107
1816	137,843	3,555,000			

PRODUCTS OF THE SEA.

FISH EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The following table, compiled from official documents, exhibits the quantity of pickled and dried fish, in quintals, barrels, and kegs, exported from the United States for fifty-one years, from 1791 to 1841; also, the value of the same in each year, from 1803 to 1841:—

Years.	Dried Fish. Quintals.	Dried Fish. Value.	Pickled Fish. Barrels.	Pickled Fish. Kegs.	Pickled Fish. Value.
1791	383,237		57,426		
1792	364,898		48,277		
1793	372,825		45,440		
1794	436,907		36,929		
1795	400,818		55,999		
1796	377,713		84,558	5,256	
1797	406,016		69,782	7,351	
1798	411,175		66,827	6,220	
1799	428,495		63,542	15,993	

* Macpherson's Annals of Commerce.

FISH EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Years.	Dried Fish. Quintals.	Dried Fish. Value.	Pickled Fish. Barrels.	Pickled Fish. Kegs.	Pickled Fish. Value.
1800,.....	392,726	50,388	12,403
1801,.....	410,948	85,935	10,424
1802,.....	440,925	75,819	13,229
1803,.....	461,870	\$1,620,000	76,831	11,565	\$560,000
1804,.....	567,828	2,400,000	89,482	13,045	640,000
1805,.....	514,549	2,058,000	56,670	7,207	348,000
1806,.....	537,457	2,150,000	64,615	10,155	366,000
1807,.....	473,924	1,896,000	57,621	13,743	302,000
1808,.....	155,808	623,000	18,957	3,036	98,000
1809,.....	345,648	1,123,000	54,777	9,380	282,000
1810,.....	280,864	913,000	34,674	5,964	214,000
1811,.....	214,387	757,000	44,716	9,393	305,000
1812,.....	169,019	592,000	23,636	3,143	146,000
1813,.....	63,616	210,000	13,833	568	81,000
1814,.....	31,310	128,000	8,436	87	50,000
1815,.....	103,251	494,000	36,232	3,062	218,000
1816,.....	219,991	935,000	33,228	6,983	221,000
1817,.....	267,514	1,003,000	44,426	15,551	325,000
1818,.....	308,747	1,081,000	55,119	7,400	317,000
1819,.....	280,555	1,052,000	66,563	6,746	409,000
1820,.....	321,419	964,000	87,916	7,309	538,000
1821,.....	267,305	708,778	76,429	4,162	264,000
1822,.....	241,228	666,730	69,127	7,191	249,108
1823,.....	262,766	734,024	75,728	8,349	270,776
1824,.....	310,189	873,685	72,559	12,911	263,019
1825,.....	300,857	830,356	70,572	10,636	248,417
1826,.....	260,803	667,742	85,445	11,459	257,180
1827,.....	247,321	747,171	66,123	7,446	240,276
1828,.....	265,217	819,926	63,928	4,205	246,737
1829,.....	294,761	747,541	61,629	3,207	220,527
1830,.....	229,796	530,690	66,113	6,723	225,987
1831,.....	230,577	625,393	91,787	8,594	304,441
1832,.....	250,544	749,909	102,770	4,030	308,812
1833,.....	249,689	713,317	86,442	3,636	277,973
1834,.....	253,132	630,384	61,638	2,344	223,290
1835,.....	287,721	783,895	51,661	3,487	224,639
1836,.....	240,769	746,464	48,182	3,575	221,426
1837,.....	188,943	588,506	40,516	3,430	181,334
1838,.....	206,028	626,245	41,699	2,667	192,758
1839,.....	208,720	709,218	23,831	3,975	141,320
1840,.....	211,425	541,058	42,274	2,252	179,106
1841,.....	252,199	602,810	36,508	3,349	148,973

EXPORT OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURED COTTON GOODS FROM
1826 TO 1842.

Considerable attention having lately been attracted to the circumstance of a large shipment of domestic cottons from Boston for China, the editor of the United States Gazette has been induced to investigate a little the subject of the exportation of domestic manufactures, especially those of cotton, and has formed the following table from the annual reports of the Treasury since 1826—that being the first year in which the returns are furnished. It appears by the Boston memorial, presented at the last session of Congress, that the manufacture of cotton, as an important branch of American industry, may be considered as having commenced in 1816, and was confined to white goods until 1825, when that of printed goods commenced. In that year they estimate the consumption of cotton at 100,000 bales, and in 1842 at 300,000 bales, or 120,000,000 pounds;

that the present consumption is equal to the whole export of the United States up to 1820, or the whole consumption of American cotton in Great Britain to the same period, and exceeds our export to France previous to 1840. In 1842 they estimate 150,000,000 yards to be printed annually, valued at \$16,000,000, and employing a capital of \$25,000,000. They estimate January, 1842, as follows:—

101,300 pieces of 30 yards per week each, is, per annum.....	yards	158,028,000
150,000,000 yards at an average of 11 cents, is.....		\$16,500,000
Capital required for manufacturing the above quantity of cloth.....		\$17,500,000
“ “ printing it.....		7,500,000
Total,		\$25,000,000

It appears by the table, that, in 1826, the printed and colored cottons exported amounted to \$68,884, and in 1842 to \$385,040; and that the exports of white cottons in 1826 amounted to \$821,629; in 1838, to \$3,250,130; and in 1842, to \$2,302,815. Of nankeens, which amounted in 1826 to \$8,903, the export entirely ceased in 1841. The export of twist, yarn, and thread has increased from \$11,135, in 1826, to \$37,325 in 1842; and all other manufactures of cotton from \$227,574 to \$250,361.

The total export of cotton manufactures in 1826 was \$1,138,125; in 1833 it exceeded \$2,500,000, and in 1838 amounted to \$3,758,755; and has averaged over \$3,000,000 up to 1842, inclusive, which is the latest account received, and for which year we are indebted to the Treasury Department.

In the last column of the table we have placed the annual amount of export of all American manufactures, from 1826 to 1841—by comparing which with the preceding column, may be ascertained the relative proportion which the manufactures of cotton exported bear to the whole export of American manufactured goods of all materials. It varies from about one-sixth to one-third.

It appears that, in 1842, there was a small decrease in the amount of American cottons exported.

Table, showing the Value of Domestic Manufactures of Cotton exported from the United States from 1826 to 1842.

Years.	PIECE GOODS.				Twist yarn and thread.	All other manufact. of cotton.	Total value of cotton manufactures exported.	Total value of exports of American manufact. of all materials.
	Printed & Colored.	White.	Nankeens.					
1826,....	\$68,884	\$821,629	\$8,903	\$11,135	\$227,574	\$1,138,125	\$6,100,985	
1827,....	45,120	951,001	14,750	11,165	137,368	1,159,414	6,680,225	
1828,....	76,012	887,628	5,149	12,570	28,873	1,010,232	6,241,391	
1829,....	145,024	981,370	1,878	3,849	127,336	1,259,457	6,025,206	
1830,....	61,800	964,196	1,093	24,744	266,350	1,318,183	6,258,131	
1831,....	96,931	947,932	2,397	17,221	61,832	1,126,313	7,147,364	
1832,....	104,870	1,052,891	341	12,618	58,854	1,229,574	6,461,774	
1833,....	421,721	1,802,116	2,054	104,335	202,291	2,532,517	6,923,922	
1834,....	188,619	1,756,136	1,061	88,376	51,802	2,085,994	6,648,393	
1835,....	397,412	2,355,202	400	97,808	7,859	2,858,681	8,023,674	
1836,....	256,625	1,950,795	637	32,765	14,912	2,255,734	6,453,266	
1837,....	549,801	2,043,115	1,815	61,702	175,040	2,831,473	8,425,559	
1838,....	252,044	3,250,130	6,017	168,021	82,543	3,758,755	8,875,538	
1839,....	412,661	2,525,301	1,492	17,465	18,114	2,975,033	10,233,440	
1840,....	398,977	2,925,257	1,200	31,445	192,728	3,549,607	12,108,535	
1841,....	450,503	2,324,839	43,503	303,701	3,122,546	12,699,506	
1842,....	385,040	2,302,815	37,325	250,361	2,975,541	

8*

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF MONTEVIDEO AND BUENOS AYRES,
FROM 1838 TO 1842 INCLUSIVE.

STATEMENT OF SUNDRY EXPORTS FROM BUENOS AYRES AND MONTEVIDEO IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS.

Years.	Dry and Salted ox and cow hides. <i>Number.</i>	Horse hides. <i>Number.</i>	Horse hair. <i>Arrobas.</i>	Wool. <i>Arrobas.</i>
1838,.....	1,218,101	64,596	80,536	199,059
1839,.....	1,262,468	49,798	49,832	75,062
1840,.....	1,318,827	48,804	61,101	96,611
1841,.....	3,552,938	177,508	177,095	959,067
1842,.....	2,930,040	140,355	115,811	516,798

Years.	Sheep skins. <i>Dozens.</i>	Nutria skins. <i>Dozens.</i>	Tallow and soap stuff. <i>Arrobas.</i>	Horns. <i>Number.</i>
1838,.....	58,965	71,745	314,253	1,030,000
1839,.....	16,804	21,839	407,392	1,199,000
1840,.....	10,351	12,540	375,474	1,142,036
1841,.....	211,694	97,904	1,222,086	2,637,972
1842,.....	102,424	97,523	511,735	2,183,919

Whereof to the United States :—

Years.	Dry and Salted ox and cow hides. <i>Number.</i>	Horse hides. <i>Number.</i>	Horse hair. <i>Arrobas.</i>	Wool. <i>Arrobas.</i>
1838,.....	178,514	4,684	5,976	88,629
1839,.....	213,393	7,352	17,872	59,410
1840,.....	97,222	3,258	6,452	30,795
1841,.....	627,776	23,319	25,152	482,764
1842,.....	392,489	6,939	13,217	168,895

Years.	Sheep skins. <i>Dozens.</i>	Nutria skins. <i>Dozens.</i>	Tallow and soap stuff. <i>Arrobas.</i>	Horns. <i>Number.</i>
1838,.....	33,258	626	108,736	159,000
1839,.....	15,280	13,125	126,105	246,000
1840,.....	5,633	492	35,551	158,590
1841,.....	83,601	20,808	77,172	438,300
1842,.....	18,320	13,216	5,659	585,354

Exports from the Port of Montevideo during the year 1842.

649,281 salted ox and cow hides at \$3 50,.....	\$2,272,483
703,759 dry " " \$2 50,.....	1,759,397
54,253 salted horse hides at 13 reals,.....	88,161
3,330 dry " " 10 "	4,162
433,810 quintals jerked beef at \$2 00,.....	867,620
87,330 arrobas grease at 13 reals,.....	141,911
25,654 " tallow at 15 "	48,101
7,659 quintals horse hair at \$14 00,.....	107,226
973,966 horns at \$30 00,.....	29,219
2,535 bales wool at \$30 00,.....	76,050
22,890 colt skins at 3 reals,.....	8,584
2,580 arrobas mares' oil at 9 reals,.....	2,902
97,033 calf skins at 3 reals,.....	36,387
2,591 dozen sheep skins at \$2 00,.....	5,182
9,044 quintals hide cuttings at \$2 00,.....	18,088
4,375 tons bones at \$6 00,.....	26,250
2,024 dozen nutria skins at \$2 50,.....	5,060
2,011 pounds ostrich feathers at 2 reals,.....	503
Deer skins, bone ashes, tallow candles, mules, seal oil and skins,.....	75,932
Total,.....	\$5,573,218
American vessels arrived during the same year,.....	112

EXPORT OF FLOUR AND WHEAT.

THE United States have treaties of commerce that admit our grain into sixty-one foreign governments and colonies. The markets to which our flour and wheat were exported last year, as given in the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, furnished for the use of the United States Senate, were as follows:—

Whither exported.	Flour.	Dollars.
Sweden and Norway,.....barrels	9	48
Swedish West Indies,....."	15,624	80,199
Danish West Indies,....."	42,394	217,475
Hanse Towns,....."	665	3,227
Holland,....."	250	1,414
Dutch East Indies,....."	7,841	40,219
" West Indies,....."	14,932	80,891
" Guiana,....."	1,502	8,320
England,....."	205,154	984,555
Scotland,....."	3,830	18,910
Gibraltar,....."	19,229	95,417
Malta,....."	100	513
British East Indies,....."	11,357	59,239
Australia,....."	7,416	38,199
British West Indies,....."	246,465	1,235,850
" Guiana,....."	17,385	95,602
Cape of Good Hope,....."	3,570	18,662
Honduras,....."	4,699	26,112
British American Colonies,....."	377,806	1,860,659
France on the Atlantic,....."	1,140	5,923
" " Mediterranean,....."	200	1,000
French West Indies,....."	4,739	23,478
" Guiana,....."	659	3,853
Spain on the Atlantic,....."	104	449
" " Mediterranean....."	458	2,487
Manilla and Philippine islands,....."	3,425	21,213
Cuba,....."	69,337	336,028
Other Spanish West India islands,....."	15,566	82,302
Madeira,....."	5,408	24,746
Cape de Verde islands,....."	1,324	7,133
Italy,....."	259	1,275
Turkey, Levant, &c.,....."	646	3,271
Hayi,....."	36,456	188,173
Texas,....."	6,401	29,547
Mexico,....."	19,602	90,464
Central Republic of America,....."	469	2,542
Venezuela,....."	28,796	157,173
Brazil,....."	282,406	1,597,423
Cephatine Republic,....."	13,327	64,265
Chili,....."	6,478	39,567
Argentine Republic,....."	22,132	120,804
New Grenada,....."	2,764	13,768
West Indies generally,....."	1,626	8,601
South America generally,....."	1,950	10,881
China generally,....."	220	1,247
Asia generally,....."	763	4,388
Africa generally,....."	3,728	21,170
South seas and Sandwich islands,....."	5,307	27,928
Total,....."	1,516,817	\$7,759,646

It appears that the number of barrels exported was..... 1,516,817
 Bushels of wheat 868,585—in barrels of flour..... 175,600

Total barrels exported last year,..... 1,691,417

EXPORT OF FLOUR AND WHEAT—Continued.

Wheat exported—		Bushels.	Dollars.
To England,.....		119,854	129,309
British West Indies,.....		35,622	41,116
“ American Colonies,.....		695,389	629,938
Manilla,.....		1,200	1,387
Mexico,.....		20	20
Brazil,.....		16,457	21,028
River La Plate,.....		43	88
Total,.....		868,585	\$822,881

TRADE OF NEW YORK, BOSTON, PHILADELPHIA, AND BALTIMORE, WITH LIVERPOOL.

The Baltimore American publishes a statement of exports from Liverpool to New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, for the spring trade of 1842 and 1843. The table embraces the articles of cotton stuffs, worsted stuffs, woollen stuffs, linen cloth, cotton thread, cotton hose, and blankets. The whole number of packages received of these descriptions of goods, was as follows:—

From	1842.	1843.	Decrease this year.	From	1842.	1843.	Decrease this year.
Oct. 1 to Feb. 10,				Oct. 1 to Feb. 10,			
At New York, .	24,436	6,744	17,692	At Baltimore, ..	1,105	492	613
Boston,.....	3,592	1,890	1,702				
Philadelphia	5,072	1,114	3,958	Total,.....	34,205	10,240	23,965

The following table will show the aggregate importation of the several articles at the ports named:—

From	1842.	1843.	Decrease this year.	From	1842.	1843.	Decrease this year.
Oct. 1 to Feb. 10,				Oct. 1 to Feb. 10,			
Cotton stuffs,...	17,028	3,343	13,685	Cotton hose,....	244	16	228
Worsted stuffs, .	2,684	846	1,838	Blankets,.....	382	69	313
Woollen stuffs, .	5,199	2,235	2,964				
Linen cloth,....	7,669	3,478	4,185	Total,.....	34,205	10,240	23,965
Cotton thread, .	1,005	253	752				

RIO JANEIRO IMPORTS OF FLOUR, AND EXPORTS OF COFFEE.

The following is a comparative statement of Rio Janeiro imports of flour, and exports of coffee, during the years 1841 and 1842:—

	Coffee exported in—	
	1841.	1842.
To New Orleans,.....bags	126,865	112,798
New York,.....“	125,419	106,617
Baltimore,.....“	120,462	92,562
Philadelphia,.....“	30,199	19,660
Charleston,.....“	3,500	8,130
Boston, &c.,.....“	24,271	23,513
Total,.....“	430,716	363,280
To Europe,.....“	569,500	793,690
Grand total,.....“	1,000,216	1,156,970

Flour imported in 1841, 236,488 barrels; exported, 81,571 barrels.

“ “ 1842, 157,185 “ “ 61,796 “

Our monthly consumption is about 10,000 barrels, and there arrived last month 31,303 barrels, making the stock now on hand 49,742 barrels.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES OF LIGHTHOUSES ON THE COAST OF THE UNITED STATES.

A LIST OF LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES OF LIGHTHOUSES ON THE COAST OF THE UNITED STATES, AS DETERMINED FROM THE PRELIMINARY CALCULATIONS OF THE COAST SURVEY, BY F. R. HASSLER.

Names of States and Places.	Latitude.			Longitude counted from New York City Hall.				Direction east or west.	Long. W. from Greenwich observatory, England, in degs.					
	D.	M.	S.	In time.			In degrees.							
				H.	M.	S.	D.		M.	S.				
N. York City Hall,	40	42	40,9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	...	74	00	56,7
RHODE ISLAND.														
Point Judith,.....	41	21	35	0	10	06,1	2	31	31		E.	71	29	25
Watchhill,.....	41	18	09	0	08	35,6	2	08	54		"	71	52	03
Block Island,.....	41	13	24	0	09	43,5	2	25	53		"	71	35	04
CONNECTICUT.														
Stonington,.....	41	19	34	0	08	24,3	2	06	05		"	71	54	52
Mystic,.....	41	18	54	0	08	04,2	2	01	03		"	71	59	54
New London,.....	41	18	55	0	07	40,1	1	55	01		"	72	05	56
Saybrook,.....	41	16	13	0	06	40,0	1	39	50		"	72	20	59
Faulkner's Island,.	41	12	38	0	05	24,7	1	21	10		"	72	39	46
New Haven,.....	41	14	52	0	04	24,6	1	06	09		"	72	54	47
Stratford,.....	41	09	02	0	03	36,7	0	54	11		"	73	06	46
" Beacon,...	41	09	42	0	03	36,6	0	54	09		"	73	06	47
Sheffield,.....	41	02	50	0	02	20,8	0	35	13		"	73	25	43
Black Rock,.....	41	08	27	0	03	09,7	0	47	25		"	73	13	31
Captain Island,.....	40	58	52	0	01	31,8	0	22	57		"	73	37	59
NEW YORK.														
Throg's Point,.....	40	48	15	0	00	51,7	0	12	55		"	73	48	01
Sands' ".....	40	51	52	0	01	06,4	0	16	36		"	73	44	21
Eaton Neck,.....	40	57	09	0	02	26,6	0	36	38		"	73	24	18
Oldfield,.....	40	58	33	0	03	33,0	0	53	15		"	73	07	41
Plumb Island,.....	41	10	21	0	07	10,5	1	47	42		"	72	13	14
Gull Island,.....	41	12	18	0	07	36,0	1	54	00		"	72	06	57
Montauk,.....	41	04	10	0	08	36,0	2	08	58		"	71	51	58
Fire Island,.....	40	37	46	0	03	09,3	0	47	19		"	73	13	38
Prince's Bay,.....	40	30	22	0	00	49,8	0	12	27		W.	74	13	24
Narrows,.....	40	35	57	0	00	11,5	0	02	53		"	74	03	50
Sag Harbor,*.....
Robin's Reef,.....	40	39	21	0	00	14,3	0	03	34		"	74	04	30
NEW JERSEY.														
Sandy Hook,.....	40	27	37	0	00	01,0	0	00	15		E.	74	00	42
Neversink,.....	40	23	40	0	00	04,9	0	01	14		"	73	59	42
Barnegat,.....	39	45	54	0	00	24,0	0	05	59		W.	74	06	56
Cape May,.....	38	55	45	0	03	50,4	0	57	36		"	74	58	33
Egg Island,.....	39	10	28	0	04	32,0	1	07	59		"	75	08	56
Cohansey,.....	39	20	15	0	05	25,0	1	21	15		"	75	22	12
DELAWARE.														
Christiana,.....	39	43	12	0	06	03,5	1	30	53		"	75	31	50
Reedy Island,.....	39	29	57	0	06	15,1	1	33	47		"	75	34	44
Bombay Hook,.....	39	21	43	0	06	01,1	1	30	17		"	75	31	13
Mahons,.....	39	10	13	0	05	34,7	1	23	41		"	75	24	33
Misphillion,.....	38	56	34	0	05	13,8	1	18	27		"	75	19	24
Cape Henlopen,....	38	46	35	0	04	18,7	1	04	41		"	75	05	37
" Beacon,.....	38	47	21	0	04	19,1	1	04	47		"	75	05	44
" Breakwater, .	38	47	50	0	04	24,4	1	06	06		"	75	07	03
MARYLAND.														
Havre-de-Grace,....	39	32	30	0	08	19,7	2	04	46		"	76	05	42

* Built since the survey of the harbor was made.

The foregoing determinations are deduced, for the latitudes, from observations made at various stations of the coast survey; and the longitudes, from the three solar eclipses of 1834, '36, and '38, observed at different stations of the survey—all being reduced to the City Hall of New York, by the results of the main triangulation, to make that point the starting point of the longitudes; and thence the positions of the lighthouses are again deduced, by the results of the proper ulterior operations of the survey; all which are referred to Greenwich by the difference of longitude, determined, as stated, for the City Hall of New York.

The foregoing exhibits a number of determinations of lighthouses by their geographic latitudes, and their longitudes referred to New York city, and to the observatory of Greenwich, England; as from the latter longitudes are generally calculated by English navigators.

The addition of 2 deg. 20 min. 24 sec. difference of longitude between Greenwich and Paris, would reduce the longitudes to the meridian of Paris; and the subtraction of 17 deg. 39 min. 36 sec. would refer them to the meridian of the Island of Ferro, accepted for the common maps, as dividing meridian between the two plani-globes.

These results are, as stated in the superscription to the list, obtained from the preliminary calculations, taken to the nearest second in the arc, (so called,) omitting decimals, which may answer all the purposes of navigation, at the same time that, in the language of the sciences, it is indicating the state of the data, and the limits of their corrections, if any, by the fully finished operations of the survey.

NEW YORK HOSPITAL MONEY.

Extract from chapter xiv, title iv, of the Revised Statutes of the State of New York, entitled "Of the Public Health."

SEC. 7. The health commissioner shall demand, and be entitled to receive, and in case of neglect or refusal to pay, shall sue for and recover, in his name of office, the following sums, from the master of every vessel that shall arrive in the port of New York, namely:—

1. From the master of every vessel from a foreign port, for each cabin passenger, one dollar and fifty cents; for each steerage passenger, one dollar.

2. From the master of each coasting vessel, for each passenger on board, twenty-five cents; but no coasting vessel from the states of New Jersey, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, shall pay for more than one voyage in each month, computing from the first voyage in each year.

SEC. 9. Each master paying hospital monies shall be entitled to demand and recover, from each person for whom they shall be paid, the sum paid on his account.

SEC. 10. Every master of a coasting vessel shall pay to the health commissioner, at his office, in the city of New York, within twenty-four hours after the arrival of his vessel in the port, such hospital monies as shall then be demandable from him, under the provisions of this title; and every master, for each omission of such duty, shall forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars.

REEF OFF THE WESTERN ISLANDS DISCOVERED.

A late Bermuda paper contains the following letter from R. H. Laise:—

"SIR—I beg leave to send you an intimation which I have received from the Court of Directors of a newly discovered reef of the Western islands, laying in the track of ships homeward bound, who should deem it necessary to shape their course between Flores and Fayal. And that it may be generally known—together with so many ships going home hence—I am sure you will give it every publicity in your journal, and I trust your services in pointing it out may be the means of keeping ships clear of it. The following is its description, and named Ferreira's Reef, and partly above water: extent, lon. 10 n. and s. 5 e. and w.; lat. 38 deg. 27 min. n., lon. 30 25 w., true bearings; variation, 2 points w. Body of Flores, n. n. w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; Peak of Pico, e. First seen, August 3d, 1840.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The history of railroads in the United States presents one of the most remarkable instances of the rapid progress of invention which has ever been recorded. A few years since, the advocates of railroads were ranked among visionaries and schemers; but so rapid has been the growth of the system among us, that the small beginning and its recent date are generally forgotten. The history of this journal will afford evidence upon this point, which may suggest useful reflections. Eleven years ago, the first number of the American Railroad Journal was issued at New York, by Mr. D. K. Miner. This number contains a list of works already in construction, and partly finished. As nearly as can be ascertained, the following list contains the whole amount of railroads then in use :—

Baltimore and Ohio,.....	60	miles	completed	and	in	use.
Charleston and Hamburg,.....	20	"	"	"	"	"
Albany and Schenectady,.....	12	"	"	"	"	"
Mauch Chunk,.....	9	"	"	"	"	"
Quincy, near Boston,.....	6	"	"	"	"	"

Thus there were but 92 miles in use upon any of the main lines of railroads. So little, indeed, was then known, and so little could there be said on the subject, that the editor announced that a part only of the Journal would be devoted to the subject of internal communication; that the larger part would be occupied with literary and miscellaneous matter, as prepared for the New York American. But small as the quantity of matter was, several vigorous articles might even now be read with profit; and, among these, we might mention those relative to the comparative merits of railroads and canals. Although for nearly one hundred and fifty years *tram-roads* had been used for the transportation of the heaviest articles, such as coal, ore, and stone, it was suddenly discovered that railroads might, indeed, be profitably employed in transporting passengers and *light parcels*; but that, beyond this, they were not able to do anything. The arguments which were then used, and which have since been urged with so much force from time to time, have not been without effect.

An idea of the small amount of business connected with railroads at the time of the commencement of the Journal, may be formed from the fact that throughout the first volume but three advertisements (excepting notices to contractors) are to be found. The first of these was by Mr. H. Burden, of Troy; another by Messrs. A. & G. Ralston, of Philadelphia; and another by Townsend & Durfee, Palmyra, New York—the first two of which, in some shape or other, have been continued, and are yet to be found upon our cover.

The editor also thought it necessary to refer to several gentlemen of the city as guaranties for the continuance of the work. Before many numbers had been issued, information from all quarters poured in, and a very lively interest was felt in the undertaking. The demand for railroads throughout the country increased, and popular as well as scientific information was in request.

Let us now compare the present state of affairs with this humble commencement. There are now between four and five thousand miles of railroad in use in the United States, built by the expenditure of nearly one hundred millions of dollars. Eleven years ago, there were but about one hundred miles in use.

There are now probably more than five hundred locomotive engines in use, nearly all of them made in this country. Eleven years ago, the few engines in use were imported

from England, and were of the oldest patterns. Since then, fifty or more American engines have been sent abroad—some to Russia, some to Austria, and several to England. Had this fact been predicted, even in the most indirect manner, in the first number of the Railroad Journal, it would have sealed its doom.

Eleven years ago, a dead level was, by many, deemed necessary on a railroad, (see p. 68, vol. 1,) and grades of 30 feet to the mile were hardly thought admissible. Now, engines are in daily use which surmount grades of 60 and 80 feet to the mile.

Eleven years ago, inclined planes with stationary power were considered the *ne plus ultra* of engineering science. Now, they are discarded as expensive, inconvenient, and incompatible with the free use of a railroad.

Eleven years ago it was thought that railroads could not compete with canals in carrying heavy freight; and even much more recently statements to this effect have been put forth by authority. Now, we know that the most profitable of the eastern railroads derives one-half its income from bulky freight, and that coal can be carried more cheaply upon a railroad than in canals.

Eleven years ago, the profitability of railroads was not established; and, discouraged by the vast expenditure in several cases of experiment in an untried field, many predicted that they would be unprofitable. Now, it is already demonstrated, by declared dividends, that well-constructed railroads, when divested of extraneous incumbrances, are the most profitable investments in our country. The New England railroads have paid, since their completion, 6 to 8 per cent; several other roads, 6 and 1 per cent. The Hudson and Mohawk (of fifteen and a half miles, costing about one million one hundred thousand dollars) paid, in 1840, 7 per cent on that enormous outlay. The Utica and Schenectady, and Syracuse and Utica, pay 10 to 12 per cent. The stock of the Utica and Schenectady railroad has never been down to par since operations were commenced in 1836, and has maintained its stand, without fluctuation, at a higher rate than any other species of stock during all our commercial revolutions.

Eleven years ago, there were but six miles of railroad in use in the vicinity of Boston. Now, Boston has direct connexion with a web of railways one thousand two hundred and three miles in length; all of which, except about twenty-four miles, are actually in use—being a greater length of railroad than there was in the whole world eleven years ago.—*Railroad Journal*.

THE ILLINOIS AND MICHIGAN CANAL.

The Illinois and Michigan canal is one hundred miles in length, sixty feet wide, and six feet deep; it has fifteen locks, each one hundred and ten feet in length, and eighteen feet in width. The canal will be navigable for boats carrying from one hundred to one hundred and fifty tons. \$5,000,000 have already been expended upon it, and \$1,600,000 are required to complete it. It connects the navigable waters of the Illinois river, one of the main tributaries of the Mississippi, with Lake Michigan.

The security offered to the subscribers to the new loan consists of the following property:—

The canal itself, which has cost.....	\$5,000,000
230,476 acres of canal land, valued at \$10 per acre,.....	2,304,670
Lots in Chicago, valued at.....	350,000
“ Lockport, valued at.....	300,000
“ Ottawa, valued at.....	350,000
“ La Salle, valued at.....	500,000
“ Juliet and Du Page, valued at.....	300,000
Coal beds and stone quarries, valued at.....	100,000
Total,.....	\$9,204,670

Besides the above property, the subscribers to the new loan are to have all the revenue arising from the leasing of water-power, and the tolls upon the canal. When the canal is in operation, there will be water-power created upon canal property sufficient to drive two hundred and twenty millstones of four and a half feet in diameter. If the water-power should rent at the usual rate, as in other states, viz., \$500 per run per annum, it would yield an annual revenue of \$66,000, a sum sufficient to pay the interest upon \$1,100,000 of the canal debt.

The precise amount that will be received for tolls after the canal is completed, cannot be now stated. It has been variously estimated from \$100,000 to \$500,000. It seems but reasonable to expect that this canal will do a large amount of business, connecting as it does the great chain of lakes with the Mississippi, the east with the west, the manufacturing with the agricultural states, the Gulf of Mexico with the St. Lawrence.

NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON.

THE TROY AND EMPIRE, OF THE MORNING LINE OF STEAMERS.

These beautiful boats now form the morning line between New York and Albany, leaving either place at seven o'clock. The Troy was built in 1840, is two hundred and ninety-four feet long, with twenty-eight feet breadth of beam, or sixty-one feet extreme breadth, and measures seven hundred and fifty tons burthen. She has two of William A. Lighthall's patent horizontal steam engines, low pressure, and is fitted up exclusively for a day boat. She is under the command of Captain A. Gorham, formerly of the steamer Champlain. Captain G. is well known for his uniform kind attention to the traveller, and the prompt and quiet performance of his duties as an officer.

The Empire was completed this year, (1843,) is three hundred and thirty feet in length, thirty-one feet breadth of beam, or sixty-two feet extreme breadth, with a measurement of one thousand and twelve tons. She is fitted up as a day or night boat, and has fifty state-rooms, a saloon two hundred feet long and seventeen feet wide on her promenade deck, with two of Lighthall's patent horizontal half beam low-pressure engines. Her commander, S. R. Roe, late of the De Witt Clinton, is one of the most experienced steam navigators on the Hudson, and while in command of that boat acquired an enviable reputation as a courteous and attentive officer, deserving, as he has received, the command of one of the finest boats on the river.

The Troy and Empire are built on the most approved model, in the most substantial manner, and of the best materials. They are propelled by powerful low-pressure steam engines. Although appointed in a neat and plain style of finish, they are surpassed by none, either for comfort or convenience. The cabins, saloons, and rooms, without the accompaniment of gaudy lithographs or barber-shop ornaments, are spacious, airy, chaste, and comfortable.

The subordinate officers are courteous, efficient, and attentive; the crews active in their duties, and obliging to the traveller; the servants neat, civil, and attentive; and the stewards' department will bear as favorable comparison with other parts of those floating palaces as any other in the United States, and that is to say with any in the world.

CONCORD (MASS.) RAILWAY.

From the Reports of the Treasurer and Auditors, we learn that the capital expended in the construction of this road was \$706,320 29; on hand not expended, \$18,729 71; making the whole amount received on stock \$725,050. Earnings of road for the last eight months, \$70,912 36; expenses for operating road same time, \$27,183 50; leaving as net profits, the sum of \$43,728 86. After deducting the appropriation of \$35,000 for the dividend of 5 per cent declared, the balance, \$8,728 86, was carried to the reserved fund.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

WESTERN HEMP.

By a joint resolution of Congress, passed at the last session, agents are to be appointed, to reside in Kentucky and Missouri, for the purpose of purchasing water-rotted hemp; and the said agents are restricted, by the resolution, in their operations, so far as regards price and quality, that *the article is not to cost government any more than the same quality may be bought for in seaport towns.* "The quantity," says Lyford's Commercial Journal, "will probably depend upon the wants of government, expressed in the form of requisitions at irregular periods, in the shape of proposals to supply the demand required at named points."

The ability of the western states to furnish may be inferred from the fact that, in 1840, according to the report of the marshals appointed to take the census, Kentucky returned 9,992 tons of hemp and flax, and Missouri 18,010 tons. The manufactures in the former, from flax, are put down in valuation at \$7,519; and of cordage, at \$1,292,276. In the latter, there are no manufactures from flax, but of cordage, to the amount of \$98,490—total value of cordage, (which, we presume, means principally bale rope,) \$1,390,760. A small portion, only, of flax could have been included in the return of Kentucky, from the proportion the manufactures appear to bear towards that of hemp.

In addition to the foregoing, we learn from an article in a Kentucky paper, now before us, that there were grown in that state, last year, 14,000 tons, equal to 28,000,000 pounds of hemp. From this amount, it is estimated there will be manufactured this year, (1843,) 6,500,000 yards of bagging, and 7,000,000 pounds of bale rope. Of the bagging, 2,000,000 yards will be made by steam factories, and the remaining 4,500,000 by hand looms, there being about 300 of the latter in the state, each of which will weave 15,000 yards. The counties which produced hemp, are—

Jefferson,.....	tons	500	Fayette,.....	tons	3,000
Shelby,.....	"	1,000	Mason,.....	"	2,500
Woodford,.....	"	2,000	Jessamine,.....	"	1,500
Franklin,.....	"	500	Mercer and Boyle,.....	"	500
Scott,.....	"	1,000	All others,.....	"	2,000

The 300 looms are distributed—Woodford county, 60; Fayette county, 80; Franklin county, 30; Scott county, 30; Jessamine county, 30; Mason county, 20; all other counties, 50.

We have now before us a copy of the proceedings of the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce, of last year, in which is embodied a report on the subject of hemp, which is denominated one of the staples of that section, that "is fast becoming a leading article of trade in that city." The report then proceeds:—"There are already two large manufactories of bagging and bale rope here, and several ropewalks, and there are a number of establishments in various parts of the state. A gentleman, engaged in the trade, states the amount of hemp manufactured and exported last year at 1,460 tons, and adds: 'I would say the quantity grown in this state was 1500 or 1600 tons, of which 380 were shipped to Kentucky, 20 to New Orleans, and the balance manufactured in this state. This was done in 1841, of the growth of 1840. The crop of 1841, from the best information I can obtain, will be more than double that of the preceding year; and the crop of 1842, judging from preparations now making, will not be less than 10,000 tons. In this last estimate I include the state of Illinois, the people of which are now turning their attention to the culture of hemp.' The hemp, in a raw state, (continues the report,) would be worth about \$200,000; but manufactured, as most of it was, and shipped to the south, where it is used, the value may fairly be set down at double that sum."

NAVIGATION OF THE MISSISSIPPI AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

Before the introduction of steam navigation, (which dates, upon the waters of the Mississippi, about 1817,) the trade of the upper Mississippi and Missouri scarcely existed, and the whole upward commerce of New Orleans was conveyed in about twenty barges, carrying each about one hundred tons, and making but one trip a year; so that each navigation was, in those days, about equivalent to what an East India or a China voyage now is. On the upper Ohio, about one hundred and fifty keelboats were employed, each of the burden of about thirty tons, and making the trip to and fro, of Pittsburgh and Louisville, about three times a year. The entire tonnage of the boats moving in the Ohio and lower Mississippi, was then about six thousand five hundred tons. In 1834, the steam navigation of the Mississippi had risen to two hundred and thirty boats and a tonnage of thirty-nine thousand tons, while about ninety thousand persons were estimated to be employed in the trade, either as crews, builders, woodcutters, or loaders of the vessels. In 1842, the navigation was as follows:—There were four hundred and fifty steamers, averaging each two hundred tons, and making an aggregate tonnage of ninety thousand, so that it has a good deal more than doubled in eight years. Valued at \$80 the ton, they cost above \$7,000,000, and are navigated by nearly sixteen thousand persons, at thirty-five to each. Beside these steamers, there are about four thousand flatboats, which cost each \$105, are managed by five hands apiece, (or twenty thousand persons,) and make an annual expense of \$1,380,000. The estimated annual expense of the steam navigation, including 15 per cent for insurance, and 20 per cent for wear and tear, is \$13,618,000. If, in 1834, they employed an aggregate of ninety thousand persons, they must now occupy at least one hundred and eighty thousand. The boats, ever in motion when the state of the waters in which they ply permits, probably average each some twenty trips in the year. Those running from New Orleans to the more distant points of the river, make from eight to fifteen trips in the year; while those carrying the great trade from Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville, to St. Louis, perform some thirty annual trips. Others run between still nearer ports, and make more frequent voyages. But at twenty each, and carrying burdens far beyond their mere admeasurement of tonnage, their collective annual freight would be one thousand eight hundred tons; to which, if that of four thousand flatboats (each seventy-five tons) be added, we have a total freight, for the entire annual navigation of the Mississippi, of about two million tons. The commerce which they convey (omitting the great number of passengers whom they waft in some nine thousand trips) is of two sorts: that of the export trade to New Orleans, and that of supply and interchange between the different regions lying on the Mississippi and its tributaries. The latter is well ascertained to be considerably greater, as naturally happens in the internal trade of all wide and commercial countries, whose dealings with foreign lands never fail to fall far short of their exchanges with each other. The statistics collected at the two main points where the best means of information can be commanded, (St. Louis and Cincinnati,) estimate this internal traffic of the productions of the country itself at not less than \$70,000,000 annually; while those commodities shipped to New Orleans for exportation, are found to be fifty millions more. The downward trade may thus be stated at \$120,000,000; the upward, or return trade of foreign goods, or of those brought up the river from other parts of the Union, is reckoned at about \$100,000,000. Thus, the entire amount of commodities conveyed upon the waters of the Mississippi does not, upon the best estimates, fall short of \$220,000,000 annually, which is but \$30,000,000 less than the entire value of the foreign trade of the United States exports and imports in 1841.

YUCATAN CURRENCY.

Stevens, in his travels in Yucatan, says: "There is no copper money in Yucatan, nor any coin whatever under a medio, or six and a quarter cents, and this deficiency is supplied by these grains of cacao. The medio is divided into twenty parts; generally of five grains each, but the number is increased or decreased according to the quantity of the article in the market, and its real value. As the earnings of the Indians are small, and the articles they purchase are the mere necessaries of life, which are very cheap, these grains of cacao, or fractional parts of a medio, are the coin in most common use among them. The currency has always a real value, and is regulated by the quantity of cacao in the market, and the only inconvenience, economically speaking, that it has is the loss of a certain public wealth by the destruction of the cacao, as in the case of bank notes. But these grains have an interest independent of all questions of political economy, for they indicate or illustrate a page in the history of this unknown and mysterious people. When the Spaniards first made their way into the interior of Yucatan, they found no circulating medium, either of gold, or silver, or any other species of metal, but only grains of cacao: and it seems a strange circumstance, that while the manners and customs of the Indians have undergone an immense change, while their cities have been destroyed, their religion dishonored, their princes swept away, and their whole government modified by foreign laws, no experiment has yet been made upon their currency.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

The quantity of coal which was taken from the mines of the United States in the year 1839, according to the report of the officers who made the returns of the sixth census, was 863,480 tons anthracite, and 27,603,101 bushels, or about 1,000,000 tons, of bituminous. The anthracite was nearly all the produce of the State of Pennsylvania, and the bituminous of the States of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio. The quantity imported the same year was 3,614,320 bushels, making the consumption of the year 2,000,000 tons. To compare this produce and consumption with that of two European countries, we are enabled to state from an official document, lately published, that the amount of coal which was received in the year 1838, in the kingdom of Belgium, amounted to 3,260,271 tons, of which 2,415,909 tons were the produce of the province of Hainault, which is on the borders of France. The quantity which was received in France in the same year was 3,113,000 tons. The consumption in France in 1838 was 4,305,000 tons, 1,192,000 tons having been imported from Belgium, England, and Prussia. In 1841 the consumption in France was 4,500,000 tons, of which near 1,000,000 were imported from Belgium.

MOUSSELINES DE LAINES.

On the 1st day of February a new pattern of mousselines de laines arrived at New York, and was offered by the importer at fourteen cents per yard by the case. The agent of a Rhode Island calico-printing establishment forwarded a piece of the new style of goods to Providence the day after their arrival, and in sixteen days he had the same style of goods, and of equal fabric, in New York, selling at ten cents per yard. The manufacturer had but twelve days to engrave the new pattern on a copper cylinder, from which the engraving was raised on a steel cylinder, then hardened and made ready for impression; the compound of ingredients for color discovered by chemical experiments; the cloth printed, dried, and cased for market.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Parochial Sermons.* By JOHN HENRY NEWMAN, B. D., Vicar of St. Mary the Virgin's, Oxford, and Fellow of Oriel College. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The English copy of this work forms six volumes, and cannot be furnished to purchasers at a less price than eighteen dollars—the edition before us is beautifully printed on fine paper, and forms two splendid octavo volumes of more than thirteen hundred pages, embracing one hundred and fifty-five sermons, and is afforded at \$2 50 per volume. As any opinion we might express of their value would probably have little weight with that branch of the church whose views of Christian duty and doctrine are here so ably and eloquently set forth, we have concluded, in justice to the publishers, to give the opinion of the Right Rev. George W. Doane, the Bishop of New Jersey, in a letter addressed to them on their commencement of the present edition. He says:—

“Much as I have been gratified by your republication of many excellent books, the heirlooms which the Church of England has derived from ancient piety and learning, or the production of the vigorous minds and fervent hearts that now adorn while they defend her altars, I have looked and longed for an edition of these sermons as your noblest contribution to the sacred literature of the times. Mr. Newman's sermons are of an order by themselves. There is a naturalness, a pressure towards the point proposed, an ever-salient freshness about them, which will attract a class of readers to whom sermons are not ordinarily attractive. Again, they are of a wonderful comprehension. While they are not above the level of the plainest readers, they will interest and satisfy the highest and most accomplished minds. With the most intellectual persons, they will win their way, I am sure, as no modern productions of this sort have done. But all these are but incidentals to their sterling and imperishable worth, as expositions of the truth of Holy Scripture, and exhortations to the duties of the Christian life, urged to the heart with an earnestness and unction scarcely paralleled; above all, carrying with them a force beyond all argument, beyond all eloquence, in the living power of holiness with which they are instinct, to rouse the careless, to steady the wavering, to sober the worldly, to animate and elevate the humble seeker of the kingdom of God and its righteousness, and to imbue the age with what it needs the most, humility and heavenly-mindedness. I shall welcome your proposed volumes as powerful auxiliaries to my exertions to set forth the gospel in the church; and devoutly pray that God may bless them to the edification of many souls, and to the advancement of the pure and peaceful kingdom of His blessed Son.”

Bishops Onderdonk of New York, Ives of North Carolina, and Whittingham of Maryland, are equally decided in the expression of their opinions as to the merit of these discourses.

2.—*The Purchase; or Seven and a Half Years in the Far West.* By ROBERT CARLTON, Esq. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

Two very interesting volumes, embracing a minute account of all that befel the author in his sojourn to the far west, and all that happened to him while residing there, together with a variety of anecdote, illustrative of the manners, customs, and character of the settlers. Mr. Carlton, *alias* a clergyman, whose name we have not been able to learn, evidently has a large “bump” in the region of humor, as his descriptions are at once graphic and amusing. Some of his delineations would perhaps be considered rather unclerical, and might lead a phrenologist to surmise that the organ of ideality predominated over that of reverence. Those who read and admired “A New Home, who'll Follow,” &c., by Mrs. Clavers, *alias* Mrs. Kirtland, will, we have no doubt, relish the present work, as it is written in very much the same vein, and under similar circumstances. It is, on the whole, a very clever book—cleverly printed, by very clever publishers.

3.—*McCulloch's Universal Gazetteer; a Dictionary Geographical, Statistical, and Historical, of the various countries, places, and principal natural objects in the world.* By J. R. McCULLOCH, Esq. In which the Articles relating to the United States have been greatly multiplied and extended, and adapted to the present condition of the country, and to the wants of its citizens. By DANIEL HASKEL, A. M., late President of the University of Vermont. Illustrated with seven large Maps. To be completed in eighteen parts, at twenty-five cents each. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Such a work is greatly needed in the United States at the present time. The existing Gazetteers are generally old, and to a degree antiquated. Geography is a science which in its own nature is, beyond most others, progressive. Changes are constantly taking place in the condition of the world and of its inhabitants; the various parts of the earth are continually more extensively explored; and to exhibit its changes, and the new and valuable information which is perpetually developed, requires new works on this subject. The English language has never been adorned by a more valuable work of this kind than the new and splendid work of McCulloch. The fulness with which each article is written, the clearness of the arrangements throughout, and the vast surface traversed under each head, and in every department of inquiry essential to the undertaking, contribute to the production of the most luminous body of information concerning geography, statistics, and history, and all matters necessary to their elucidation, that has ever been brought together in a shape so perspicuous and accessible. Such a publication—which can be referred to, on the instant, for any subject embraced in its pages—is indispensable to all libraries, and must completely supersede every previous attempt to popularize and reduce within convenient limits these various classes of information.

4.—*A Collection of Papers on Political, Literary, and Moral Subjects.* By NOAH WEBSTER, LL. D. New York: Webster & Clark. 1843.

The present collection of papers was made by Dr. Webster a short time before his death. The paper on English Philology is exceedingly valuable, and should be published in a distinct form, that it may obtain a wider circulation among students. The whole work, however, deserves a place in every public or private library where the English language is read or spoken. The volume (of three hundred and seventy-five pages) contains twenty articles, as follows:—The Revolution of France—The Rights of Neutral Nations—Dissertation on the supposed change of Temperature in modern Winters—Origin of the first Bank in the United States—Letter from General Washington to Mr. Webster—Correspondence with Mr. Madison, respecting the origin of the present Constitution—Origin of the Copyright Laws of the United States—Vindication of the Treaty with Great Britain in 1795—Origin of Amherst College—Address on Agriculture—Letter to Daniel Webster—Answer of the House of Representatives of Massachusetts to the Governor's Address—Letter to Dr. Lee—Reply to a Letter of David McClure—Letter to a Young Gentleman commencing his Education—Form of Association for Young Men—Modes of Teaching the English Language—Origin of the Hartford Convention in 1814—History of Political Parties—State of English Philology, or results of many years' researches. These papers were written at different periods of the author's life. That on the rights of neutral nations is considered, we believe, the best essay that has appeared upon the subject. In it the learned and laborious author traces out the practice of nations in regard to neutral commerce from the earliest periods of maritime commercial intercourse, showing that no system of rules was ever adopted by general consent of nations to regulate trade, but that all the modern regulations and principles have sprung from special ordinances of princes, prescribed by arbitrary will, and forcibly imposed by the strong upon the weak, or were originally founded on particular treaties and conventions; nor was the obligation of these restraints in their origin ever referred to the law of nature or nations.

5.—*The History of Ireland, commencing with its earliest period, to the great Expedition against Scotland in 1545.* Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1843.

The present position of Ireland, and the active sympathy evinced by the friends of civil and religious liberty, and her sons the adopted citizens of the United States, scattered over our wide-spread Union, render the re-publication of this work at the present period quite opportune. The history commences as far back as one thousand years before Christ, with the Celtic origin of the Irish, (of which there can be no doubt, as the language, the numerous monuments she still retains of that most ancient superstition which the first tribes who poured from Asia into Europe are known to have carried with them wherever they went, sufficiently attest the true origin of her people,) and is brought down to the great expedition against Scotland in 1545. The volume before us contains all that the author has written and published; and as it may be a long time before it is concluded, the publishers present this portion, embracing the three volumes of the London edition, with a promise of furnishing the remainder in the same style when published by the author. The work has been favorably noticed by the reviewers in England, and affords conclusive evidence of the author's power as a chaste and graceful prose writer. The analytical and chronological table of each chapter is very copious, and adds greatly to its value for reference.

6.—*The New York State Register, for 1843; containing an Almanac, Civil Divisions, and Census of the State: With Political, Statistical, and other information, relating to the State of New York and the United States.* Also, a full list of County Officers, Attorneys, &c. Edited by O. L. HOLLEY. Albany: J. Disturnell. New York: C. J. Folsom.

The present volume is on the plan of Williams' Register, which was commenced in 1830, and continued annually, with two or three interruptions, down to 1840. Its revival in the present form, uniform with that, but considerably enlarged, and apparently improved by the addition of a greater variety of useful and important statistical and other information, will, we are persuaded, secure for it a wider and more extensive circulation among our mercantile and business community. The design of the publication is well and ably accomplished. It furnishes a comprehensive and detailed account of the actual condition of the state; embracing its civil divisions, population, productions, trade and resources; its public works, its means of general culture, and its principal local improvements; its wealth, revenue, and expenditure; the organization of its government, with a view of the persons to whom the administration of that government, throughout its various departments, is committed; the general scope and character of its legislature, as exemplified and illustrated by its various institutions and methods for the promotion of education, morals, and religion—for the protection and relief of the destitute, infirm, and helpless—for the encouragement of enterprise, industry, science, and the arts; in short, a picture of the long-acting, growing commonwealth, with the manifold means and agencies by which its affairs are conducted, its resources unfolded, and the business of its people transacted.

7.—*An Epitome of Homœopathic Practice; compiled chiefly from Jahn, Ruchert, Beauvais, Bonnenghausen, etc.* By J. T. CURTIS, M. D., and J. LILLIE, M. D. New York: William Radde. 1843.

This little volume, of one hundred and fifty-three pages, was prepared by two of the earliest disciples of Hahnemann in New York, in the belief that a work more compact, comprehensive, and clear than any that has yet appeared in our language was much wanted for the novice in Homœopathic practice. It is "respectfully inscribed by the editors" to "Federal Vanderburgh, M. D., whose untiring zeal, great professional sagacity, and brilliant success, have mainly contributed to the present flattering position of Homœopathy in the United States."

8.—*The Adventures of Hernan Cortes, the Conqueror of Mexico.* By the author of "Uncle Philip's Conversations." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The present volume is the fourth of a series of books in course of publication, under the general title of "A Library for my Young Countrymen." The three preceding volumes, viz: "The Life of Henry Hudson," "Adventures of Captain John Smith," and "Dawnings of Genius," noticed in former numbers of this Magazine, were all prepared expressly for the present series, which is intended to comprise sketches of the lives, adventures, and discoveries of the early founders of America; lives of distinguished men connected with American history of more modern date, and approved works of English authors, re-edited, with additions and explanatory notes, by the author of "Uncle Philip's Whale Fishery," "Lost Greenland," etc. The selection of subjects, thus far, has been judicious; and we are persuaded that the careful and discriminating publishers will not permit the introduction of any work of doubtful tendency into the series.

9.—*The Complete Poetical Works of John Milton, with Explanatory Notes and a Life of the Author.* By H. STREBBING, A. M. To which is prefixed, Dr. CHANNING'S Essay on the Poetical Genius of Milton. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

We noticed, in a former number of this Magazine, the appearance, from the same enterprising publishers, of a beautiful edition of the complete poetical works of Cowper and Burns. The present volume is of uniform size and style, and is to be followed with the poetical works of Scott. The Appleton edition of these great poets is altogether the most beautiful and perfect that has ever been published in this country, and is not surpassed by any that has fallen under our notice from the British press. The incomparable essay of Channing, on the genius of Milton, forms a very appropriate introduction to the reading of the immortal bard. We earnestly hope that an enterprise so creditable to the liberality and taste of the publishers may meet with a corresponding liberality on the part of the public.

10.—*No Sense like Common Sense, or some Passages in the Life of Charles Middleton, Esq.* By MARY HOWITT. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

11.—*Alice Franklin. A Tale.* Another part of "Sowing and Reaping." By MARY HOWITT. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

In noticing the writings of Mary Howitt, one of the purest and most delightful instructors of our time, we have no fear of incurring the charge of being extravagant in our appreciation of the varied excellence which characterizes all the productions of her pen. The present series of tales, although designed for children, are read with equal profit and pleasure by persons of all ages. Her delineations of domestic life—its joys and its sorrows—are instinct with every-day lessons of a true life. She breathes, through the guise of attractive narrative, the gospel of a pure, living, active goodness. Faithfully is she fulfilling her mission; blessed may—will be its close.

12.—*The Fortunes of Hector O'Halloran, and his man Mark Antony O'Toole.* By W. H. MAXWELL, author of "Stories of Waterloo," "The Life of the Duke of Wellington," "The Bivouac," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

Those who read for mirth and amusement, and delight in rich Irish wit, humor, &c., will find, if they have not already, an inexhaustible fund of material spread before them in the four hundred pages of this neatly-printed volume. The twenty-three illustrations on copper are capital.

13.—*Bankrupt Stories, edited by HARRY FRANCO. The Haunted Merchant.* 8vo. New York: John Allen. 1843.

Two numbers of this interesting tale have been issued, which, from the slight notice we have been able to take of it, we should consider well worthy of the graphic pen of the celebrated author of the Polygon papers of the Knickerbocker Magazine. The numbers contain about 80 pages each, and are neatly printed on good paper, and sold for 18½ cents.

14.—*Gardening for Ladies, and Companion to the Flower Garden.* By MRS. LOUDON. First American, from the third London edition. Edited by ANDREW JACKSON DOWNING, author of "A Treatise on Landscape Gardening," "Cottage Residences," etc. 12mo. pp. 348. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

In these works, "Gardening for Ladies," and the "Companion to the Flower Garden," the simplicity and clearness with which every branch of gardening is explained, attract at once the novice and the amateur who have had little practical experience, and who would be little interested in a less sprightly and more scientific work. It is truly said by Mr. Downing, in introducing the present work to our fair countrywomen, that most of the English works on horticulture being addressed to those comparatively familiar with everything in the common routine of garden operations, a considerable degree of previous knowledge of the subject is supposed. With us, on the contrary, there are few who do not "begin at the beginning" for themselves, and who, therefore, desire earnestly those simple and elementary instructions which more learned and elaborate treatises have deemed it superfluous to give. Mrs. Loudon's works are intended especially for lady gardeners, a numerous class in England; and we cordially unite with the American editor in the hope that the dissemination, in this country, of works like the present volume may increase, among the women of America, the taste for those delightful occupations in the open air, which are so conducive to their own health, and to the beauty and interests of our homes. Mr. Downing has added to the "Companion" a number of notes, rendered necessary by differences resulting from our climate, &c.

15.—*Lays of my Home, and other Poems.* By JOHN G. WHITTIER. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor. 1843.

We heartily thank the publishers for sending us this delightful volume of poetry. No one unites in a more eminent degree the true poet, philanthropist, or lover of Christian, democratic freedom, than Whittier. There is no sickly sentimentality in the lines that flow from his ready pen—all are manly, pure, and elevated in thought and expression. He worships at the temple of Nature, and the lips of his muse have been touched with live coals from her altar. Every thought breathes of the inspiration of goodness—of a higher hope, and a more full and perfect love. Would to heaven that we had a few more kindred spirits, to utter in the same manly vein the same great truths of a higher and holier life—to teach us the lesson and practice of the Christianity, not of the church or the world, but of Christ—the divine ideal of perfected, glorified humanity. Those who have read "Lines written on reading several pamphlets published by Clergymen against the Abolition of the Gallows," "Democracy," "The Human Sacrifice," "The Reformers of England," and others in the present volume, will, we are persuaded, concur with us in our perhaps too enthusiastic appreciation of the author as a true poet, and, what is of far higher value, a true man.

16.—*The Burning of Schenectady, and other Poems.* By ALFRED B. STREET. Albany: Weare C. Little. 1843.

The leading poem in this volume occupies about sixty pages. It is principally descriptive, with a slight thread of narrative, and a few incidents interwoven, illustrating the rude period of the event designated by the title. The author has endeavored, throughout, to draw the scenes in keeping with the characters and customs of frontier life. Based upon a well-known occurrence, the poem does not aim at the continuous interest of a tale, but consists merely of a collection of sketches drawn around, but generally connected with, the principal event. Some of the descriptions are quite graphic, and the versification is generally easy and graceful. The volume contains, besides, nine shorter poems of unequal merit, but chaste in style and pure in thought; and several of them would do credit to poets of higher pretensions. It is neatly printed, and, on the whole, creditable to all concerned.

17.—*Classical Studies*, by EDWARDS, SEARS, and FELTON. Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 1840.

Three men, whose names stand in the foremost rank of American scholars, have thrown together their united efforts, and the result is this book. It is a long while since so solid a work has appeared from the American press. On reading it, we have experienced no other feelings than regret for time wasted, and golden opportunities neglected. The authors carry the reader along with them over the classical soil of Greece and Rome. On reading the correspondence of the great Dutch and German scholars, you see how those men, by immense labor, and untiring perseverance, accomplished their giant works—you see them in their studies, in the professional chair, and in their families. If we are not mistaken, it will prove a rich stimulus to young students; and, should a series of such works be issued, we prophesy that they would give an impulse to classical learning, such as was never before felt in the new world.

18.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays*. By JAMES STEPHEN. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1843.

This is another of the series of the "Modern British Essayists," thus far comprising the miscellaneous writings of Walter Scott, T. Babington Macaulay, Professor Wilson, Thomas Noon Talfourd, and the present volume, which forms the twelfth of the series. The critical essays or papers comprised in this volume were all written and published in the Edinburgh Review, since 1838, where they excited an interest scarcely second to those of Macaulay; and although they have not the same elaborate finish of that writer, they excel in Anglo-Saxon strength of diction, and in depth of philosophy. The volume is entitled to a place in every well-selected library, public or private.

19.—*Murray's Encyclopædia of Geography*. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

We have received the ninth number of this comprehensive work on the geography, &c., of the world. It will be completed in twenty-four, and, altogether, embrace nearly 2,000 royal octavo pages. It has been carefully revised, and many additions, particularly relating to this country, have been made by Thomas G. Bradford, the American editor, who has distinguished himself by his judicious labors in this department of useful literature.

20.—*Lucilla; or, the Reading of the Bible*. By ADOLPHE MONOD. Translated from the French. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

This work, we are informed by the translator, is the production of a protestant minister of deep piety, pre-eminent talent, and ardent zeal in the cause of Christianity. His design is, to prove the inspiration and divine authority of the scriptures; and "that it is at once the privilege and duty of all people to read them with a reference to their personal salvation."

21.—*Norman's Rambles in Yucatan*.

J. & H. G. Langley have published a neat and cheap edition of this work. The first edition, noticed in a former number of this Magazine, was published in one octavo volume, at \$2 per copy; the present edition is in two numbers, at 50 cents each, just one half the price of the first edition.

22.—*The American Book Circular, with Notes and Statistics*. London: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

We have received a pamphlet of sixty-four octavo pages, printed in London, and prepared, we presume, by Mr. Putnam, who manages the London branch of the house of Wiley & Putnam. It embraces a classified list of 1,172 original American works, in all 2,474 volumes. Mr. Putnam has collected a variety of statistical information touching the book trade of the United States, and has some very just but courteous strictures on the article in the "Foreign Quarterly," concerning the newspaper press of the United States.

23.—*The False Heir: a Novel.* By the author of "Richelieu," "Morley Ernstein," "Forest Days," &c. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. James is the most prolific writer of the present day. Scarcely fifteen years have elapsed since his *debut* on the stage of authorship, and yet there have been published twenty-five novels from his pen, besides a half dozen or more of standard historical works. One would almost think that by this time he had "written out," as the phrase goes; but he who takes up his latest novel under this supposition, will be disappointed. The story is invested with much interest, is laid in France prior to the French Revolution, and very strikingly displays the manners and habits of the French people at that period, and is characterized by that excellence of all Mr. James's writings—chasteness of sentiment. This novel forms a part of the "Library of Select Novels," and is sold at twelve and a half cents.

24.—*The Neighbors: a Story of Everyday Life.* By FREDERIKA BREMER. Translated from the Swedish, by MARY HOWITT. Harper & Brothers.

25.—*The Home; or, Family Cares and Family Joys.* Same author, translator, and publishers.

The gratitude of the reading world is due to Mrs. Howitt for the introduction thereto of the charming works of Miss Bremer, the "Miss Austen of Sweden," as she has been styled. "The Neighbors" has been published but a very few months, but has already given the author a name second to few that have been before the public. There is a simplicity of style, a beauty of sentiment, and a knowledge of human nature, displayed in it, which at once secures attention, and produces delight. "The Home" is a story of similar character to the other, to which it is at least not inferior. Both works are published in the "Library of Select Novels," at twelve and a half cents.

26.—*History of Europe, from the commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON. Harper & Brothers.

27.—*An Encyclopedia of Science, Literature, and Art: comprising the History, Description, and Scientific Principles of every Branch of Human Knowledge.* General Editor, WILLIAM T. BRANDE, assisted by several eminent literary and scientific gentlemen. Harper & Brothers.

We have heretofore expressed highly favorable opinions of these standard works, and a repetition is needless. Numbers 9 and 10 of the former work, and Numbers 7 and 8 of the latter, are published. "Alison" is to be completed in sixteen numbers, and "Brande" in twelve numbers, at twenty-five cents each.

28.—*The Life and Adventures of Martin Chuzzlewit.* By "Boz." Harper & Brothers.

Part II. is published, comprising Numbers 4, 5, and 6, of the English edition. Everything by "Boz" has been readable and popular, and the present work is as much so as any of his former ones. The present edition is beautiful and cheap. It is well printed, and each number will contain two illustrations from the English designs, and three numbers of the English edition. Price, six and a quarter cents per part.

29.—*The Keys of the Kingdom of Heaven, and power thereof, according to the Word of God.* By that learned and judicious divine, Mr. JOHN COTTON, Teacher of the Church at Boston, in New England, tending to reconcile some present differences about Discipline. London, 1644. 12mo. pp. 107. Boston: Reprinted by Tappan & Dennet. 1843.

The Boston publishers have preserved throughout this volume the ancient spelling, punctuation, and style, as a curiosity, and from "a conviction that the readers would desire to see these ancient worthies in their Puritanic dress and armor." The design of the author, in this essay, was to systematize and defend Congregationalism. If public patronage afford suitable encouragement, it is the intention of the publishers to issue other reprints and original works of a similar character.

30.—*The Days of Queen Mary.* New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

A reprint, without alteration or abridgment, of a work prepared by the "London Religious Tract Society." It opens with a brief account of the reign of Edward the VIth, from 1547 to 1553, and then goes on to detail, in glowing colors, the horrid scenes of persecution that were enacted under the reign of the "bloody Mary." The cuts, or engraved illustrations, are execrable; if possible, more horribly executed than were the deeds recorded in its pages. It belongs, however, to the cheap literature of the day; i. e., two hundred and eighty-five duodecimo pages, in paper covers, are sold for twenty-five cents.

31.—*The Lost Ship; or, the Atlantic Steamer.* By the author of "Cavendish," "The Flying Dutchman," &c. Harper & Brothers.

This novel is founded upon the melancholy fate of the President steamer, although no real personages are introduced. It is a story of intense interest, wrought up with great power and ingenuity; and though some of the incidents are improbable, yet the reader is irresistibly attracted, and his attention engaged through the book. The author, Captain Neale, R. N., is favorably known as a writer of sea-novels. Price, twenty-five cents.

32.—*Sir John Froissart's Chronicles of England, France, Spain, and the adjoining countries.* New York: J. Winchester. 1843.

The Chronicles of Froissart extend from 1325 to 1400, and comprehend every considerable affair which happened during that period in France, England, Scotland, Ireland, and Flanders. They include, also, a number of particulars relating to the affairs of Rome and Avignon, of Spain, Germany, Italy, Prussia, Hungary, Turkey, Africa,—in short, of almost the whole known world. The language in this, the first American edition, is so modernized that it will be understood by all readers. The style is quaint, simple, and almost scriptural. The present edition is equal, in typography, style, &c., to the English, and is to be published in numbers of 62 super-royal octavo pages, double columns, and completed in ten numbers at 25 cents each, or \$2 for the entire work. The price of the English edition is \$12.

33.—*The Family of Bethany; or, Meditations on the Eleventh Chapter of the Gospel according to St. John.* By L. BURNET, late one of the Chaplains of the French Church in London. New York: John S. Taylor & Co., and Robert Carter.

It may perhaps be taken as evidence of the popularity of these meditations, that two publishing houses have simultaneously reprinted editions of the work—the first American, from the eighth London. Introductory to the meditations, is an essay by the Rev. Hugh White, author of "Meditations on Prayer," &c.

34.—*Bickersteth's Treatise on the Lord's Supper; adapted to the Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.* With an Introduction, Notes, and an Essay. By G. T. BEDELL, D. D., Rector of St. Andrew's Church, Philadelphia. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

The best evidence of the popularity of this treatise may be inferred from the fact, that the present is the fifth edition published since 1824.

Carey & Hart, of Philadelphia, have commenced the publication of a beautiful edition of the complete works of Lord Byron, edited by Thomas Moore, Esq. It is to be completed in twelve weekly parts, at twenty-five cents each, illustrated by six elegant steel engravings, and printed with larger type, on whiter paper, similar to the edition formerly published at ten dollars—the whole forming four large volumes, over 2,200 pages. A remittance of \$5 to the publishers will pay for two copies.

35.—*The Retrospect; or, Review of Providential Mercies.* With anecdotes of various characters. By ALIQUIS, formerly a Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, and now a Minister of the Established Church. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

As an evidence of the popularity of this work, it is only necessary to state that it is the third American from the seventeenth London edition.

THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME IX.

AUGUST, 1843.

NUMBER II.

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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1843.

ART. I.—THE SANDWICH OR HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

NUMBER II.

THEIR COMMERCE AND AGRICULTURE—THEIR PROSPECTS—CHIEF TOWNS—SEIZURE BY LORD
GEORGE PAULET, ETC.

PREVIOUS to the visit of Captain Cook, the internal commerce of the group was limited to a mere exchange, between the several islands or districts, of those articles which more abundantly grew, or were more ingeniously manufactured in each. For this purpose, stated fairs were held, subject to certain general rules for their maintenance, and the preservation of good order. But they were not of very frequent occurrence; and it is probable that their many wars prevented the inhabitants from engaging in a constant trade, which otherwise their agricultural habits and enterprising dispositions might have drawn them into, and thus prepared them, in a still more favorable degree, for adopting civilized pursuits.

Between 1535 and 1650, Europeans, most probably Spaniards, several times visited the group. Some of their number remained among the people, intermarried with them, and their descendants became so thoroughly nationalized, that, one hundred and fifty years afterward, but faint traces or signs of their origin remained—but they were sufficient to identify them as being partly of a different and lighter race than the present inhabitants. The cursory view which the Spaniards of that period took of the islands, satisfied them that neither precious metals, or fruitfulness of the soil, were inducements for them to found a settlement there. Of the former, not the slightest trace existed—of the latter, it was mainly to be seen in the interior of the valleys, and far inland, where probably the warlike habits of the inhabitants deterred them from penetrating, as there appeared to be no prospect of gain to remunerate the toils and dangers which would have been encountered. Moreover, these visits appear to have been chiefly the result of accident, and by single vessels which had departed somewhat from their ordinary course in crossing the Pacific, and whose crews

were not of sufficient strength to allow of exploration. Be this as it may, it is certain that, beyond this occasional touching at a few points, or coasting their shores, during the period abovementioned, no use, either for purposes of traffic or colonization, was made of the discovery. Either from their apparent insignificance, or from motives of selfish policy, the court of Madrid discouraged any attempts at the latter, and likewise suppressed all journals which related to cruises in that quarter. Consequently, the knowledge of their existence became lost, in a great measure, to the nation that discovered them; and the very knowledge of the fact of their visits, about which hangs a mystery which affords a fine and novel field for romance, is derived from the Hawaiians themselves, with but incidental, though strongly corroborating testimony, from the naval histories of that era. With all the precautions of the Spanish court, however, a group of islands, answering in most particulars to the present Hawaiian, found its way upon the charts of that nation, and with but so little distance from their correct position, as to leave not a shadow of doubt that *La Disgraciada*, *La Mesa*, and *Los Mojos*, of the seventeenth century, are identical with the *Hawaii*, *Maui*, *Oahu*, and the other islands of the Hawaiian group of the nineteenth century. This cluster, and another island called *San Francisco*, large, and within one hundred miles of the true position of the largest island of the Sandwich group, *Hawaii*, are to be found upon the chart accompanying the earlier editions of *Anson's Voyages*. Captain Cook probably derived his idea of the existence of a large group in the North Pacific, from this chart, which was said to have been copied from an early Spanish one. At any rate, he shaped his course directly for them, and manifested no surprise at falling in with land in that direction.

Iron was well known among the natives at that period, though the specimens which they possessed were few, and comparatively useless. Its value was well understood; and while trinkets were comparatively but little prized, iron was held in the highest estimation. The desire to possess it led to robbery on their part, and murder on the part of their visitors. But trade, on equitable terms, was soon established; and bits of iron-hoop, nails, &c., were found quite as efficient agents for procuring supplies, as dollars and doubloons would now be on the same spot, though but sixty-four years later. The mercantile habits of the natives, their shrewd bargaining, and understanding of the value of equivalents, struck *La Perouse* with surprise, in 1786; and he attributed this knowledge, and very plausibly, to their former intercourse with Spaniards. For a few years, bits of iron, beads, and the varied *et cetera*, of almost valueless character, with which ships were wont, at that period, to be supplied, to purchase refreshments and stores, were all-sufficient to tempt the cupidity of the savages. In 1790, fire-arms, gunpowder, and ardent spirits, began to be desired; and soon after cottons, linens, broadcloths, iron-ware—in short, the useful and necessary products of civilization, as well as the destructive and demoralizing. No export, however, had yet been discovered—their sales were limited to supplying provisions, firewood, water, and spars for vessels.

In 1792, the attention of Captain Kendrick, of Boston, was first drawn towards sandal-wood as an article of export. He left two men on *Kanai* to collect a cargo, and purchase pearls—few of the latter, however, are there found, of either beauty or value. The wars and dissension among the natives probably prevented the former trade from being then lucra-

tive, as we find it was not prosecuted to any extent, until the commencement of the next century, when the group was united under one monarch, Kamehameha the Great, at once a religious, civil, military, and commercial despot. No source of profit escaped his vigilant eye, and he monopolized for his own coffers all the lucrative branches of trade, and husbanded them with a wisdom which showed an intellect not inferior to the most cultivated and shrewdest of his white customers. Owing to the beneficence of the English government, through Vancouver, the islands were then well stocked with exotic fruits and vegetables, and with cattle. These added to the wealth and commerce of the monarch-trader. He wisely discouraged the use of ardent spirits, and prohibited their manufacture within his kingdom. The stores of manufactured goods of England and the United States, and military equipments collected by him, were extensive and valuable. His treasury was well filled with Spanish dollars and gold. Not contented with these accumulations, he made arrangements with the Russian governors at the north, to open a traffic with them, and, in the latter part of his reign, fitted out a fine vessel of his own, and sent her on a voyage to Canton, loaded with sandal-wood. Through mismanagement, this proved an unprofitable speculation, but it suggested to him a new source of revenue. In 1818, he established pilot and harbor fees, at a high rate, and which were not diminished until 1825. At that date, by the advice of Lord Byron, who was at Honolulu in the *Blonde* frigate, they were placed upon a more moderate footing.

Upon the succession of his son, Siholiho, the treasures of his father were soon dissipated by his extravagance. Abandoning the wise measures of his predecessor, by which the sandal-wood trade was made, under suitable regulations, a regular and permanent source of real profit to the islands, he recklessly rushed into profuse expenditures, which could only be met by an equally extravagant supply of the wood. While it lasted, it was like a mine of gold. Before 1820, it had been exported at the rate of several hundred thousand dollars annually. Now, it was sought for, and cut indiscriminately. Wines, liquors, and the richest products of China, England, and the United States, poured into the kingdom, and were either wasted in riot and debauchery, or destroyed by neglect. With the jovial king, it was one gala day, while the source of purchasing remained undiminished. Mountains and hills, valleys and plains, were ransacked for the precious commodity. Siholiho practised on his own subjects the same extortion, rapine, and system of compulsory labor; that the Spaniards of Cuba, Mexico, and Peru, did upon the unfortunate aborigines of those countries, in their eager search for gold. The consequences were alike disastrous. Famine, misery, and death, stalked over the land. Numbers perished, or sought safety in flight or exile. The population withered before the curse which the avarice of their chiefs, and the dissipation of their ruler, brought upon them. Vast quantities of sandal-wood were collected, and exported; so much so, that the supply became either exhausted, or so difficult of access, as to prove an almost insurmountable bar to its further export. Still, as may have been expected, the government involved itself deeply in debt.

At this period, in their simplicity, some natives would exchange a dingy, worn doubloon, for a bright, new dollar. Vessels were purchased, occasionally, by their bulk in sandal-wood; and a pit being dug equal to the greatest depth, length and breadth of the vessel in negotiation, it was filled

with sandal-wood, which was exchanged for the desired craft. The Cleopatra's barge, of Salem, a prettily ornamented pleasure craft, brought, it is said, upwards of \$60,000, or more than six times her cost. The profit made by the merchants, at that time, was great; and, had the policy of Kamehameha I. been continued by his son, wealth would have flowed in abundance into the islands. Vessels flocked thither for supplies, in great numbers. From forty to sixty ships, mostly whalers, were, at certain seasons, there at once. Their disbursements were very considerable. After the death of Siholiho, in 1824, trade began to assume a more systematic form. Respectable mercantile houses were established among the foreign residents, and the prices yearly approximated to a more correct standard. The resources of the islands, thus passing in foreign hands, were properly husbanded; and from that period commenced a prosperity which has been gradually and steadily increasing, until it has made the group an exporter of agricultural products of her own growth, an entrepot of goods for other markets, and a valuable consumer for the United States, England, and China.

The commercial statistics will best serve to show the actual rate of increase, from year to year, of exports and imports, commencing in 1834. The statement of shipping that visited the port of Honolulu, Oahu, during that year, is as follows. These statistics are gathered from tables carefully prepared at the Sandwich islands, from year to year, by those interested in the trade.

	Whale Ships.	In Spring.	In Fall.	Total.	Tonnage.	Bbls. sperm oil.
1834—American, ..		37	58	95	34,016	99,008
English,		4	13	17	6,089	19,400
Total,		41	71	112	40,095	118,407
Merchant vessels, 56—sloop-of-war, 1—tonnage,					6,311	

Total tonnage, 46,406

Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu,	17
“ “ “ United States,	8
“ “ “ England,	4
“ “ “ Sydney,	3
“ “ “ Canton,	3
“ “ “ Tahiti,	1

Merchantmen, 56

Whalers, 112

Man-of-war, 1

Total vessels, 169

	Whale Ships.	In Spring.	In Fall.	Total.	Tonnage.	Bbls. sperm oil.
1835—American, ..		12	50	62	22,282	71,600
English,		0	10	10	3,714	10,140
Total,		12	60	72	25,996	81,740
Merchant vessels, 36—tonnage,					6,405	

Total tonnage, 32,401

Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu,	12
“ “ “ Boston,	8
“ “ “ London,	5
“ “ “ Mexico,	2
“ “ “ Salem,	3
“ “ “ Isle of France,	2

Merchant vessels belonging to Canton,.....	2
“ “ “ Antwerp,.....	1
“ “ “ Valparaiso,.....	1
<hr/>	
Merchantmen,	36
Whalers,	72
Russian government ship,.....	1
<hr/>	

Total vessels,..... 109

1836—Whalers: American, 52; English, 9; total, 61—22,000 tons. Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu, 15; Boston, 9; Salem, 4; New Bedford, 2; England, 5, (including one steamboat for Columbia river;) China, 4; Isle of France, 1; Mexico, 1; Calcutta, 1; total, 42—7,793 tons. United States men-of-war, 2; English, 1; French, 1; total, 4.

1837—Whalers: American, 50; English, 16; French, 1; total, 67. Merchantmen: American, 11; English, 1; Mexican, 1; Canton, 2; Oahu, 12; Prussia, 1; total, 28. English men-of-war, 3; French, 1; total, 4.

1838—Whalers: American, 63; English, 10; France, 3; total, 76. Merchantmen: American, 3; English, 6; Mexican, 2; Tahiti, 1; total, 12. Man-of-war: English, 1; total vessels, 89.

1839—Whalers: American, 57; English, 2; Oahu, 1; total, 60. Merchantmen: American, 8; England, 7; Oahu, 8; Tahiti, 1; Manilla, 1; Prussia, 1; total, 26. Men-of-war: American, 3; English, 3; French, 1; Russian, 1; total, 8—94 vessels.

1840—Whalers: American, 36; England, 2; Oahu, 1; total, 39. Merchantmen: American, 14; England, 10; Oahu, 6; France, 1; total, 31. Men-of-war: United States exploring expedition, 6; France, 2; total, 8—78 vessels.

1841—Whalers: American, 50; England, 7; total, 57. Merchantmen: American, 19; England, 13; France, 2; Oahu, 40, (including coasters;) Mexico, 1; total, 75. Men-of-war: American, 10, (including arrivals of United States exploring expedition;) England, 1; total, 11—143 vessels.

The preceding statistics are for the port of Honolulu alone. At Lahaina, on Maui, from June 1, 1840, to May 1, 1841, forty American whalers recruited. Two United States men-of-war visited that port also. The crews of all numbered upwards of twelve hundred men. Occasionally a French or English whaler, or merchantman, touch there. American whalers recruit also at the ports of Hilo, Kailua, and Kealeakreakua, on Hawaii; and Waimea, Koloa, and Haioli, on Kanai, and also at Niihau, which latter island produces excellent yams.

From January, 1834, to January, 1842, 545 vessels of the United States visited the port of Honolulu; and there were, during that period, twenty arrivals of United States men-of-war. Of English vessels, 129—men-of-war, 8. Of French vessels, 6—men-of-war, 5. Total of all vessels for eight years, 888. The year 1841 includes the coasting trade.

The average expenditures of whale ships for recruits, every visit, are from \$700 to \$800 each.

The total value of American property touching at these islands annually, including the outfits of the whalers and their oil, is about \$4,000,000. Seamen, two thousand. This statement does not include the value and crews of national ships.

Pilotage from the port of Honolulu is as follows: For taking a vessel in or out, one dollar per foot.

Vessels entering for refreshments, pay the following harbor fees:

For the outer harbor,.....	6 cents per ton.
“ inner “	10 “

Vessels entering for purposes of trade :

For the outer harbor,.....	\$	50 cents per ton.
“ inner “	60	“
Per the buoys,.....	2 00	“

All goods must be manifested, and landed only by permission of the harbor-master. In 1842, a trifling duty on imports was laid, amounting to not over 3 per cent, ad valorem. A higher rate of duties will doubtless be shortly established.

The following tables show the amount of exports and imports for five years, arranged under their various countries. They are not strictly accurate, but are as nearly so as can be gleaned from a general knowledge of invoices where no custom-house regulations have been established. They are chiefly drawn from tables prepared by Messrs. Peirce and Brewer, merchants of Honolulu, for the Polynesian of 1840 and 1841.

UNITED STATES—*Imports.*

Consisting of cotton cloths, bleached and unbleached, blue prints, chintz, hardware, glass, Britannia ware, copper, cordage, naval stores, furniture, canvas, flour, bread, provisions, wines, ardent spirits, soap, iron, paints, shoes, clothing, books, lumber, &c. &c.

1836,.....	\$151,000
1837,.....	170,000
1838,.....	73,000
1839,.....	231,000
1840 to August 17, 1841,.....	310,000

Total,..... \$935,000

The aggregate amount of goods sold from American whaleships annually would swell the above sum to considerably upwards of \$1,000,000.

ENGLAND—*Imports.*

Longcloths, broadcloths, chintz, prints, spirits, malt liquors, hardware, clothing, &c.

1836,.....	\$10,000
1837,.....	8,000
1838,.....	5,600
1839,.....	10,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	94,000

Total,..... \$127,600

MEXICO—*Imports.*

Specie and bullion.

1836,.....	\$36,600
1837,.....	29,000
1838,.....	20,000
1839,.....	42,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	40,000

Total,..... \$167,600

PRUSSIA—*Imports.*

Cotton goods, &c.

1837,.....	\$5,000
1839,.....	2,000

Total,..... \$7,000

CALIFORNIA, AND ITS ISLANDS—*Imports.*

Sea-otter skins, land furs, soap, lumber, beans, horses, hides, tallow.

1836,.....	\$73,900
1837,.....	49,500

1838,.....	\$61,900
1839,.....	26,500
1840 to August, 1841,.....	59,700
Total,.....	\$271,500

CHILI—Imports.

Same chiefly from the United States and England; also, French goods and flour.

1836,.....	\$29,000
1837,.....	23,000
1838,.....	10,000
1839,.....	31,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	67,000
Total,.....	\$160,000

CHINA—Imports.

Blue nankeens, blue cottons, teas, furniture, silks, satins, &c.

1836,.....	\$70,000
1837,.....	47,000
1838,.....	30,000
1839,.....	31,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	55,000
Total,.....	\$233,000

SOCIETY ISLANDS, ASCENSION AND OTHER ISLANDS—Imports.

Turtle shell, cocoanut oil, pearls and pearl shell, sugar.

1836,.....	\$21,500
1837,.....	10,800
1838,.....	1,500
1841,.....	6,500
Total,.....	\$40,000

RUSSIAN SETTLEMENTS ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER AND NORTHWEST COAST OF AMERICA—Imports.

Lumber, salmon, spars, &c.

1836,.....	\$21,000
1837,.....	8,000
1838,.....	5,000
1839,.....	5,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	17,000
Total,.....	\$56,000

MANILLA—Imports.

Cigars, rope, hats, rice, manufactures of England, China, and the United States.

1840,.....	\$15,000
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NEW SOUTH WALES—SYDNEY—Imports.

English goods.

1841,.....	\$10,000
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Total value of imports during the year—

1836,.....	\$413,000
1837,.....	350,500
1838,.....	207,000
1839,.....	378,500
1840 to August, 1841,.....	674,000

Total—5 years 7 months,..... \$2,023,000

Inclusive of goods sold from whalers throughout the islands, the imports for that period may safely be estimated at \$2,200,000. A large portion of the imports into Honolulu

are purchased for reshipment to California and the Southern islands, and the Russian settlements. A large quantity of merchandise also arrives annually, destined for other markets, and is either temporarily stored, or remains on shipboard.

The value of vessels owned by foreign residents and natives has varied, within the few past years, from \$50,000 to \$75,000—tonnage from twelve to fifteen hundred tons. In 1840 there were seven vessels owned by citizens of the United States, valued at \$39,000; three by English subjects, valued at \$17,000.

EXPORTS FROM HONOLULU OF SANDWICH ISLAND PRODUCE, AND VALUE.

January 1 to December 1.	Sandal-wood,* \$7 per picul.	Bullock hides,† \$2 each.	Goat skins,‡ 23 cents each.	Salt,§ \$1 25 per barrel.	Leaf tobacco, 15 cts. lb.	Sugar,¶ — per pound.	Molasses & syrup,** — per gal.
1836,.....	\$26,000	\$12,000	\$4,600	\$4,400	\$500
1837,.....	12,000	13,000	4,500	2,700	300	\$300	\$1,000
1838,.....	6,000	10,000	3,000	1,400	6,200	3,450
1839,.....	21,000	6,000	1,000	2,900	6,000	3,000
1840 to Aug. 1841	21,500	14,140	4,400	300	25,000	9,000
Total,..	\$65,000	\$62,500	\$27,240	\$15,800	\$1,100	\$37,500	\$16,450

TABLE—Continued.

January 1 to December 1.	Kukui oil,†† 50 cents per gallon.	Sperm oil,‡‡ vessels fitted out at Oahu.	Arrow-root,§§ 5 cents per pound.	Raw silk.	Supplies to vessels—fresh & salt provisions, &c., firewood.	Sundries—Pulu, a moss for beds, must'd-s'd, brooms, &c.	Total value of native produce exported.
1836,.....	\$400	\$300	\$25,000	\$73,200
1837,.....	600	200	50,000	84,600
1838,.....	500	300	36,000	66,850
1839,.....	500	\$4,000	50,000	94,400
1840 to Aug. 1841,	500	9,900	5,100	\$200	86,500	[\$2,090	178,730
Total,..	\$2,500	\$13,900	\$5,900	\$200	\$247,500	[\$2,090	\$497,780

* Most of the sandal-wood is young, and of inferior quality. A small amount is annually shipped to China.

† The bullocks are found in herds, wild, on the mountains of Hawaii. The annual export has heretofore been from three to ten thousand hides; but, in 1840, the king laid a taboo upon their destruction for five years, which will enable them to increase very much, and afford him a productive revenue.

‡ Wild goats have been very numerous, but, of late years, wild dogs, which roam the mountains in packs, like wolves, have greatly thinned their number. They also destroy young calves, poultry, and even are dangerous to man.

§ The salt is procured from a natural salt lake four miles to the west of Honolulu. It is in the cone of an extinct crater, and can afford an exhaustless supply of the article. The lake is about one mile in circumference, and during the summer season, salt is formed spontaneously, and in the greatest abundance.

|| But little attention has been paid to raising this article. It flourishes well, however, in many situations, and is of good flavor.

¶ Sugar has fallen from eight cents per pound, within four years, to two cents, and now varies from two to four cents per pound.

** Molasses has fallen from 25 cents to between 18½ and 12½ cents per gallon.

†† Kukui oil is a paint oil, expressed from the candle nut, or *aleurites tribola*. It is a very good substitute for linseed oil. Several mills for its preparation are now in active operation.

‡‡ Though the experiment of fitting vessels for the whale-fishery has, as yet, scarcely been tried from Honolulu, owing to a want of capital and suitable officers, yet its local advantages for this branch of commerce are great, and worthy the attention of merchants.

§§ Any quantity of arrow-root can be manufactured and exported at a cheap rate. It there forms a common article of diet, and is nutritious and healthy. A prejudice against its use exists in the United States, which confines its sale to the shops of apothecaries. It could be afforded at eight or ten cents per pound, and should be sold by grocers and introduced into families.

In addition to these exports, bills of exchange, drawn at a discount by the governors of the Russian settlements, on the imperial government, by masters of ships, pursers, and travellers, afford the means of large annual remittances to the United States, England, and China. Considerable sums in specie are also annually shipped to the latter country.

It will be seen that the exports, as well as imports, are steadily, though not rapidly increasing. The want of a suitable export has been a great hinderance to business; and the chief dependance has been upon the supplies furnished shipping. Yet a market which, within five years, has consumed one million of dollars' worth of the manufactures and provisions of the United States, is worthy of attention and encouragement. The demand for cotton goods, and the cheaper manufactures, is increasing. Annually, the means of purchasing, among the natives, is becoming greater, and with it their desire for the necessaries, and even luxuries of civilized lands. Indeed, much of the money bestowed upon modern missions may be considered, in a mercantile view, as a profitable investment for merchants. American missionaries are constantly, though indirectly, by their labors, opening new, and increasing old markets for American manufactures; and, simply as a matter of policy, if no higher motive presents itself, it is well for American merchants liberally to contribute to missionary enterprises. Their gifts will most undoubtedly be returned to them, swelled and prospered by the grateful wishes and thanks of races being rescued from barbarism to civilization. Both the English and French governments view their mission societies as valuable auxiliaries to promote the interests of their policy and to enlarge the bounds of their influence, as well as affording no inconsiderable aids to commerce; and, as such, they assist and protect them. The American merchant will find it expedient to do the same by his own countrymen who engage in the work of benevolence among savage tribes, if he would not see them altogether supplanted by those of rival nations.

The question presents itself, what are the natural capabilities of the group for sustaining commerce and agriculture, and what has already been accomplished? This, I shall endeavor briefly to state. An exaggerated opinion of the fertility of these islands very generally prevails. As a whole, they are not fertile. A large portion of their surface consists of lava-rock, black and barren, and incapable of supporting vegetation. The largest island, Hawaii, is very generally of this character; and, except a few spots near the shore, and some valleys, has no rich soil. These latter are indeed luxuriant; and nature, in them, seems to strive to redeem the sterility of the remaining portion. However, much of the other land here, as on the leeward islands, is suitable for grazing; and herds and flocks must eventually constitute a large share of the natural wealth of the kingdom. Cotton, indigo, coffee, and wheat, flourish remarkably well, and require but attention and capital devoted to their cultivation, to cause them to become profitable exports. The coffee-trees bear most luxuriantly at Hilo, Hawaii, from six to ten pounds per tree being not an uncommon crop. On the uplands of Maui, at an elevation of two thousand feet, wheat of an excellent quality grows wild, and abundantly. No better region for the Irish potato exists, than is to be found on this island. They here acquire great size, the largest weighing from three to four pounds, and in flavor and dryness resemble the Nova Scotia potato. They can be raised for twenty-five cents the barrel. Cabinet-woods, equal to the finest Brazilian, are to

be met with in the forests. As an article for export, the attention of the merchants has chiefly been turned towards the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and, to some extent, the manufacture of silk.

The site of the principal operations is the district of Koloa, on Kanai, the leewardmost and most fertile island. Koloa signifies "great cane," which here grows to a large size, and yields well. In 1835, a lease of an extensive tract of land was obtained here, by a mercantile firm of Honolulu, for the purpose of raising the sugar-cane. Some experiments in this branch of agriculture had been before attempted, but which failed, owing to the opposition of the government to the designs of their proprietors, to distil ardent spirits. But, in this instance, no such objection was necessary, and encouragement was afforded them. Two or three years were spent in planting, inducing the natives to labor, and the erection of mills, and but little sugar was manufactured. The apparent success, however, attending this one, induced others to operate in the same manner; and in 1841 several iron mills had been imported, and were in operation, worked by water-power. These were on Kanai and Maui, while a number of wooden ones, on a smaller scale, were erected on the other islands. The quantity of land under cultivation for sugar, amounted to upwards of one thousand acres, most of which was held in small plantations or farms, by the natives themselves. His Hawaiian Majesty became largely interested, and established an iron mill on his own account at Wailuku, Maui. The best mills are able to turn out from one to four tons daily, during the working season. Water-power is plentiful. The sugar thus far manufactured has been mostly brown, inferior to the Havana, and has gradually fallen in price from six cents to two, at the mills. It now varies from the latter price to four cents, according to the quality. The molasses and syrup sells from twelve and a half to thirty-seven and a half cents per gallon, and none superior is anywhere manufactured.

The soil commonly yields from one thousand to one thousand five hundred pounds to the acre; and, in some instances, from three to five thousand pounds have been taken off—but these are rare. Within the present year, the firm which first established its cultivation at this group, have sold out all their rights and titles to the lands they held, to a company in Belgium, for a very large amount. His Majesty, King Leopold, is interested in the speculation, which starts with a very large capital, said to amount to 25,000,000 francs. By virtue of a lease of all the unoccupied lands on these islands, said to have been given by the king, Kamehameha III, this company are about entering on an extensive scheme of colonization, which, it is hoped, will revive the commerce of Belgium. If they are successful in their operation, the islands will be, in a great measure, peopled by Belgians, and thus present the singular spectacle of a comparatively non-commercial nation holding a colony at the farthest distance it could have been placed. But there are many obstacles to its success. Though the cultivation of sugar-farms, by native proprietors, in a small way, has afforded them more profit than many other branches of domestic industry, yet, with the foreigners, it has not proved a lucrative business. The lands were obtained only on high rents, averaging from twenty-five cents to a dollar per acre, and then only for a limited period. Wages are comparatively high, twelve and a half cents per diem; while in Manilla, and other sugar countries in the East Indies, they are but four cents. Machinery was obliged to be imported from England or the United States, at

a great advance on its original cost. After the sugar was manufactured, it was subjected to several heavy freights, and long delays, before it could find a market; and as yet it has been unable to compete successfully, in the markets of Chili, or Sydney in the Pacific, with the sugars of Peru, Mexico, or Manilla. When sent to the United States, it yields no profit, on account of the high duties it is subjected to. Native labor has been annually rising in value, owing to the new sources of industry which every year open to the Hawaiians. Sugar cannot be raised on an extensive scale at these islands, except by the introduction of a great amount of foreign labor. The native population is sparse, and finds more abundant sources of profit in laboring on their own lands, or in engaging in other branches of industry, than in becoming mere field-hands, at a rate of wages which, when the high prices of foreign commodities are considered, scarcely affords them a suitable remuneration. It is evident, then, that this scheme can only be put into successful operation by the virtual colonization of the islands by a foreign power; and that, too, by a people with whom no previous associations have been formed, and whose religion and habits are as hostile to the institutions of the Sandwich islands, as their language and climate are dissimilar. It is of but small service to them for the United States, England, or France, to acknowledge their national independence, while they receive within their territory a commercial monopoly, headed by a king, and sustained by a powerful government, which cannot be successful but by revolutionizing their own manners, rights, religion, and even language. Colonization schemes, when undertaken by companies, even for countries far less remote, have generally been found expensive, ruinous, and often, in the end, impracticable. That this will be an exception, may well be doubted. The inhabitants of the United States feel a deep interest in the issue. It is their wish and their policy that they should be *let alone*;—that the experiment, whether a savage race can become a civilized and Christianized people, when unmolested and uncorrupted by the powerful or vicious, should be fairly tried;—that the means there at work take their own course, and the enterprise and benevolence of private citizens be left to stand or fall by their own merits. It is a too deeply interesting problem, to be rudely and forcibly interrupted; and it is to be hoped that the actual practicability, and real prospects of success of this Belgium speculation, which, in some of its features, as far as it has been made known, seems analogous to the South Sea scheme and Darien bubble of a past century, will be fairly tested, and thoroughly examined, before lives and fortunes are embarked in the design, which can only be successful by the subversion of the liberties of an interesting people, and, if a failure, will carry want and misery into many families.

The silk business was entered into with as much enthusiasm, in 1837, and with more reasonable hopes of success than the sugar. It was found that the mulberry-tree flourished well, that the silk-worms thrived, the temperature of the climate was uniform, and the labor light and easy. Koloa was also selected for the first operations. A company was formed, and an agent selected to manage its concerns. He was sent to the United States to acquire information in regard to the business, to purchase the necessary machinery, to procure plants, and new varieties of eggs; also a family, to superintend the reeling, and teach the art to the natives. In all this, he was successful; and so highly was the enterprise esteemed at that date, that the proprietors could have realized a large advance for their lease

and improvements. Unfortunately, they were too sanguine; and, three years after commencing business, all their capital was sunk, owing to incompetent management, and the enterprise proved a total failure. The location proved a bad one for the growth of the trees and the health of the worms.

An individual, however, not discouraged by the ill success of this undertaking, selected a more favorable situation, in a fertile and sheltered valley, and in eighteen months succeeded in raising silk beyond his expectations, and has since prosecuted the business, with a fair prospect not only of its ultimate success with himself, but of its production becoming a staple of the country. So rich is the soil of the valley where his plantation is located, (that of Waioli, Kanai,) that but a comparatively small extent of ground is required to feed all the worms he can take care of. Indeed, without witnessing for oneself the rapid growth of vegetation there, it would almost stagger belief. By repeated measurements, it has been found that the mulberry shoots grow upwards of an inch per day, and thousands at the rate of four feet a month. It has been ascertained, on cutting down rows of the trees for food, level with the earth, that, in three months afterwards, they attained an average height of over twelve feet, with a most luxuriant growth of leaves. The leaves of one, taken indiscriminately from the row, when plucked, weighed eight pounds, and the new wood eleven and three quarters. The trees are planted from slips, very close, in uniform lines, so as to form thick hedges, about six feet apart. They were found best to preserve their vigor and freshness by being cut down once in three to four months. When allowed to remain longer, their leaves became hard and tough.

The varieties of the mulberry planted, were the white, black, Canton, and *morus multicaulis*; all of which thrive equally well, and afford equally good nutriment for the worms.

It was soon discovered that the species of the worm used in the United States would not answer for this climate, it being impossible to cause their eggs to hatch with any degree of regularity. A cross between them and a smaller and more delicate species, from China, was then raised, which has been found to answer admirably. Their cocoons are large, and of either a pale straw or bright orange color, both of beautiful lustre, and great firmness. From four to six thousand make a pound of reeled silk, worth at Mazatlan, Mexico, from seven to eight dollars, and in the United States from five to six. The native women and boys make expert reelers, turning off from one-half a pound to a pound each, per diem. The worms are fed in large thatched buildings, erected at a small expense, and the reeling is done in similar houses. For nine months in the year, the worms can be fed to advantage; a crop of from three hundred thousand to one million being raised monthly. This plantation, on which but a trifling expense has been laid out, has already accumulated for a market a valuable lot of the raw material. It affords employment to many women and children, besides men.

The Sandwich islands have abundant resources within themselves, to support a population tenfold greater than the present. To be a flourishing kingdom, they must become both an agricultural and commercial nation. Whether the indigenous population are of themselves capable of sustaining such relations successfully, when in competition with the grasping policy, the avaricious spirit, and chivalrous enterprise of older nations, remains to

be proved. The aggregate wealth, refinement, and respectability of the Hawaiians, have made, of late years, slow, though sure and progressive advances. Their population, which was rapidly hastening towards extermination, has now a tendency to recover itself; and, although depopulation is still going on, the ratio is small, when compared with former years. The present native population numbers about one hundred thousand, being about one-third of what they were in 1778. Heathenism, however, has now ceased to claim its victims for its horrible religious rites—the wars in which tens of thousands were either slain in battle, massacred, or perished by famine, are now ended—the fearful diseases introduced by white men have either exhausted themselves, or been checked by medical aid—the onerous taxes, which crushed the bone and sinew of the nation, are discontinued; and a beneficent and humane legislation, based upon the principles of Christianity, is now pouring a fresh stream of life-blood into the arteries of the nation.

The natural resources of these islands, both in fertility, population, and products, are too inconsiderable to produce any sudden and rapid commercial growth. Their prosperity will chiefly be commensurate and contemporary with the progress of the coasts of the neighboring continents, and the civilization of the southern archipelagoes. A fair proportion of increasing trade in that quarter must necessarily, from their peculiarly advantageous situation, fall to their lot. The completion of the Panama canal, which is destined to unite the waters of the Pacific with the Atlantic, would greatly increase their commerce. Already are they the stopping point, the resting-place of the valuable trade between Mexico, Peru, and China. Let the canal be finished, and it would be found that much of the prosperity which the French so confidently predict for the Marquesas and Society groups, which they have so recently seized, would centre at the Sandwich islands. The course of the trade-winds and the currents, so favorable for vessels bound from the western coasts of America to China, the Philippine islands, or the East Indies, are equally so for their touching, for purposes of trade, refreshments, or repairs, at these islands; while the other groups cannot be reached except by a departure from the ordinary track, and a consequent delay.

The foreign population of the group, at the present year, numbers about one thousand, of which two-thirds are Americans; the remainder Englishmen, Chinese, Spaniards, French, Portuguese—in short, a mixture of all races. The caste of half-breeds is rapidly increasing, both in numbers and respectability. Seven years ago, the value of American property of all kinds, invested at the islands, was computed at four hundred thousand dollars. Now, it is reckoned at upwards of one million, and is invested in permanent improvements, houses, agricultural pursuits, shipping, stocks of trade, &c.;—the value of other foreign property, at about one-fifth of that sum. The property held in trust by the American Board of Foreign Missions is considerable, amounting to one hundred thousand dollars, and is invested in some forty dwelling-houses, printing-offices and presses, bindery, a high-school, libraries and apparatus, furniture, cattle, &c., for the use of their missionaries. There are sixty American families, including the missionaries, scattered over the group, and six of other nations. Lahaina, on Maui, is the capital of the kingdom, and the residence of the king and his court. It has no harbor, but an open, though safe roadstead. It is the favorite resort for American whalers, supplies being both

cheap and plentiful. About forty recruit here annually. A vice-consul of the United States resides here, and several merchants, with their families. The port-charges are much lighter than at Honolulu—the police of the place is effective, and the municipal regulations excellent. No seamen are allowed to remain ashore at night, except by special permission; and all grogeries, as far as possible, are suppressed. Its population is about three thousand.

Honolulu, situated on the southeastern side of Oahu, is the commercial emporium. Its population is ten thousand. The harbor, which is formed by a projecting reef, with a narrow and somewhat intricate entrance, is capacious and safe, and capable of accommodating from fifty to seventy-five sail of vessels at once. On the side of the town it is lined with well-built wharves, at which ships can lie, and discharge their cargoes, at all times of the tide, the greatest rise or fall of which is seldom above four feet. Near the wharves, are numerous well-built stone warehouses, a convenient ship-yard, a stone fort, mounting sixty guns, and the government buildings and private residence of His Hawaiian Majesty. The public buildings consist of two capacious Protestant churches, one of stone, and the other of *adobies*, a seaman's chapel, a Roman Catholic cathedral of stone, several well-built school-houses, &c. The residences of the foreigners and chiefs are built after the European manner, adapted to the warmth of the climate.

English, French, and American consular agents, reside here. The honorable Hudson's Bay company have an extensive agency here, in connection with their establishment at Fort Vancouver, on the Columbia river. Of stores and ships held by foreigners, there are thirty-four. Artisans of every grade are to be found. The general appearance of the town presents a combination of orientalism and modern civilization, which is far from being displeasing. It owes its origin and growth entirely to foreign commerce, and its increase has been rapid and uniform. The streets are wide, and chiefly run at right angles with each other.

Including Bird island, which lies one hundred and twenty-five miles to the northwest of Kanai, the group consists of twelve. The former is a barren rock, the resort only of birds. There are three others of similar character. Lehua, "Egg island," and Kaula, near Niihau, both frequented by wild fowl. The latter supports also a numerous colony of rabbits. Molokini, a mere rock, lies between Maui and Kahoolawe. The other islands, their extent, capitals, and estimated population, are as follows:—

Hawaii, from which the group derives its name, is eighty-eight miles in length, and seventy-three in breadth. It is triangular in shape, and it comprises an area of four thousand square miles. Its mountains attain an elevation of thirteen thousand nine hundred feet, and on it exists the largest known active volcano on the globe. Its population is forty thousand. Kailua is the capital town, with a population of two thousand.

Maui is forty-eight miles long, by thirty in breadth. Area, six hundred square miles. Mauna Haleakla, "hour of the sun," is its highest elevation, being ten thousand five hundred feet. Lahaina is its capital, and its population is near twenty-five thousand.

Kahoolawe, but little better than a barren rock, eleven miles long by eight in breadth, sustains a fishing and convict population of about two hundred.

Lanai is seventeen miles long by nine in breadth. Population, one thousand.

Molokai comprises one hundred and ninety square miles. Population, four thousand.

Oahu, forty-six miles long, by twenty-five in width, has five hundred and thirty square miles, and a population of thirty thousand. Highest mountains, four thousand feet.

Kanai embraces five hundred square miles, and is nearly circular. Population, nine thousand. Waimea, the capital, contains two thousand inhabitants. Mauna Waialeali, in the centre, attains an elevation of six thousand feet.

Niihau, with ninety square miles, has one thousand inhabitants. The whole group comprises a superficial area of about sixty-one thousand square miles, of which Hawaii alone includes two-thirds. The only available harbors for foreign shipping are those of Honolulu, Oahu, and Hilo, or Byron's Bay, Hawaii. The remaining anchorages are mere roadsteads, generally safe and convenient, but during the winter months somewhat exposed.

The extravagant statements which individuals are sometimes guilty of in regard to statistical information, either from ignorance, or a desire, from selfish or political motives, to create a false interest in far-off places, is highly reprehensible. Of late years, French writers have particularly indulged in this strain, it would seem, to create a national longing for colonial possessions in the Pacific. They have been in part successful, and the expensive establishments at the Marquesas and Tahiti owe their origin, to some extent, to this system of falsifying. In 1839, a report to the French minister of the marine appeared in the journals of that nation in regard to the Pacific, and was extensively copied into the papers of the United States, and found its way, as statistical information, into the pages of this magazine. Coming from such high authority, it is no matter of surprise that it was so universally credited. A portion of it is as follows, and purported to be upon the authority of that celebrated navigator, Captain d'Unville:—

“The principal rendezvous for the whale-ships, (French,) Captain d'Unville states to be the Sandwich islands, Tahiti, and New Zealand. At the former of these stations, sometimes *sixty* French whalers are assembled together; at the second, *twenty*; at the third, *forty*. At all these places, when the whalers are in, the most unbounded licentiousness and disorder prevail among the crews, and call imperiously for the establishment of consuls, or other authorized agents, on the spot.”

“Captain d'Unville strongly urges the necessity of sending out agents of this kind without delay, more particularly to the Bay of Islands, in New Zealand, where a British resident, who performs the functions of a constable and chief magistrate, has long been settled. England and the United States, the captain adds, had several vessels of war, during the course of each year, to visit these fisheries; whereas France sends only one occasionally—he therefore recommends the government to adopt more efficient measures of this kind.”—*Paris paper, Nov. 23.*

That such a tissue of misrepresentations should have been officially issued, seems past belief. But it no doubt had the intended effect. The facts are the following, as will be seen by reference to the tables already given:—In 1837 and 1838, *four* French whalers touched at Honolulu, *one*

at Lahaina, and *one* at Waimea, Kanai. But one afterwards appeared up to December, 1841; making *seven* French whalers in five years, only. Previous to that date, it was a rare thing to see a French vessel of any class at the Hawaiian islands. During the same period, two French merchantmen also visited Honolulu. The proportion of French vessels at Tahiti and New Zealand was no greater. Four French men-of-war visited Honolulu during the same time, or one man-of-war, nearly, for every two whalers or merchantmen. Pretty "efficient" protection, when compared with the English or United States commercial statistics. During seven years, the American men-of-war, including the repeated visits of the almost unarmed exploring expedition, have been, in proportion to the numbers of other vessels from the United States, as one to *twenty-eight*—of the English, as one to sixteen; by which facts, it will be seen that the French marine, instead of being the least guarded and looked after, is the best. At that date, also, French consular agents were residing both at Tahiti and Honolulu—M. Morenhart occupying the former position, M. Dudoit the latter.

In regard to the "unbounded licentiousness and disorder" of French crews, said to prevail both at Oahu and Tahiti, no symptoms of such conduct appeared among the crews of the vessels before recapitulated. Indeed, for good conduct and sobriety, they compared favorably with the best of those of the United States or England; and the only difficulties which have arisen have sprung from those very men-of-war, and their officers and crews, sent to protect and preserve order among a few whalers and merchantmen, scattered over an ocean of ten thousand miles width, and one hundred and eighty degrees of latitude from north to south.

Since the preceding article was prepared, the intelligence of the seizure of the Hawaiian islands by Lord George Paulet, commanding Her Britannic Majesty's ship *Carysfort*, has reached this country. As this act will have so important a bearing upon the history of this group, and particularly upon the general interests of Americans residing there, and the trade and commerce of our country in the Pacific, I shall briefly recapitulate the facts which led to so high-handed and intemperate a measure. Rightly to understand the relative position of American citizens and British subjects residing at those islands, with the policy, acts, and character of Richard Charlton, the infamous consul of England, the originator and prime mover of most of these troubles and disturbances, I take the liberty to refer the reader to "The History of the Hawaiian and Sandwich Islands, Tappan & Dennet, Boston, 1843." In it has been traced from its origin the jealousy of a certain class of Englishmen towards the progressive ascendancy of American influence and trade at those islands. This act of Lord Paulet's is but a consummation of that jealousy—a fulfilment of a long-cherished plan, on the part of a few worthless individuals, resulting from a settled and determined hatred to all that is American; for the ruin of which, it was necessary that the English flag should wave in triumph over these islands, and under their auspices. Until this act is avowed by the English government, judging from the mass of evidence before me, and an intimate knowledge of the characters from whom it originated, I cannot view it otherwise than a partisan blow, or, to speak more strictly, a piratical operation on the part of Lord Paulet, unauthorized by his government, and brought about by the influence obtained by the individ-

uals before alluded to over him, "an empty-headed popinjay," to use the words of one of his most respectable countrymen at Oahu, holding an important station under the honorable Hudson's Bay company in that quarter, in a communication upon this subject, in which he expresses the dissatisfaction, regret, and shame, of the better class of Englishmen there, at the lawless act of their naval commander, and makes a manly and indignant remonstrance, in the name of humanity, and the honor and justice of Great Britain. As his communication is forwarded for publication in England, it will be unnecessary to allude farther to it, than to observe that it is an important document from a responsible quarter, and shows that the views entertained by our government and people, for recognizing and maintaining the independence of the Hawaiian nation inviolate, meet the hearty concurrence of those Englishmen who have most at stake in that quarter, and that they view the motives and characters of their countrymen engaged in this business in the same light that we do.

In the fall of 1842, Charlton, the English consul, left Honolulu in a disreputable manner, for England, leaving behind him, as acting consul, one Alexander Simpson, an able man, who cordially united with him in his endeavors to ruin the Hawaiian nation, destroy their government, and drive away the Americans. That Charlton should be hostile to every good purpose, was to be expected—he had too often, by his lawless acts, rendered himself obnoxious to the punishment which his official situation alone screened him from. But with Simpson, it was a design coolly formed, and carried through; and it had been in his mind for years previous, while in the employment of the honorable Hudson's Bay company. But the governor of that body, Sir George Simpson, his uncle, from visiting the islands, had convinced himself of the ability of the Hawaiian government to maintain orderly and friendly relations, not only with the foreigners residing among them, but with all nations; and that it was for the general interest of the commercial world that they should remain free and independent. In conjunction with Messrs. Richards and Haaldis, he accepted the situation of an envoy to the principal courts of Europe, in order to bring about the formal recognition of their independence, and to place the commercial interests of the several countries upon an honorable and equitable basis. He preceded the lastnamed gentlemen in their mission, but joined them in London, in February of this year. Simpson, upon being left by Charlton, failed in obtaining a recognition of his official situation from the Hawaiian government, and very properly. Charlton had left the country with debts to a large amount, having engaged his passage in the name of Simpson, going off with the latter when the vessel was outside the harbor, under the plea of bidding him farewell—but he remained, and Simpson returned. His acts, from that time to the arrival of Paulet, were a mere repetition of the unworthy and insulting conduct of his predecessor—defying the laws, insulting the officers of government, and exciting the contempt and disgust of all the respectable residents. It was evidently his object to irritate the government into some act which might, by his representation, serve to criminate them in the eyes of his own. Failing in this, he wrote a plausible letter to the consul-general of England for the west coast of Mexico, Mr. Barron, in which he urged the immediate presence of a naval force, to redress the grievances of English subjects. His letter was forwarded to the admiral of the station, who ordered the Carysfort to repair thither, under what in-

structions it is unknown, but it is conjectured with discretionary orders, and to be regulated by the statements of the acting consul. At any rate, he boarded him, and remained with him all the night of his arrival. From that time, until the forced cession was completed, Lord Paulet allowed no communication to reach him from any other quarter, but placed himself completely under his guidance. The messenger from the governor of Oahu, the American and French consuls, a number of American and English merchants, who called on board to pay their respects, as is customary, to the commander of every war-vessel at this port, were grossly insulted and repulsed. The following correspondence then ensued:—

OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO THE PROVISIONAL CESSATION OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

[Published by Authority.]

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }
Woahoo, 11th February, 1843. }

Sir—Having arrived at this port in Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, under my command, for the purpose of affording protection to British subjects, as likewise to support the position of Her Britannic Majesty's representative here, who has received repeated insults from the government authorities of these islands, respecting which it is my intention to communicate only with the king in person.

I require to have immediate information, by return of the officer conveying this despatch, whether or not the king (in consequence of my arrival) has been notified that his presence will be required here, and the earliest day on which he may be expected; as otherwise I shall be compelled to proceed to his residence in the ship under my command, for the purpose of communicating with him.

I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your most obedient, humble servant,

GEO. PAULET, Captain.

To Kekuanaoa, Governor of Woahoo, &c.

HONOLULU, OAHU, Feb. 11, 1843.

Salutations to you, Lord George Paulet, Captain of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort—I have received your letter by the hand of the officer, and with respect inform you that we have not as yet sent for the king, as we were not informed of the business; but having learnt from your communication that you wish him sent for, I will search for a vessel, and send. He is at Walluku, on the east side of Main. In case the wind is favorable, he may be expected in six days.

Yours, with respect,

M. KEKUANAOA.

Translated by G. P. Judd, Recorder and Translator for Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }
Honolulu Harbor, Feb. 16, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to acquaint your majesty of the arrival in this port of Her Britannic Majesty's ship under my command; and, according to my instructions, I am desired to demand a private interview with you, to which I shall proceed with a proper and competent interpreter.

I therefore request to be informed at what hour to-morrow it will be convenient for your majesty to grant me that interview.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient and humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

To His Majesty Kamehameha.

HONOLULU, Feb. 17, 1843.

Salutations to you, Lord George Paulet, Captain of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort.

Sir—We have received your communication of yesterday, and must decline having any private interview, particularly under the circumstances which you propose.

We shall be ready to receive any written communication from you to-morrow, and will give it due consideration.

In case you have business of a private nature, we will appoint Dr. Judd our confidential agent, to confer with you; who, being a person of integrity and fidelity to our government, and perfectly acquainted with all our affairs, will receive your communications, give you all the information you require, (in confidence,) and report the same to us.

With respect,

KAMEHAMEHA,
KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Translator and Interpreter for the Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }
Woahoo, February 17, 1843. }

Sir—In answer to your letter of this day's date, (which I have too good an opinion of your majesty to allow me to believe ever emanated from yourself, but from your ill advisers,) I have to state that I shall hold no communication whatever with Dr. G. P. Judd, who, it has been satisfactorily proved to me, has been the prime mover in the unlawful proceedings of your government against British subjects.

As you have refused me a personal interview, I enclose you the demands which I consider it my duty to make upon your government, with which I demand a compliance at or before four o'clock, P. M., to-morrow, (Saturday,) otherwise I shall be obliged to take immediate coercive steps to obtain these measures for my countrymen.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

His Majesty Kamehameha.

DEMANDS made by the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, Captain Royal Navy, commanding Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, upon the king of the Sandwich Islands.

First—The immediate removal, by public advertisement, written in the native and English languages, and signed by the governor of their island and F. W. Thompson, of the attachment placed upon Mr. Charlton's property; the restoration of the land taken by government for its own use, and really appertaining to Mr. Charlton; and reparation for the heavy loss to which Mr. Charlton's representatives have been exposed by the oppressive and unjust proceedings of the Sandwich island government.

Second—The immediate acknowledgment of the right of Mr. Simpson to perform the functions delegated to him by Mr. Charlton, namely: those of Her Britannic Majesty's acting consul, until Her Majesty's pleasure be known upon the reasonableness of your objections to him. The acknowledgment of that right, and the reparation for the insult offered to Her Majesty, through her acting representative, to be made by a public reception of his commission, and the saluting the British flag with twenty-one guns, which number will be returned by Her Britannic Majesty's ship under my command.

Third—A guarantee that no British subject shall in future be subjected to imprisonment in fetters, unless he is accused of a crime which by the laws of England would be considered a felony.

Fourth—The compliance with a written promise, given by King Kamehameha to Captain Jones, of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Curacoa, that a new and fair trial would be granted in a case brought by Henry Skinner, which promise has been evaded.

Fifth—The immediate adoption of firm steps to arrange the matters in dispute between British subjects and natives of the country, or others residing here, by referring the cases to juries, one-half of whom shall be British subjects approved by the consul, and all of whom shall declare on oath their freedom from prejudgment upon, or interest in, the cases brought before them.

Sixth—A direct communication between His Majesty Kamehameha and Her Britannic Majesty's acting consul, for the immediate settlement of all cases of grievances and complaint on the part of British subjects against the Sandwich islands government.

Dated on board Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, at Woahoo, this 17th day of February, 1843.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }
Woahoo, February 17, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to notify you that her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, under my command, will be prepared to make an immediate attack upon this town, at four

o'clock, P. M., to-morrow, (Saturday,) in the event of the demand now forwarded by me to the king of these islands not being complied with by that time.

Sir, I have the honor to be

Your most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

To Captain Long, Commander U. S. S. Boston, Honolulu.

HONOLULU, February 18.

Salutations to Right Hon. Lord George Paulet, Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

We have received your letter, and the demands which accompanied it; and in reply would inform your Lordship that we have commissioned Sir George Simpson and William Richards as our ministers plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary to the court of Great Britain, with full powers to settle the difficulties which you have presented before us; to assure Her Majesty, the queen, of our uninterrupted affection, and to confer with her ministers as to the best means of cementing the harmony between us. Some of the demands which you have laid before us are of a nature calculated seriously to embarrass our feeble government, by contravening the laws established for the benefit of all. But we shall comply with your demand, as it has never been our intention to insult Her Majesty the queen, or injure any of her estimable subjects; but we must do so under protest, and shall embrace the earliest opportunity of representing our case more fully to H. B. M. government, through our minister, trusting in the magnanimity of the sovereign of a great nation, which we have been taught to respect and love, that we shall there be justified.

Waiting your further orders,

With sentiments of respect,

KAMEHAMEHA 3d.
KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Jr., for the Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }

Woahoo, 18th February, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to acknowledge your majesty's letter of this day's date, wherein you intimate your intention of complying with my demands, which I have considered my duty to make upon your majesty's government. I appoint the hour of two o'clock this afternoon for the interchange of salutes, and I shall expect that you will inform me at what hour on Monday you will be prepared to receive myself and Her Britannic Majesty's representatives.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

His Majesty Kamehameha III.

HONOLULU, Oahu, Feb. 18, 1843.

Salutations to Lord George Paulet, Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

I have received your communication, and make known to you that I will receive yourself, and H. B. M. representatives, on Monday, the 20th of February, at 11 o'clock, A. M.

Yours, respectfully,

KAMEHAMEHA 3d.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Jr., for the Government.

Where are you, chiefs, people, and commons from my ancestor, and people from foreign lands!

Hear ye, I make known to you that I am in perplexity, by reason of difficulties into which I have been brought without cause, therefore I have given away the life of our land, hear ye! But my rule over you, my people, and your privileges, will continue; for I have hope that the life of the land will be restored when my conduct is justified.

Done at Honolulu, Oahua, this twenty-fifth day of February, 1843.

Witness, JOHN D. PAALUA.

KAMEHAMEHA,
KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Recorder and Translator for the Government.

In consequence of the difficulties in which we find ourselves involved, and our opinion of the impossibility of complying with the demands in the manner in which they are made by Her Britannic Majesty's representatives upon us, in reference to the claims of British subjects, we do hereby cede the group of islands known as the Hawaiian (or Sandwich) islands, unto the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, captain of Her Majesty's ship-of-war Carysfort, representing Her Majesty Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, from this date, and for the time being; the same cession being made with the reservation that it is subject to any arrangement that may have been entered into by the representatives appointed by us to treat with the government of Her Britannic Majesty; and in the event that no agreement has been executed previous to the date thereof, subject to the decision of Her Britannic Majesty's government on conference with the said representatives, and being accessible, or not having been acknowledged subject to the decision which Her Britannic Majesty may pronounce on the receipt of full information from us, and from the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet.

In confirmation of the above, we hereby fix our names and seals, this twenty-fifth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-three, at Honolulu, Oahu, Sandwich islands.

Signed in presence of G. P. Judd, Recorder and Translator for the Government.

KAMEHAMEHA 3d,
KEKAULUAHI.

A provisional cession of the Hawaiian or Sandwich islands having been made this day by Kamehameha III, king, and Kekauluahi, premier thereof, unto me, the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, commanding H. B. M. ship Carysfort, on the part of her Britannic Majesty Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, subject to arrangements which may have been or shall be made in Great Britain with the government of H. B. Majesty :

I do hereby proclaim—

First—That the British flag shall be hoisted on all the islands of the group; and the natives thereof shall enjoy the protection and privileges of British subjects.

Second—That the government thereof shall be executed, until the receipt of the communication from Great Britain, in the following manner, viz :—By the native king and chiefs, and the officers employed by them, so far as regards the native population; and by a commission consisting of King Kamehameha III, or a deputy appointed by him, the Right Hon. Lord George Paulet, Duncan Forbes Mackay, Esq., and Lieut. Frere, R. N., in all that concerns relations with other powers, save and except the negotiations with the British government, and the arrangements among foreigners, other than natives of the Archipelago, residents on these islands.

Third—That the laws at present existing, or which may be made at the ensuing council of the king and chiefs, after being communicated to the commission, shall be in full force so far as natives are concerned; and shall form the basis of the administration of justice by the commission, in matters between foreigners resident on these islands.

Fourth—In all that relates to the collection of the revenue, the present officers shall be continued at the pleasure of the native king and chiefs, their salaries for the current year being also determined by them, and the archives of the government remaining in their hands. The accounts are, however, subject to inspection by the commission heretofore named. The government vessels shall be in like manner subject, however, to their employment, if required, for Her Britannic Majesty's service.

Fifth—That no sales, leases, or transfers of land, shall take place by the action of the commission aforesaid, nor from natives to foreigners, during the period intervening between the twenty-fourth of this month, and the receipt of the notification from Great Britain of the arrangements made there. They shall not be valid, nor shall they receive the signatures of the king and premier.

Sixth—All the existing bona fide engagements of the native king and premier shall be executed and performed, as if this cession had never been made.

Given under my hand this twenty-fifth of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-three, at Honolulu, Oahu, Sandwich Islands.

GEORGE PAULET,
Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

Signed in presence of

G. P. JUDD, Rec. and Int. to the Government.

ALEX. SIMPSON, H. B. M. Acting Consul.

A true copy of the original.

G. PAULET, Captain.

Fraud and injustice are stamped upon the face of it, but the circumstances attending it were still more gross. Demands were brought which are not in print, and which they would not put to writing, one after another, claiming heavy damages for alleged causes of the most frivolous and contemptible nature. In short, Simpson was determined that the English flag should surmount the Hawaiian; and, losing sight of all cautious policy in his ardor for its accomplishment, grossly committed himself, by threatening an appeal to violence, in the support of fraudulent claims. After the cession, the principal grounds of complaint were abandoned by Lord Paulet, particularly the new trial for money in dispute, demanded for Skinner, a British subject, against Dominis, an American citizen, which had been settled a year before, and for which Dominis held Skinner's certificate. Dr. Judd, who was marked in the official correspondence as an enemy to Englishmen, and with whom, as agent for the king, Paulet would have nothing to do, was *requested* by that lord to retain his situation. These, and a few other circumstances, are mentioned merely to show the inconsistency of these men, which strengthens the probability that they acted solely upon their own responsibility, with no definite plan of operations beyond the determination of possessing the islands; expecting, no doubt, in the end, that they would not only be sanctioned by the English government, but highly rewarded for securing to their country so valuable a group.

One of the first acts of the new government was to raise the duties—to limit the number of grogeries to twelve, under high licenses; an act which gave great dissatisfaction to many of the loyal subjects of Great Britain, as it took away their business. A proclamation was issued, requiring all foreigners to produce evidence of their titles to real estate, within a certain period. This will create much confusion among American residents in particular, against whom it is aimed—as all the lands upon which the missionary property, and most of the improvements belonging to merchants, are located, are held by the old law of the country, "*Indian gift*." The king, this very year, was about bestowing full and legal deeds, according to the new constitution, upon all who held property in this precarious way, and which this edict jeopardizes to a great extent. At the same time, the king was compelled to give a deed to the agents of Mr. Charlton, in his favor, of the most valuable portion of the town of Honolulu, comprising a large lot situated on the water-side, and covered with improvements. This had been claimed by Charlton, within a few years, on the strength of a deed, which he said he had in his possession, signed by Kalaimoku, former governor of Oahu. A paper had been exhibited, in which his name was spelt in a manner which no native ever writes—letters being used which are not in their alphabet. Those who recollect the letter of Boki, which made so much stir in this country and England, until its forgery was demonstrated beyond a doubt, will perceive a similarity between the two, which looks strikingly like a common origin. The names of witnesses are attached, but they are of men long since dead; and the document was not produced, or even heard of, until after their decease. Two vessels, belonging to the king, were taken possession of, for the use of the English governor. The mansion and grounds of Haalilio, the Hawaiian commissioner, were occupied by Lord Paulet and suite.

It was their desire that it should appear that the king voluntarily ceded

the islands to Great Britain. When the official correspondence was printed, it contained the short but feeling address of the king to his people. This was given in the presence of Lord Paulet, Mr. Simpson, and all the officers, and interpreted to the former by Dr. Judd, word for word, as it was spoken by the king. If that was allowed to go abroad, it was evident, even to them, that it could not fail to convey the impression that the king yielded only to force, under a protest, and that he appealed for justice to the righteousness of his cause, and the magnanimity of Great Britain. This would not do. Lord Paulet ordered the whole to be suppressed, and issued an *amended* edition of his own; but some copies were circulated, and he had the folly to post up about the streets of Honolulu the following notice:—

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., }
March 3, 1843. }

It is hereby publicly intimated that the publication and distribution of a speech stated to have been made by Kamehameha, on the twenty-fifth of February, in a paper entitled "Official correspondence, relating to the late provisional cession of the Sandwich islands," was entirely without the authority of the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, or the commission appointed by him. That speech was delivered without the sanction of Lord George Paulet, and formed no part of, and had no connection with, the arrangements by which the sovereignty of these islands was provisionally ceded to Great Britain.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

He evidently attempts to convey the impression that the speech is a forgery, and caps the climax of inconsistency by stating that it was delivered without his sanction; thus desiring to deprive the poor king of the liberty of speech, as well as his throne.

A demand was made upon the French consul to produce his credentials. His reply was—"When you show me by what authority you make the demand, I will take it into consideration." Mr. Hooper, the American consul, sent his in, and was recognised. It is to be hoped that our consular department abroad will, in future, be filled with individuals possessing sufficient knowledge and firmness to maintain the dignity and independence of their stations. But men whose lives are devoted exclusively to the pursuit of gain, cannot be expected to fill responsible situations with that independence of character which those who have no mercantile interest at stake can exercise.

The following are some of the notices of the Simpson government, and serve to show its spirit:—

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., }
March 3d, 1843. }

Public notice is hereby given, that Mr. Jules Dudoit, consul of France to the late government, having intimated to the commission that he declines to lay before it his authority for acting as representative of France in these islands, the commission will not recognise him from this date in that capacity.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., }
March 1st, 1843. }

Public notice is hereby given, that all British subjects, and the subjects or citizens of other countries, (other than the natives of the Archipelago,) having any claims for land in the Sandwich islands, whether by lease, written document, or in virtue of occupancy,

are required to send in such claims to the commissioners, on or before the first of June next; failing which, no claims will be hereafter held valid, (unless the holders of these claims shall be absent from these islands during the intervening space.) The commissioners will not enter upon the validity of these claims at present, but will cause all the deeds and claims, as presented, to be registered for future decision.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

The probable effect of the latter upon American property has already been noticed. Business is interrupted, and the whole community is in a state of great excitement. The doors of the residents are shut against Lord Paulet and his officers. He made an attempt to conciliate favor, but was repulsed with a manly indignation. It is to be regretted that the king had not aroused within him the lion spirit of his noble and courageous father, old Kamehameha. Had he been alive, not a demand of an unjust nature would have been submitted to; but force would have been met by force. Some of the chiefs wished to fight; but the spirit of the king, who is an exceedingly amiable man, and beloved by his subjects, had been crushed by the repeated insults and demands of the French, in the cases of Laplace and Mallet, and who probably would have anticipated Lord Paulet, had they been aware of his movements. Kaivkeouli, in peaceful times, is an excellent and patriotic sovereign; but he has not the firmness requisite for emergencies of such a nature as the one in question. Still, had it not been for the amount of property belonging to his personal friends, which would inevitably have been sacrificed, and the destruction of the lives of many of his subjects, perhaps of foreigners, and the exposure of their families to rapine and violence, not so much from the attacking party, as the body of dissolute whites within the town, he would have resisted. Had the scene terminated in bloodshed, and destruction of property, it would have aroused from the civilized world an indignant burst of execration, and awakened a sympathy for a trodden-down people, which would have lifted them up to their proper situation, and secured them there. Had the Hawaiian nation been one of pirates, an occasional war-vessel would have touched at their shores, and bombarded a deserted coast, or destroyed a few villages. But they have been a good, a hospitable people, extending justice and welcome to all, as far as lay in their power. Those whom they have treated the best, have turned upon and rended them. No one who knows them well, can hesitate to say that their troubles and persecutions have been mainly brought about by the plausible but false representations of a set of ingrates, of low and contemptible, and too often of criminal characters, residing among them. America has several millions of dollars at stake, either on those islands, or in vessels that touch there. From five hundred to a thousand of her citizens reside on them. They are a valuable market for her manufactures, and an invaluable resort for her shipping—particularly the whaling interest. Where are they going, when these ports, as well as those of the southern groups, are in effect closed against them, by heavy port-charges, duties and favors given to the shipping of the nations that have seized upon them? The Georgian group, Society, New Zealand, and now the Sandwich islands, have been seized within a short period, by rival nations. Will the American government, after having, by their executive, used such encouraging language as the following to the Hawaiian nation, look on with apathy, and see its rights disregarded, and the interests of American citizens destroyed, through the intrigues and

cabal of envious foreigners? "It cannot but be in conformity with the interest and wishes of the government and the people of the United States, that this community, thus existing in the midst of a vast expanse of ocean, should be respected, and all its rights strictly and conscientiously regarded. And this must also be the true interest of all other commercial states. Far remote from the dominions of European powers, its growth and prosperity, as an independent state, may yet be, in a high degree, useful to all whose trade extends to those regions; while its near approach to the American continent, and the intercourse which American vessels have with it—such vessels constituting five-sixths of all which annually visit it—could not but create dissatisfaction, on the part of the United States, at any attempt by another power, should such attempt be threatened or feared, to take possession of the islands, colonize them, and subvert the native government. This government would be justified, should events hereafter require it, in making a decided remonstrance against the adoption of an opposite policy by any other power."—*From Message to Congress, December 11, 1842.*

And yet, within two months from the publication of this message, a foreign vessel of war enters the harbor of Honolulu, in a time of profound and universal peace, without declaring war, or giving suitable notice of her intentions, proclaims hostilities to take place within a few hours, unless the whole kingdom is surrendered. The lives and property of American citizens are periled—no time allowed for seeking safety—but, without previous warning, the inhabitants are assured that the town will be shortly bombarded, unless the government accede to terms dictated by an individual living among them, whose hatred to them had long been proverbial. Does not this occasion call for the "decided remonstrance" of the American government? Will England, after the assurances given the Hawaiian commissioners, and the tone of her press against French conquests in the Pacific, justify this measure? If honor and justice have not altogether taken flight from her councils, she will promptly bring the authors to trial, and make full and immediate restitution and reparation.

There is good ground for believing that, in this case, England will be governed by a correct principle, and that the indemnity and restoration will be full and prompt. Her desire for territory is great, and may tempt her strongly to hold on to a possession already in her grasp. But she has always treated the Hawaiians with kindness. The time when she could have seized upon them, and with the consent, to some extent, of the people themselves, she let go by—now, the voice of the civilized world would be against the measure. The military occupation of one of our own territories could scarcely have more excited the American press through the length and breadth of the land. A large class of her own subjects are strongly opposed to it. The expense of holding and fortifying it, would be great. France is keenly sensitive upon the subject; and England, from her own acts within two months, cannot, without the grossest inconsistency, as well as the basest ingratitude, entertain for a moment, even, the idea of permanently holding them. The following is a summary of the results of the efforts of the Hawaiian envoys in Europe, derived from first sources:—

"Charlton arrived in England in February of this year, previous to the Hawaiian commissioners; and, by his representations, succeeded in creating a prejudice in the minds of the ministry against them, on the ground

that the islands were exclusively under the control of American merchants and missionaries—that Englishmen were abused, deprived of their just rights, and could not obtain common justice in their courts. But Sir George Simpson and Captain Jones, (a naval commander who had been at Oahu the year before, and from what he had witnessed for himself, afterwards expressed his shame and disgust at the conduct and character of his fellow-subjects residing there,) stepped forward, and disproved the charges. Charlton was immediately disgraced; and the ministry, in March last, expressed their readiness to acknowledge the unconditional independence of the Hawaiian kingdom, and to appoint a proper agent to reside at that court. In this, they followed the example of the United States, France, and Belgium. In addition, Guizot declared to the commissioners his readiness to alter the obnoxious clauses of the Laplace treaty, and place the commercial relations between the two countries upon an equitable footing.”

If, in addition to what has already been observed, it is necessary to add anything else to show the improbability of Lord Paulet's actions being under instructions from the English ministry, his character, and the smallness of his force, should be taken into consideration. Is it reasonable to suppose that England, with the intention of subduing an extensive group, with a population of upwards of one hundred thousand semi-civilized people, possessing fortifications and the munitions of war, with many foreigners in their service, would send on such an expedition so weak-headed an individual as Lord Paulet as commander, and one frigate, the smallest and most inefficient of her class? Any one who knows the islands, is perfectly aware that so small a force, had resistance been made, could not have held possession one day, or even an hour. The vessel might have destroyed the town with her heavy guns; but with an exasperated and aroused population against them, the crew would have been cut off as fast as they landed. The Hawaiians, in past years, have shown no deficiency in military courage and hardihood, and it is not yet extinct; but the mild spirit of the precepts of the gospel influence their councils, and they have a trust, in particular, in the honor and generosity of the English nation, derived from their reverence for Cook, Vancouver, George IV, and Lord Byron. That it may not be misplaced, every friend of humanity will pray; and there is yet hope that this occurrence will terminate in the retraction not only of Great Britain, at the Hawaiian islands, but by France, of her equally unjust seizure of the Georgian cluster.

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY.

HAVING traced the progress of the population of the United States from 1790 to 1840, shown its distribution according to age, sex, race, condition, and pursuit, and deduced the laws of its increase, let us now turn our attention to that part of the census of 1840 which estimated the annual

products of industry. These were arranged under the six heads of Mines, Agriculture, Commerce, Fisheries, the Forest, and Manufactures; each of which was subdivided into specific commodities and sources of profit, as follows:—

MINES.

Cast iron.	Gold.	Anthracite coal.
Bar iron.	Other metals.	Bituminous coal.
Lead.	Salt.*	Granite, marble, &c.

AGRICULTURE.

Horses and mules.	Indian corn.	Silk cocoons.
Neat cattle.	Wool.	Sugar.
Sheep.	Hops.	Firewood.
Swine.	Wax.	Products of the dairy.
Poultry.	Potatoes.	“ “ orchard.
Wheat.	Hay.	Wine.
Barley.	Hemp and flax.	Produce of market gardens.
Oats.	Tobacco.	“ nurseries, &c.
Rye.	Rice.	Domestic goods.
Buckwheat.	Cotton.	

COMMERCE.

Capital in foreign trade.	Capital in internal transportation.
“ retail trade.	“ the business of butchers, packers, &c.
“ lumber trade.	

FISHERIES.

Smoked and dried fish.	Spermaceti oil.	Whalebone and other products of the fisheries.
Pickled fish.	Other fish oil.	

THE FOREST.

Lumber.	Pot and pearl ashes.	Ginseng, and other products of the forest.
Tar, pitch, &c.	Skins and furs.	

MANUFACTURES.

Machinery.	Sole leather.	Paper.
Hardware, cutlery, &c.	Upper leather.	Manf. of paper.
Cannon.	Manf. of leather.	Bookbinding.
Small arms.	Soap.	Printing.
Manf. of precious metals.	Tallow candles.	Cordage.
“ of various metals.	Spermaceti & wax candles.	Musical instruments.
“ of granite, marble, &c.	Distilled spirits.	Carriages.
Bricks and lime.	Brewed liquors.	Flour mills.
Manf. of wool.	Gunpowder.	Grist mills.
“ of cotton.	Drugs, paints, dyes, &c.	Saw mills.
“ of silk.	Turpentine and varnish.	Oil mills.
“ of flax.	Glass.	Ships.
Mixed manufactures.	Pottery.	Furniture.
Manf. of tobacco.	Refined sugar.	Houses.
Hats and caps.	Chocolate.	Other manufactures.
Straw bonnets.		

In about half of the preceding articles, the number or quantity is given by the census; in the rest, only the value annually produced. To all, except the products of agriculture, the number of men employed, and the amount of capital invested in each occupation, are severally annexed. Some further details are added to a few branches of business, as may be seen in the following compendium of this part of the census of 1840.†

* This comprehends salt manufactured from sea-water as well as mineral salt.

† This part of the last census having been already published in the April number of this Magazine for the last year, is now omitted.

We thus have a mass of materials for estimating the annual income of the United States, which has been rarely, if ever, afforded to seventeen millions of people. Yet, with all this valuable aid, precise accuracy is still unattainable; for those diversities and fluctuations of price, from which no country is exempt, are particularly great in this country. Articles of raw produce, which vary in price, from year to year, far more than manufactures, constitute here the unusually large proportion of more than two-thirds of the whole annual product. In a country, moreover, of such large extent as the United States, differing so widely in soil, climate, density of numbers, and easy access of market, the price of the same commodity varies considerably among the different states in the same year. Nay, more—with the larger states, the same local diversities apply to different parts of the same state, and often make the price of the more bulky commodities, at one place of production, more than twice as high as the price they bear at another. To make, then, a fair average, it is necessary to take into account the quantities produced in the several parts, as well as the difference of price. There are also sources of revenue, in which the census has given not the annual product, but the whole value of the capital invested, as in the case of live stock, and of the capitals employed in commerce; in which items, there being room for further difference of opinion, there is a further source of uncertainty. Even in those manufactures of which the census has determined their gross values, we may expect, in deducting the value of the raw materials which have been estimated under other heads, somewhat of the same difference of opinion, and consequently of the same uncertainty. The most careful estimate practicable must therefore rest, in part, on conjecture and probability. Yet, if the estimate be cautiously made, and be founded on the opinion of judicious persons, who look not beyond their own experience and observation, the unavoidable errors will probably so balance and compensate each other, that the result will afford an approximation to the truth, which is all that the subject admits of, and indeed all that it is important for us to know.

In making the subjoined estimate, the following course has been pursued:—Of those articles of which the census has given only the quantities, the market price at the place produced, or where the producer transports it by his own labor, is considered the fair value. To ascertain this, local information, from persons competent to give it, has been procured, as far as practicable. The prices affixed ought, in strictness, perhaps, to have been those which prevailed in 1840, when the census was taken; but, as the prices of most articles of commerce were not uninfluenced, even then, by the distention of the currency which succeeded the termination of the Bank of the United States, in 1836, it was thought that a medium between the prices of 1840 and those of the present day, when they are unusually depressed, would give a fair average.

In estimating the product of live stock, one-fourth of its gross value has been assumed to be its annual value. This may be somewhat too much for horses and mules, but it is far too little for sheep and hogs, and may be not quite enough for neat cattle. The products of this branch of husbandry is compounded in a small degree of rent, but principally of the wages of personal service and the profits of capital; and, considering the high price which both labor and capital bear in this country, 25 per cent seems to be not too high. In England, it is supposed that one-fourth of the

cattle is slaughtered in the year. As those fatted for the shambles are worth about double the general average, this rule would give twice the amount of the present estimate; but then it would be necessary to deduct the value of the food consumed in the process of fattening, which would bring us to nearly the same result. From the gross value of domestic manufactures, included in the products of agriculture, one-half is deducted for the raw materials.

In estimating the products of commerce, as they also are compounded of the wages of industry and the profits of capital, they have, in like manner, been set down at 25 per cent on the capital employed. Without doubt, this greatly exceeds the rate of profits in the wholesale and foreign trade, but it is also far short of the retail trade, in which, for the most part, the capital is turned over several times in the year. The census shows that upwards of 100,000 families are engaged in the employments comprehended under the head of commerce; and a less profit than the one supposed, would not be adequate to the support of that number in a style of living which far exceeds the average rate of that of the whole community.

From the gross value of manufactured products, one-third has been deducted for the value of the raw materials, leaving two-thirds for the wages of labor and the profits of capital. These are the average proportions in the official statements of the manufactures of New York. From this valuation, however, the articles manufactured by mills have been excepted. Three-fourths of the gross value of these articles have been deducted. Even this would not be enough, if the products of sawmills and oilmills, in which human labor bears a much larger proportional part, were not comprehended. A separate estimate is made of the products of printing and bookbinding, by allowing 25 per cent on the capital invested, and \$200 for each man employed.

In estimating the annual products of the mines, the fisheries, and the forest, the whole value at the place of production, or of sale by the producer, has been the measure—that value being made up of the profits of land, of labor, and of capital.

In all cases, the prices at which the principal products of each state have been estimated, may be seen by comparing the values with the quantities, so that every one may correct the estimate wherever he deems it erroneous.

It is proper to remark that the census omits several products of industry, whose aggregate value would make no insignificant addition to the total amount. Among these, are—1. The blades of Indian corn, an excellent fodder for horses and cattle; and which, estimating twenty pounds for every bushel of grain, amounts to 3,775,000 tons, worth \$37,750,000. 2. Peas and beans. 3. Flaxseed. 4. Broom-corn. 5. Sumach. 6. Honey. 7. Feathers.

In the subjoined table, the values of the principal products of agriculture and of manufactures, and occasionally of other branches of industry, are specifically stated, while the rest are included under the general heads.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MAINE.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	59,208	\$2,960,400
Neat cattle,.....	327,255	4,908,825
Sheep,.....	649,264	973,896
Hogs,.....	117,386	352,158
25 per cent of.....		<u>\$9,195,279</u>
is.....		\$2,298,819
Poultry,.....		123,171
		<u>\$2,421,980</u>
Wheat,.....bush.	848,166	\$1,061,207
Oats,.....	1,076,409	376,743
Maize,.....	950,528	712,896
Other grain,.....	544,645	435,716
Potatoes,.....	10,392,280	2,078,556
		<u>4,665,118</u>
Wool,.....lbs.	1,465,551	\$492,942
Products of dairy,.....		1,496,902
“ orchards,.....		149,381
Hay,.....tons	691,358	5,530,864
Other products,.....		1,099,083
		<u>8,769,172</u>
Total of Agriculture,.....		<u>\$15,856,270</u>
II. Manufactures.		
Metals and machinery,.....	\$194,099	
Lime, &c.,.....	621,583	
Woollen,.....	412,366	
Cotton, &c.,.....	1,023,086	
Leather,.....	443,846	
Furniture,.....	204,875	
Carriages,.....	174,310	
Ships,.....	1,184,902	
Houses,.....	733,067	
Other manufactures,.....	1,503,538	
		<u>\$7,102,983</u>
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,334,328
		<u>\$4,768,655</u>
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		790,398
Printing, &c., estimated,.....		56,250
		<u>\$5,615,303</u>
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....		1,505,380
IV. The Forest,.....		1,877,663
V. Fisheries,.....		1,280,713
VI. Mines,.....		327,376
Total,.....		<u>\$26,462,705</u>

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	43,892	\$2,194,600
Neat cattle,.....	275,562	4,133,430
Sheep,.....	649,264	973,896
Hogs,.....	121,671	365,013
25 per cent of.....		<u>\$7,666,939</u>
is.....		\$1,916,735
Poultry,.....		107,092
		<u>\$2,023,827</u>

Wheat,.....bush.	422,124	\$527,655	
Oats,.....	454,699	160,134	
Maize,.....	1,162,572	796,926	
Other grain,.....	379,880	284,910	
Potatoes,.....	6,206,606	1,241,321	
		<hr/>	\$3,010,946
Sugar,.....lbs.	2,162,368	129,742	
Products of dairy,.....		1,638,543	
" orchards,.....		239,979	
Wool,.....lbs.	1,260,517	441,181	
Hay,.....tons	406,107	3,248,856	
Other products,.....		644,678	
		<hr/>	6,342,979
			<u>\$11,377,752</u>

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals, &c.,.....	\$379,898		
Woollen,.....	795,784		
Cotton, &c.,.....	4,290,078		
Hats,.....	190,526		
Leather,.....	712,151		
Paper,.....	152,700		
Carriages,.....	232,240		
Houses,.....	470,715		
Ships,.....	78,000		
Other manufactures,.....	1,235,860		
		<hr/>	\$8,437,952
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,812,651	
			\$5,625,301
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		790,398	
Printing, &c.,.....		130,112	
		<hr/>	\$6,545,811

III. <i>Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....</i>			1,001,533
IV. <i>The Forest,.....</i>			449,861
V. <i>Fisheries,.....</i>			92,811
VI. <i>Mines,.....</i>			88,373
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$19,556,141

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN VERMONT.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	62,402	\$3,120,100	
Neat cattle,.....	384,341	5,764,113	
Sheep,.....	1,681,819	2,522,728	
Hogs,.....	203,800	611,400	
		<hr/>	\$12,018,331
25 per cent of.....			\$3,006,110
is.....			131,578
Poultry,.....			<hr/>
			\$3,137,688
Wheat,.....bush.	495,800	\$619,750	
Oats,.....	2,222,584	888,904	
Maize,.....	1,119,678	746,652	
Other grain,.....	514,190	371,940	
Potatoes,.....	8,869,751	1,773,950	
		<hr/>	4,401,196
Sugar,.....lbs.	4,647,934	278,866	
Wool,.....	3,669,035	1,284,232	
Products of dairy,.....		2,008,737	
" orchards,.....		213,934	
Hay,.....tons	836,739	5,857,173	
Other products,.....		697,319	
		<hr/>	10,340,271
			<u>\$17,879,155</u>

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$161,374	
Woollen,.....	1,331,953	
Cotton, &c.,.....	268,430	
Leather,.....	361,468	
Paper,.....	214,720	
Carriages,.....	102,097	
Houses,.....	344,896	
Ships,.....	72,000	
Other manufactures,.....	5,098,653	
		\$7,955,591
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,651,897
		\$5,303,694
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		270,781
Printing, &c.,.....		110,950

\$5,685,425

III. *Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....*

758,899

IV. *The Forest,.....*

430,224

V. *Mines,.....*

389,488

\$25,143,191

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	61,484	\$3,074,200	
Neat cattle,.....	282,574	5,086,332	
Sheep,.....	378,226	567,339	
Hogs,.....	146,221	572,884	
25 per cent of.....		\$9,300,755	
is.....		\$2,325,189	
Poultry,.....		178,157	
			\$2,503,346
Wheat,.....bush.	157,923	\$197,404	
Oats,.....	1,319,680	527,872	
Maize,.....	1,809,192	1,356,894	
Other grain,.....	788,333	591,238	
Potatoes,.....	5,385,652	1,346,413	
			4,019,821
Wool,.....lbs.	941,906	329,677	
Products of dairy,.....		2,273,299	
“ orchards,.....		389,177	
Hay,.....tons	569,395	5,124,555	
Other products,.....		1,425,142	

9,542,450

\$16,065,627

II. *Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....*

7,004,691

III. *Fisheries,.....*

6,483,996

IV. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$4,717,919	
Woollen,.....	7,082,808	
Cotton, &c.,.....	17,823,637	
Hats, &c.,.....	918,436	
Straw bonnets,.....	821,646	
Leather,.....	10,553,826	
Paper,.....	1,716,630	
Cordage,.....	852,200	
Carriages,.....	803,999	
Furniture,.....	1,090,008	
Houses,.....	2,767,134	
Ships,.....	1,349,994	

Other manufactures,.....	\$13,305,878		
		\$63,903,617	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		21,301,206	
		<hr/>	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		\$42,602,411	
Printing, &c.,.....		442,796	
		472,850	
		<hr/>	\$43,518,057
V. Mines,.....			2,020,572
VI. The Forest,.....			377,354
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$75,470,297

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN RHODE ISLAND.

I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	8,024	\$401,200	
Neat cattle,.....	36,891	664,038	
Sheep,.....	90,146	180,292	
Hogs,.....	30,659	122,636	
		<hr/>	
25 per cent of.....		\$1,368,166	
is.....		\$342,041	
Poultry,.....		61,702	
		<hr/>	\$403,743
Wheat,.....bush.	3,098	\$3,875	
Oats,.....	171,517	60,030	
Maize,.....	450,498	281,561	
Other grain,.....	103,990	77,003	
Potatoes,.....	917,973	227,994	
		<hr/>	650,463
Wool,.....lbs.	183,830	\$65,340	
Products of dairy,.....		223,229	
Hay,.....tons	63,449	571,041	
Other products,.....		285,493	
		<hr/>	1,145,103
			\$2,199,309
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$1,006,870		
Woollen,.....	842,172		
Cotton, &c.,.....	7,564,851		
Hats and bonnets,.....	178,571		
Leather,.....	182,110		
Houses,.....	379,010		
Other manufactures,.....	2,689,385		
		<hr/>	\$12,842,969
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		4,280,989	
		<hr/>	\$8,561,980
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		20,921	
Printing, &c.....		57,725	
		<hr/>	\$8,640,626
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....			1,294,956
IV. Fisheries,.....			659,312
V. Mines,.....			162,410
VI. The Forest,.....			44,610
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$13,001,223

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN CONNECTICUT.

I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	36,650	\$1,732,500	
Neat cattle,.....	238,650	4,145,700	

Our Railways.

Sheep,	No.	\$403,462	\$806,924	
Hogs,		131,961	527,844	
25 per cent of.....			\$7,211,968	
is.....			\$1,802,992	
Poultry,.....			176,629	\$1,979,621
Wheat,.....	bush.	87,009	\$108,761	
Oats,		453,262	164,969	
Rye,.....		737,424	555,568	
Maize,.....		1,500,441	900,264	
Other grain.....		336,802	252,598	
Potatoes,.....		3,414,238	854,559	2,836,719
Wool,.....	lbs.	889,870	\$311,434	
Products of dairy,.....			1,376,534	
“ orchards,.....			296,232	
Hay,.....	tons	426,704	3,840,336	
Other products,.....			730,900	6,555,436
				\$11,371,776
II. Manufactures.				
Metals and machinery,.....		\$3,559,029		
Woollen,		2,494,313		
Cotton, &c.,.....		3,302,059		
Hats and bonnets,.....		886,310		
Leather,.....		2,017,931		
Paper,		541,300		
Carriages,.....		929,301		
Ships,.....		428,900		
Houses,		1,086,295		
Other manufactures,.....		3,416,983		
			\$18,662,425	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....			6,220,808	
			\$12,441,617	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....			135,877	
Printing, &c.,.....			201,469	\$12,778,963
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....				1,963,281
IV. Fisheries,.....				907,723
V. Mines, &c.,.....				820,419
VI. The Forest,.....				181,575
Total,.....				\$28,023,737

NOTE.—We are compelled to omit in this place the value of the products of the other states of the Union. They will be given in a subsequent number of this Magazine.—
EDITOR.

ART. III.—OUR RAILWAYS.

IF it be admitted that the commercial interests of the country are materially benefited by the railways now in operation, an examination into the means by which an extension of these advantages may be secured, cannot be without interest to the readers of the Merchants' Magazine. Especially is this investigation important, when we bear in mind that all the successful railways in the United States have been executed by private enterprise, the capital having been, in a great degree, furnished by the

mercantile community. It must also be obvious, to every intelligent observer, that all future undertakings of this kind must be carried through by individual energy and private capital exclusively.

Quite as important, however, as examining new projects—which may promise success, and which are called for by the increasing wants and more advanced state of the country—is it, to discuss the reasons why the merchants and manufacturers of New England and New York, and more particularly the farmers of western New York, derive so small a portion of the benefits which the railways now in operation are capable of conferring, to the advantage of all parties.

To this, but one answer can be given—the law of New York, which denies “in toto” the right of the citizen of this or of any other state to transport freight between Albany and Buffalo by railway. In other parts of the state, as on Long Island, in Rockland, Orange, Columbia, Tompkins, and other counties traversed by railways, the people are as free to use any mode of transportation they please, as are the citizens of London, Boston, or Philadelphia; but, during the five months the Erie canal is closed, merchandise or agricultural produce must be carried in wagons or sleighs, actually in sight of the railway, as during the past winter, or kept till May or June, and then sent down simultaneously with the produce of the western states—thus at once glutting a market which has been bare all winter, and completely neutralizing the advantages which the New York farmer ought to derive from his proximity to the seaboard, and actually using the large sums he has contributed to—as he is informed—“improvements,” as an excuse for depriving him of the vast benefits brought to his door by railways, of which he is not allowed to avail himself.

It is quite unnecessary to point out, that what cripples the farmer, cannot eventually be otherwise than injurious to the merchant. The sudden falling off in the receipts of the Western railroad, on the closing of the Erie canal, from \$14,000 to \$7,000 per week, gives some idea of the injury inflicted on the New York farmer, on the manufacturing population on the line of the railway, and, lastly, on that great work itself, by the withering monopoly of the Erie canal. Could western New York be supplied with merchandise by way of Philadelphia, or by any other route, during the five months’ sleep of the canals, this policy, though equally objectionable in principle, would be less injurious in effect; but, to exclude the farmer from market when alone he can leave his farm—to force him to lay in five months’ stores in the autumn, and to virtually prohibit him from sending to market many minor products from day to day, is literally “a wind that blows nobody good,” unless, indeed, the increase of officeholders be included in that category.

That the friends of the Erie canal know, or at least believe, that the railways alongside would, by giving superior facilities to the public, diminish the revenue of the Erie canal, is proved by the pertinacity with which they refuse to entertain the idea of permitting the railways to compete with the Erie canal, on any terms, even during winter. To perpetuate this “peculiar institution” of the north, the canal is to be enlarged—direct taxation, on the farmers of New York, to prevent a slight increase of the present moderate tolls on the produce of the western states, completing this patriotic policy. It is only by bringing prominently before the public the true state of the case, that the people of New York and New England can expect to be relieved from their present disability

of using railways for the transportation of freight to and from the West.

It was remarked, in the commencement of this paper, that private capital must hereafter be depended on exclusively. This assertion is based on the present condition of state works. Pennsylvania is endeavoring to sell out her "main line" from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, her only valuable public work—Illinois is trying to dispose of her canal; and both states will probably succeed. The canals of Ohio have been, and must continue to be, supported by taxation. In Indiana and Michigan, the interest "goes over;" and the people of New York are paying \$600,000 per annum to prevent a slight increase of tolls on the produce of those directly benefited by the Erie canal—the said tax being paid, in a great measure, by those who have no interest in that work, and by not a few whose property is injured by it; as the inhabitants of the river counties, Long Island, &c. In all these states, the people begin to comprehend the ruinous effects of entrusting the expenditure of millions on public works to a set of politicians; and it is hard to believe that another canal or railway will ever be undertaken by any state of this Union. It is at least doubtful whether any further appropriations can be carried to finish works already commenced.

But if public works are to be constructed exclusively by means of private capital, it is necessary to show that they will yield a fair return for the amount invested. Unless this can be made as clear as the nature of the case admits of, public works should not be undertaken; for they are valuable solely from their usefulness, which again is measured by their income. Of all the railways and canals in use in the Union, four only of the former—two in Pennsylvania, and two in Michigan—are state works; and the canals owned by private companies are not much more numerous. Of all the state works in the Union, the Erie canal alone cannot be pronounced a failure; yet it would be impossible to dispose of it for its cost up to this time, (about \$20,000,000,) not on account of the magnitude of the sum, but because, if thrown on its own resources, in fair and honorable rivalry, its income would not warrant that expenditure. Thus, the income for 1842 was \$1,568,946 56, and the nett revenue about \$1,200,000, with, and to a considerable extent, by means of the state monopoly, which, of course, it could not retain in the hands of a company. But, at its original cost of seven or eight millions, it would be readily taken.

Well-projected railways claim the favorable attention of the merchant, because they offer safe and profitable investments, besides aiding commerce, generally, by their unrivalled facilities. They are peculiarly adapted to this country, where the population and business are so scattered, and where capital is not abundant. Unlike canals, the cost of a railway may be adapted to the trade. In most parts of the country, a railway can be put into operation for about \$20,000 per mile, including engines, cars, buildings, &c., for a single track—less than half the average cost of the Chenango, Black River, and Genesee Valley canals, without boats, buildings, horses, &c. Again, a railway carries passengers, as well as freight, and both throughout the year; so that, with less than half the cost of the canal, its receipts are several times greater. It is on this account that canals must be constructed as cheaply as possible, to have any chance of success here. Even in a mineral region—the most favorable of all—their being useless half the year is an insuperable objection; and this

again becomes intolerable when advancing civilization renders a communication, open throughout the year, indispensable to the community. It appears, therefore, that three vital obstacles to the success of canals exist: their enormous cost, (compared with railways) their small income, their being closed nearly half the year in this wintry region. The two last objections are insuperable, and will as effectually deter individuals from embarking their own means in canals as would the first. With politicians, spending the money of the public, the case is reversed. They uniformly prefer those works which require the largest expenditure and the longest time to execute, these two conditions furnishing the best "opportunities." The \$20,000,000 spent in this state, on works which can never be required, affords only too true an illustration; but the course of the Canadian government, for the last two years, distances the wildest visions of the wildest western states, even during the phrenzy of '36.

The railways diverging from Boston in all directions, which have been projected, executed and managed by companies, form the only successful system of public works on this continent, and would command a large advance on their total cost. The Western railway has been, in a great degree, constructed with the funds of the state, and the direction being in part appointed by the stockholders and in part by the state, cannot well be efficient or harmonious. Besides this, it can never become a successful work until the railways of New York can be used for the transportation of freight. Had this work been left to private enterprise, its completion would have been delayed some years; probably until the repeal of the state monopoly, when its success may be considered certain. In place of a decrease, the winter will then show an advance on the receipts of the summer. It is of no use to speculate on which course would have been most advantageous. It is not impossible that the earlier use of the railway may compensate for its great cost and deficiencies during the first years. The Boston railways deserve peculiar attention from the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, because they have been constructed by the inhabitants of a commercial city to aid and extend its trade, foreign as well as domestic. Their success is as complete as is the failure of most of the works in which, unfortunately for themselves as well as for the cause of railways, so many of the merchants of New York have, at different times, taken stock. The results, in both cases, teach the same lesson: that the objects to be attained by the construction of any work, and the cost at which those objects can be secured, should be as carefully weighed and maturely considered as any undertaking of equal magnitude, in ordinary business, would be by merchants of the first class for capital and character. The Eastern, Lowell, Worcester, Providence, New Bedford railways and their branches, have succeeded because the expenditure was adapted to the probable income. The Stonington, Long Island, Harlem, Mohawk and Hudson railways are unsuccessful works, because the expenditure was not adapted to the probable income. The Boston railways were viewed as permanent investments, conducing alike to the advantage of the capitalist and of the community. The other railways, enumerated above, were regarded as mere speculations by stockjobbing, as were State works by political gamblers; both equally indifferent to the judgment with which the works were projected, and to the skill with which they were conducted. A more efficient course to injure the cause of railways and to retard the progress of the country, as far as it is affected by these works, could not have been devised.

When the public mind is turned in one direction, it is hard to divert it, be the reasons ever so cogent; and public works must remain in their present lethargic state, until they are regarded by men of property and intelligence as safe and permanent investments. This, again, can never be the case until such men give the subject their serious attention; the more cautious their examinations of cost and income, the better for the cause as well as for their own interests. The worthlessness of bank stock as an investment, its very trifling ultimate security, the downward tendency of "lots" since the fortunate discovery, during the last few years, that much land remained yet unoccupied in this country, together with the general failure of all undertakings not based on honesty and industry, must gradually work a radical change in the manner in which railways will, in future, be undertaken. Before many years elapse, they must be regarded throughout the Union as favorably as they have long been in Massachusetts and in England.

It is not the object of these remarks to advocate any particular railway or system of railways, but it is rather an attempt to draw the attention of merchants to the subject of internal communication generally; more especially by railways, as well as to the vast advantages they would derive from being permitted to regulate the mode and time of transporting their own commodities to and from the west, according to their own ideas of their own interests—in other words, if the state government would only "let them alone."

W. R. C.

ART. IV. INLAND NAVIGATION OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,

WITH A SHORT ACCOUNT OF ITS ORIGIN, AND OF THE TRADE AND TONNAGE OF THE ERIE CANAL,

THE first idea of perfecting, by canals and locks, a continuous water communication between the Hudson river and Lake Erie, cannot be traced to any source in particular. It originated with the prolific mother of invention—Necessity.

The first surveyor who explored the forest between the tributaries of the Hudson and the lakes, may have entertained the idea, and have had some crude notion of how the thing was to be done. The earliest navigation of the Mohawk and Oswego rivers led to an examination of the practicability of substituting water communication for land carriage, at the different portages on those rivers; and a belief in the practicability of the interior, or present route of the Erie canal was, probably, entertained as soon as it was known that there were no mountains to intercept its course.

As early as 1768, Sir Henry Moore, governor of the colony of New York, directed the attention of the general assembly to the "great inconvenience and delay, attending the transportation of goods at the carrying places on the Mohawk river, between Schenectady and Fort Stanwix," and remarked "that it was obvious to all conversant in matters of this kind, that the difficulty could easily be removed by sluices, upon the plan of those in the great canal of Languedoc, in France."

The Languedoc canal was begun in 1666 and finished in 1681, and was furnished with both locks and sluices.

In 1784 a committee of the assembly reported, "that the laudable proposals of Mr. Colles, for removing obstructions in the Mohawk river, so that boats of burthen may pass the same, merit encouragement." In 1791 an act was passed "concerning roads and inland navigation, and for other purposes."

In 1792, nine years after the close of the Revolutionary war, the Western and Northern Inland Dock Navigation companies were incorporated. The Northern company soon expired; but the Western company completed a water communication from Schenectady to the falls of the Oswego river, and boats of burthen were passed to within twelve miles of Oswego. At Oswego falls there was a portage of a mile, and the navigation was resumed by a smaller class of boats at the foot of the falls to Lake Ontario.

The works of the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company, principally consisted of a series of locks and a canal, at the falls of the Mohawk at Little Falls, a canal, with locks, at Fort Stanwix, from the Mohawk river to Wood creek, (a tributary of Oneida lake and the Oswego river,) and a series of locks and dams on Wood creek.

The company were in the receipt of tolls as early as 1796, and were extending their works for the improvement of the navigation down to 1812, at which time it had expended \$450,000. The state became a shareholder in 1795, and subsequently increased its interest to \$92,000.

A boat leaving Schenectady followed the course of the Mohawk river to Fort Stanwix, and passing by the canal at that place into Wood creek and Oneida lake, entered the Oswego river eleven miles south of the falls, and twenty-three miles from Oswego. There was but one portage in the whole distance (at Oswego falls) between Schenectady and Lake Ontario. To the honor of this, the pioneer of our inland navigation, it should be remembered that it opened a navigation of about one hundred and eighty miles, without ever receiving any pecuniary advantage from the outlay, and that most of the shareholders undertook the enterprise more from patriotic than pecuniary motives. However imperfect the navigation, as compared with that of the Erie canal, which superseded it, its influence upon the prosperity, the early and rapid settlement of western New York, is incalculable.

In 1798 the Niagara Canal Company was incorporated for "Opening the navigation between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario." The Niagara company completed no work of importance, and the navigation was first opened in 1828 by the Oswego and Erie canals.

In 1808 the legislature passed a law directing "An accurate survey of the rivers, streams and waters, in the usual route of communication between the Hudson river and Lake Erie." Not without a decided opposition, and an unsuccessful effort for postponement of a year.

James Geddes received the appointment of engineer, and to him the honor is due of first demonstrating the practicability of the Erie canal. Mr. Geddes entered with enthusiasm upon the discharge of his duties, and in spite of the insignificant appropriation of six hundred dollars to defray expenses, accomplished an exploration, during the year 1808, which left no doubt as to the practicability of a canal from the Hudson to Lake Erie.

During the year 1817, nine years after Mr. Geddes' survey, the canal was begun; contracts having been made for constructing fifty-eight miles. The law, authorizing the construction of the canal, directed the middle

section, extending from Utica to Seneca river, to be commenced first. The wisdom of the measure may be appreciated when we recollect that one level on this section is sixty-nine miles long, and that upon the whole section there are but nine locks.

It was necessary to the success of the project that the first steps taken should be such as would ensure its early completion, and the mind that suggested the opening of the middle section first displayed no ordinary sagacity.

Two years after, in 1819, seventy-five miles of the middle section were completed, at a cost so small as to remove any doubts of the ability of the state to complete the whole canal. The popularity of the canal was also fully established, and in subsequent elections the popular vote sustained the policy.

The completion of other sections of the canal rapidly followed, and, in 1820, the middle section, ninety-six miles, was finished; in 1822 two hundred and twenty miles of canal were completed; in 1823, two hundred and eighty miles, and with the close of the year 1825, the whole, or three hundred and sixty-three miles. The Champlain canal, begun at the same time, was completed with the year 1823.

To the lovers of coincidence, it may be interesting to know that the number nine was not without its mystic influence upon the destinies of our inland navigation; that nine years after the Revolution the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company was incorporated; that from 1808 to 1817, nine years, legislative wisdom labored with the idea of the Erie canal; and that from 1817 to 1825, both inclusive, a period of nine years, the labor of constructing the canal was accomplished.

The state has completed, up to the present year, an aggregate length of canals, navigable feeders and slackwater navigation, of seven hundred and twenty-eight miles. The Erie canal is the main artery to which all other canals, owned by the state, are tributary, except the Champlain canal.

The following canals are owned by the state, and are navigable. The length of each includes side cuts and navigable feeders:—

Name of Canal.	Length in miles.	Cost.	Average cost, per mile.	Average cost per mile, per year, of repairs, from 1826 to 1843.	Date of com- pletion.
Erie,.....	371	\$7,143,789 86	\$19,225 49	\$636 00	1825
Champlain,*.....	79	1,257,604 26	15,520 95	1,012 00	1824
Oswego,.....	38	565,437 35	14,879 93	678 87	1828
Seneca & Cayuga,	23	236,804 74	10,295 85	664 65	1828
Chemung,†.....	39	331,693 57	8,504 96	490 05	1833
Crooked Lake,...	8	156,796 90	19,597 11	650 48	1834
Chenango,.....	97	2,270,605 22	22,377 37	184 39	1837
Oneida Lake,....	6	50,000 00	8,333 33	581 10	1840
Genesee Valley,.	52	1,401,791 90	26,957 53	252 65	1840
	713	\$13,414,523 43	\$18,814 29	\$572 24	

The annual expenditure for repairs has no small influence upon the profits of canal investments. The above table exhibits the curious fact,

* Locks have been rebuilt on the feeder to this canal by contract, and are not included in the above.

† All the locks are being rebuilt by contract, at a cost of about the original sum expended in building the whole canal.

that the amount of business on a canal has no influence upon the cost of repairs. The Erie and Champlain canals were put in operation about the same time, and the business on the Erie canal has reached a point not far below its maximum capacity; while the business on the Champlain canal is, and always has been, quite limited. The annual repairs upon the former canal have cost, per mile, about 60 per cent less than those of the latter. That this is not accidental, is evident by the cost of repairs, per mile, on the lateral canals which have been longest in operation.

An examination of the statistics of the state and city of New York, will show that the completion of the Erie canal is an epoch from which they date a prosperity without precedent in their commercial history, or parallel in that of any other state or country. Although the increase of population, from 1790 to 1810, was rapid beyond all former example, it was not accompanied by a corresponding increase of wealth; and western New York, though rich in the produce of a fertile soil, was poor in every thing else. The last war with England, by causing a demand for produce on the frontier, enabled the western farmer to realize in money, and reduce or extinguish his debt at the land office; but, with the close of the war, the demand ceased, and his condition was, probably, not unlike that of the Illinois farmer at the present time.

The blast of war which blew in Europe for nearly a quarter of a century, was a profitable blast for the commercial interests of the city; but the profits of the carrying trade could not have added much to the wealth of the city, if the valuation of property in 1812 is at all accurate. The population of the city at that time was about ninety-six thousand, and the comptroller's valuation of real and personal estate was \$26,245,040.

From the opening of the Erie and Champlain canals to the present time, the interior trade has steadily increased, and it now employs an aggregate tonnage larger than that of all the foreign and domestic shipping entering and departing from the city of New York. The aggregate value of property ascending and descending the state canals alone, is about equal in value to the imports at the port of New York.

The following table of the population and prosperity of the state and city of New York, for the last fifty years, exhibits the rapid increase of wealth which followed the opening of inland navigation in this state:—

Years.	Population of the state.	Population of the city.	Real and personal estate of the state.	Real and personal estate of the city.
1790.....	340,120	33,131
1800.....	586,050	60,489
1810.....	959,049	96,273
1814.....	95,519	\$281,838,057	\$77,398,243
1816.....	1,043,236	95,519	82,074,200
1817.....	323,406,505	78,895,735
1818.....	314,913,695	80,154,091
1819.....	281,018,280	79,113,065
1820.....	1,372,812	123,706	256,021,494	69,530,753
1821.....	241,983,232	68,285,070
1822.....	245,626,878	71,289,144
1823.....	275,742,636	70,940,820
1824.....	274,481,560	83,075,676
1825.....	1,616,458	166,086	314,787,970	101,160,046
1830.....	1,919,404	203,007	364,715,830	125,288,518
1835.....	2,174,517	270,089	514,329,941	218,723,703
1840.....	2,429,476	312,932	641,359,818	252,135,515

From the commencement of the Erie canal, in 1817, to its completion in 1825, nine years, the increase of population in the city of New York was 74 per cent, but the valuation of real and personal estate was only a million more in 1824 than it was in 1816.

The increase of population in the first five years subsequent to the completion of the Erie canal was 22 per cent, and of real and personal estate 24 per cent. The increase of population in the fifteen years immediately preceding the completion of the canal was 72 per cent.

Increase of population in fifteen years after the completion of the canal, or from 1825 to 1840, 88 per cent, and of property 149 per cent. The above comparisons are no less remarkable as applied to the population and property of the whole state.

The opening of the Erie canal has advanced the commerce of the upper lakes from comparative insignificance to the foremost rank. Prior to 1818, there were no steamboats on the upper lakes, and the aggregate of American tonnage was 2,068 tons. The tonnage owned on the Canada side was inconsiderable.

From 1817 to 1825, there were but three steamboats launched upon the upper lakes. The aggregate tonnage in 1825, including steamboats, was about 2,500 tons. In 1840, the aggregate tonnage of steamboats alone exceeded 17,000 tons; and of other craft there was about 18,000 tons. There are about sixty steamboats now employed on the upper lakes, and the number of other vessels is two hundred and twenty-five.

The increase in inland navigation is shown by the following table of the amount of tolls collected at the eastern and western termini of the Erie canal:—

Years.	Tolls collected at Buffalo and Black Rock.	Tolls collected at Albany and West Troy.	Years.	Tolls collected at Buffalo and Black Rock.	Tolls collected at Albany and West Troy.
1829,.....	\$25,957 38	\$246,703 15	1836,.....	\$158,085 05	\$549,574 95
1830,.....	48,958 64	336,816 28	1837,.....	128,024 09	408,481 43
1831,.....	66,409 19	438,901 92	1838,.....	202,410 66	539,586 33
1832,.....	58,232 09	396,965 60	1839,.....	254,961 52	510,129 93
1833,.....	73,812 79	495,760 29	1840,.....	375,581 74	445,324 36
1834,.....	91,203 44	377,781 44	1841,.....	432,622 58	564,363 72
1835,.....	106,213 35	511,073 62	1842,.....	410,215 65	419,801 97

It will be seen that the tolls collected at the western terminus of the Erie canal have steadily increased in amount, with two exceptions only; and that, at the eastern terminus of all the state canals, there are seven exceptions in the same time, or in fourteen years. As early as 1833, the tolls collected at the Hudson river had nearly reached half a million; and down to 1842 they had not reached, in any year, \$600,000. The tolls at the western terminus have increased \$336,403 in the same time; and, for 1842, nearly equal in amount those collected at the Hudson river.

Further evidence of the increase of the western trade is furnished by the following table of the number of tons, and estimated value of property shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock, and at Albany and West Troy, and passing on the Erie canal:—

Years.	Shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock.		Years.	Shipped at Albany and West Troy.	
	Tons.	Value.		Tons.	Value.
1837,.....	73,194	\$3,304,771	1837,.....	172,692	\$25,784,147
1838,.....	104,400	4,870,459	1838,.....	187,434	33,062,858
1839,.....	156,164	5,222,756	1839,.....	200,544	40,094,302
1840,.....	177,607	6,200,286	1840,.....	161,211	36,398,039
1841,.....	248,471	9,706,024	1841,.....	194,446	56,798,447
1842,.....	225,173	7,541,793	1842,.....	141,836	32,314,998

The same steady increase in tonnage, as in tolls, at the western terminus, and like fluctuation in tonnage, as in tolls, at the eastern terminus, is shown by the table. If any further evidence were wanting to show that the trade of the upper lakes is rapidly furnishing a tonnage that will not only pay the expense of repairs of the Erie canal, (as it does at present,) but will also pay the interest upon its cost, the following tables will furnish it:—

Property arriving at Buffalo from other states, and shipped on the canal.		Merchandise and furniture arriving at Buffalo by canal, and shipped to other states.	
Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1835.....	22,124	1835.....	23,140
1836.....	36,273	1836.....	35,809
1837.....	42,229	1837.....	27,567
1838.....	68,187	1838.....	35,587
1839.....	90,723	1839.....	31,887
1840.....	125,539	1840.....	20,463
1841.....	179,537	1841.....	26,598
1842.....	179,437	1842.....	22,897

The tonnage from other states, and shipped at the western terminus of the canal, exceeds the tonnage at the eastern terminus, which passed upon the Erie canal, by 37,601 tons.

Tonnage, and estimated value of property arriving at the Hudson river by all the state canals.			Aggregate tonnage on all of the state canals, ascending and descending, and its estimated value.		
Years.	Tons.	Value.	Years.	Tons.	Value.
1834.....	553,596	\$13,405,022	1834.....	668,433
1835.....	753,191	20,525,446	1835.....	882,801
1836.....	696,347	26,932,470	1836.....	1,310,807	\$67,634,343
1837.....	611,781	21,822,354	1837.....	1,171,296	55,809,288
1838.....	640,481	23,038,510	1838.....	1,333,011	65,746,559
1839.....	602,128	20,163,199	1839.....	1,435,713	73,399,764
1840.....	669,012	23,213,573	1840.....	1,416,046	66,303,892
1841.....	774,334	27,225,322	1841.....	1,521,661	92,202,929
1842.....	666,626	22,751,013	1842.....	1,236,931	60,016,608

The value of imports at the port of New York, in 1840, was \$60,440,750; and of exports, \$34,264,080. Aggregate value of exports and imports by foreign and American vessels, \$94,704,830; exceeding, by two and a half millions, the value of property moved on the state canals in 1842.

It will be seen that the aggregate tonnage arriving at the Hudson river by canal, and the aggregate ascending and descending tonnage, has been nearly stationary for the last seven years; and that the tonnage from the upper lakes, passing on the canal, is five times greater than it was seven years since—the decrease in the tonnage of the state being about equal to the increase of tonnage from other states.

It is from the western states bordering the lakes, that we are to receive any material addition to the tonnage of the canals; and unless it arrives from that quarter, the business of our canals will not yield a much larger income than it does at present.

The following table indicates the states from which we are to draw our most profitable trade:—

Merchandise and furniture which passed on the Erie canal to other states bordering the upper lakes.					
	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Pennsylvania.....tons	1,205	1,471	1,067	855	567
Ohio....."	16,283	15,123	10,116	14,674	10,657
Indiana....."	1,701	2,352	789	1,116	827
Michigan....."	11,973	7,432	4,616	5,714	5,533
Illinois....."	3,943	3,926	2,599	2,417	2,919
Wisconsin....."	42	792	816	1,190	1,985
Upper Canada....."	26	79	40	78

The state of Ohio completed the Ohio canal in 1833. Since then, she has completed canals, which make the aggregate length of her artificial navigation 785 miles.

The navigation is now open from Lake Erie to the Wabash river, in the state of Indiana.

The Illinois canal, (next in importance to the interest of the state of New York, to the Ohio canal,) has been suspended, although more than half completed.

The trade with Wisconsin is rapidly increasing; and the canal which will, at some future day, connect the Wisconsin river with Green Bay, will convey the produce of that territory to the upper lakes.

The British government, by the enlargement of some, and the construction of other canals, which will pass vessels carrying a burthen of three hundred tons from the Atlantic to the upper lakes, are furnishing a practical solution to a problem of no small importance to the city of New York. After the completion of the Canadian canals, if it shall be found profitable for British vessels to trade directly with the states bordering the lakes, New England vessels will likewise make it profitable; and the greatest manufacturers of either continent may drive a keener trade, and more active competition, than has ever before been witnessed, without our being able to share in the profits, by doing the carrying trade.

We may anathematize the frozen passage of the St. Lawrence; but if it shall be found, after a series of years, that commercial adventure nets a clear gain, the dangers of the navigation will not be heeded, and the loss of human life disregarded. In five years after the completion of the Canadian canals, or by 1850, the question will be fully examined and settled. If it shall turn out that the trade of the lake states, (states that can sustain a denser population than any others,) can be more advantageously done by the St. Lawrence, if the expectations of the British government are realized, there will then be no necessity for enlarging the Erie canal, and we shall have to content ourselves with the residuum of a trade which we now have entire.

H. S. D.

ART. V.—COMMERCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

THE valley of the Mississippi, embracing that broad and fertile tract of alluvial soil lying between the Alleghany and the Rocky mountains, and including the territorial areas of the most prominent states of the west, possesses, in the Mississippi river, a commercial outlet magnificent in its features, and in all respects proportioned to the grandeur of the extensive region that it waters. Taking its rise from the rice lakes of the remote north, and receiving important tributaries which interlock their channels far through the interior, it supplies a most important track of navigation to the increasing trade and commerce of Louisiana and Arkansas, Mississippi and Tennessee, as well as the more northern states of Illinois and Indiana, Kentucky and Ohio, and the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin—a section of the republic which may already be regarded as the agricultural storehouse of our country. Coursing a distance of three thousand miles, it traverses a cold, as well as a tropical climate; the land of enduring snows, and the ranging-ground of the remote savage and the

fur-trader; the land of the wheat and the rice-field, the cotton and the sugar plantation; the solitary wilderness, and the opulent mart; supplying the main bulk of the trade to an important emporium of the west—the city of New Orleans. It is our design to devote the present paper to a brief sketch of the commerce of this most striking artery of our inland navigation.

In the first place, we would allude to a fact which has long been a formidable obstacle to the safe navigation of the Mississippi, as well as the cause of much individual hazard, and the sacrifice of numerous lives and a considerable amount of property. It is perhaps well known that the bed and banks of the Mississippi and Missouri are, for the most part, composed of alluvial deposits of sand, the latter of which are covered with large trees. When, as is often the case, the current of the stream rises, the banks not unfrequently fall, and these trees are carried off by the stream. The sand and earthy substance adheres to the root, causing that part to sink, and to leave the tree anchored in the bed of the river. Deposits of sand are thus formed about the roots, and the obstruction thus produced frequently forces the channel in another direction. By the action of the water or the ice, the branches are worn off, leaving a stem which sometimes projects above water, sometimes is submerged a few feet, and sometimes is so deeply buried below the surface as to be entirely concealed from sight. These obstructions, which present themselves with greater or less frequency throughout the greater portion of the bed of the Mississippi, vary in danger according to the position in which they chance to be placed. They are termed “snags;” and, coming into collision with the steamboats at midnight, or during a fog, are the source of no small discomfort to passengers—not unfrequently forcing a hole through the boat, sinking the hull, injuring the cargo, and even destroying lives.

These obstacles most commonly occur in the bends of the rivers, or in those parts where the currents are obstructed by islands or sand bars. Indeed, they present themselves occasionally in such numbers, that the boats are fenced in by these fallen trees, insomuch that a boat-master upon the Missouri was recently obliged to cut his way through them; and they tend to impede the navigation of that river to such an extent as to call for the attention of Congress. With that view, the chamber of commerce of the city of St. Louis have adopted vigorous proceedings in relation to the improvement of the navigation of the Mississippi river and its principal tributaries; and also the St. Louis harbor. A body of statistical facts connected with the commerce of that river, has been compiled, and submitted to the chamber by Mr. A. B. Chambers, demonstrating the amount of the actual commerce now carried on upon that river, and the motives which would call for the aid of the general government to remove the obstructions upon what may now be deemed one of the most important commercial highways of the nation. He who has had occasion to traverse the Mississippi, in one of the numerous steamboats which ply upon that river, may perchance have been cast in contact with one of those numerous snags which beset the stream, causing a degree of confusion, if not a damage, which it is highly desirable might be prevented. The amount of value afloat upon it, at all times during the season of navigation, and the value of the property whose fate would be probably involved in the improvement, naturally calls for some effective aid on the part of the general government. Independently of the carrying trade from the remote inte-

rior, the cotton and sugar plantations, which send their cargoes abroad from the states of Louisiana and Mississippi, Tennessee and Arkansas—the tobacco which is yearly shipped from the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, Mississippi and Illinois—together with the manufactured articles imported and exported from those states, exceeding in value that of its agricultural products, and the importance, as places of shipment, of the numerous ports upon the river—all tend to present additional claims for the aid of Congress.

The removal of those obstructions which have so long impeded the Mississippi navigation, would seem to be a no very difficult object. The most convenient instrument for that purpose is termed a *snag-boat*, which, with its machinery, will usually remove about twenty per day; the cost of working the boat being fifty or seventy dollars, and requiring fifty men; and the expense of construction being from twenty-five to twenty-six thousand dollars. The numerous wrecks of snagged steamboats, which strew that noble river—the fact that freights and persons from nearly half of the Union are afloat continually upon its bosom—that nearly six millions of people, residing in the bordering territory, would be benefited in greater or less degree by the improvement; and that the imports and exports of nine states and two territories, which skirt its banks, must pass along its waters, tend materially to strengthen the claims which have been urged before Congress for the improvement of its navigation. Hundreds of thousands of persons are sailing upon its surface during the season of navigation—property to the amount of millions of dollars are risked upon its waters. The merchants and manufacturers of the east are deeply interested in the subject, because the advance of freights is not less than 10 per cent, in consequence of the difficulties of navigation; and the losses of insurance companies, yearly, amount to no inconsiderable sum. Moreover, not one-tenth part of the land which skirts it has been subdued to cultivation; and the bright prospects of wealth and strength that are continually unfolding, from the developing resources of the soil, are ever adding to the value and importance of the desired improvement as a merely mercantile enterprise, important from the fact that, of the total number of steamboat losses throughout the whole country, the greater proportion occur upon the Mississippi river.

Passing by New Orleans, as well as the smaller intermediate ports, which now constitute valuable depots of trade, and points of shipment for the produce of the interior, we reach the city of St. Louis. That, from its geographical position, is doubtless destined to become one of the most opulent cities in the Mississippi valley; and to this point we shall now direct our special attention. This point, down to the year 1836, was but little more than a trading village; and its rapid advance may be pretty accurately judged from the fact that it now contains a population of about thirty thousand; and, although the first steamboat reached that port during the year 1817, it is not uncommon to notice the arrival and departure of from twenty to thirty boats during a single day. A considerable portion of the trade of the states of Illinois and Missouri, and the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin, center at this point. A vast amount of bricks are manufactured in the city. Lumber is produced in extensive quantities by the operation of nine steam sawmills. There are three mills for planing boards, two white-lead factories, three oilmills, and six merchant flour-mills, that grind annually eighty thousand barrels of flour, besides other

minor manufactures. The measure of its trade may also be judged somewhat from the fact that the whole amount of marine insurances in the city, including boat-hulls and cargoes, and embracing only property at risk upon the rivers, is set down at \$58,021,986; and adding to this the sum of 33½ per cent for property not insured, or insured at other places, we have a total of \$77,362,648.

The leading articles of export from St. Louis and the adjacent country, of which it is the commercial emporium, are lead, tobacco, furs and peltries, hemp, flour, wheat, and other agricultural products, as well as a large amount of horses, mules, hogs, and live cattle of various sorts, which are shipped to the south in flat or keelboats.

We turn our attention first to the article of lead, the greater part of which is received at St. Louis for export from the Galena mines, and that is either consumed in the city, sent to the Ohio, or shipped to New Orleans. The lead mines of Washington, and other southern counties, are, however, below St. Louis; yet the great bulk of this article is most commonly shipped from that port, through the agency of mercantile houses and by boats, to New Orleans. Subjoined is the statistical return of the receipts of lead at St. Louis, from the Galena mines, for three years, ending in 1841:—

1839,.....	pigs	375,000
1840,.....		390,000
1841,.....		425,000

The receipts of lead at New Orleans, for the same period, are as follows:—

1839,.....	pigs	300,000
1840,.....		352,000
1841,.....		423,000

Each pig averages 60 lbs., and accordingly the total amount may be estimated at 29,325,000 lbs., which, at three and a half cents per pound, would make the value of the trade \$1,026,375. It is said that the lead mines in the southern part of Missouri yield only about one-fifth part of the product of the Galena mines; and, according to that estimate, the whole lead trade would scarcely fall short of one million and three hundred thousand dollars—more than a million dollars' worth of which is transported within a few hundred miles of the whole navigable length of the Mississippi.

Another principal item of St. Louis export consists of tobacco. Of the tobacco crop of Missouri, it is stated, by a house engaged in the trade, that the shipments from that port, during the year 1841, did not much vary from nine thousand hogsheads, of which eight thousand five hundred passed through St. Louis, and of the subjoined quality and value; premising, however, that the present crop will range from twelve to fifteen thousand hogsheads.

2,000 hds. strips,.....	worth in Europe	\$175,=	\$350,000
2,500 firsts,.....	“ N. Orleans	120,	300,000
2,500 seconds,.....	“ “	70,	175,000
1,500 X's,.....	“ “	50,	75,000
500 king's and bull's-eye,.....	“ “	25,	12,500
Total,.....			\$912,500

Another peculiarly interesting feature of the commerce of St. Louis, is the circumstance that the trade of the American Fur Company, and that of other independent traders, including the fur trade of nearly all the northern and northwestern Indians within the jurisdiction of the United States, concentrates at that point. The value, to that city, of the trade in cloths, blankets, and other fabrics used in the traffic, exclusive of annuities, the pay of hands, and the outfits for expeditions, boats, &c., has been estimated, by individuals familiar with the trade, as exceeding two hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars. It has been computed that the exportation of furs, buffalo-ropes, and peltries, the proceeds of that trade, which go to the Atlantic cities, independently of the home consumption, and the amount sent to the Ohio and other parts of the west, during the year 1841, was between three hundred and fifty and four hundred thousand dollars; and that the entire fur trade for that year could not fall short of half a million of dollars. This trade includes the furs and skins that were collected by the various Indian tribes from the Mississippi to the Pacific, and from the Columbia to the California. The American Fur Company, it is well known, was originally incorporated with a capital of a million of dollars; and into this, as well as the Messrs. Brent's company upon the Arkansas, have been merged several smaller companies. They employ a number of steam and other boats, and several thousands of men. These boats, at least once a year, ascend the Missouri to the mouth of the Yellowstone, freighted exclusively with supplies for trade in furs with the several Indian tribes between the state line and that river, and also with the tribes extending thence to the Rocky mountains and the Pacific. The furs and peltries thus collected through that extensive tract of territory, as well as those purchased by the Mexicans, traverse a considerable portion of the Mississippi and the interior rivers; but the trade has, as is well known, become diverted to other channels, and has suffered substantial drawbacks in consequence of a want of certainty in the plans upon which it has been prosecuted.

Another important staple of the commerce of St. Louis is that of hemp, which is now, in fact, becoming one of the most valuable products of this section of the country. Not only are there now in existence two large manufactories of bagging and bale rope, but several ropewalks, which produce this article with considerable profit. One thousand four hundred and sixty tons of hemp were exported last year, of which sixteen hundred tons, grown in the state, were shipped to Kentucky, and three hundred and eighty to New Orleans. It is estimated that the crop of 1841 was double that of the preceding year, and that, including the state of Illinois, the farmers of which are beginning to direct their attention to the manufacture of hemp, the total crop during the year 1842 was about ten thousand tons, which, in a raw state, is doubtless worth \$200,000, but, when manufactured, as most of it is, and shipped to the south, would equal double that sum.

Another of the most valuable exports from St. Louis is pork, bacon and lard. The production of pork constitutes, in part, a prominent article of attention of the farmer for the market. Alton, Peoria, and most of the villages upon the upper part of the Mississippi and the Illinois river, export many thousand tons of pork in various states of preparation, as bulk and barrelled pork, bacon and lard. The value of the trade of Illinois, in that article, is estimated at a million and a half of dollars,

the Missouri and the Mississippi affording about an equal quantity, the larger portion of that produced on the upper Mississippi being consumed in the lead mines, by the Indians, and also at the various military posts in this quarter. A part of that which is provided upon the Missouri is consumed by the Indians, the fur companies, and by the army of the United States, stationed upon the frontier. Flour and wheat also form a considerable portion of the export trade of St. Louis and in 1841 one hundred and seventy-four thousand barrels of flour and two hundred and thirty-seven thousand bushels of wheat were shipped from that port, besides a large amount of horses, mules, heads of cattle and hogs, which are sent southward by the flat or keelboats, which may be seen continually plying upon the river. Besides the articles which we have enumerated, the exhaustless fertility of the soil, stretching away in broad expanse upon the banks of the Mississippi, and the easy navigation afforded by that river, will, doubtless, give to the city of St. Louis a control of the southwestern market, and enable her to exchange the vast amount of beef, pork, corn, oats, potatoes, wheat, and the other agricultural products produced in the adjacent region, for eastern merchandize, and while the capacity of the surrounding region is amply sufficient to supply the United States with meat and bread stuffs, its mineral resources, and the coal to manufacture the metals, so largely yielded by the earth, will enable it to furnish to the entire country enough of iron and lead for its entire consumption.

Nor are the imports of this inland city of less importance than its exports. A large amount of goods, of various sorts, required by the population along its shores, was, in 1841, imported from the east, the south, and the Ohio, and estimated at the value of twenty millions of dollars; all traversing the waters of the Mississippi. Some of those articles imported into St. Louis, such as hardware, queens and china ware, German and French goods, linens, wines and liquors, to the amount of several thousands of dollars, were received directly from Europe. Besides, an extensive trade is carried on between that city and Santa Fe, and the states of New Mexico, annually amounting in value to the sum of four hundred thousand dollars. These goods are often purchased here and transported by boats to Independence, upon the Missouri, and thence are carried in wagons across the country. This trade employs from one hundred to one hundred and fifty wagons. No inconsiderable an item to the trade of the place is furnished by the supplies for the United States army, such as arms, clothing, and rations, which amount to nearly a million of dollars, and which it is necessary to transport over the rivers to their destined points. It may be mentioned, as indicating the extent of the commerce of the Mississippi by steam, that, upon this river and its tributaries, four hundred and thirty-seven boats regularly plied during the year 1841, of which one hundred and fifty were employed in the St. Louis trade, and eighty-three steamboats were, in part, owned by citizens of that place; some of them being run from the Ohio to Peoria, upon the Illinois, and to Galena upon the Mississippi, while others are now employed in a direct trade from New Orleans to various points upon the Missouri, making St. Louis a stopping point. It may serve to give some idea of the character of the commerce of the river, to state that the exports from St. Louis to New Orleans by steamboats, keel, or flatboats, either carried direct or sold along the coast, consist of flax-seed, tobacco,

wheat, whiskey, shot, hides, hemp, castor oil, corn, meal, buffalo robes, beeswax, rope, butter, bagging, beans, furs and peltries, green fruit, dried, tallow, bacon, beef, dried corn, flour, lard, lead, oats, potatoes, pork, onions, and live cattle.

But notwithstanding the importance of St. Louis as an inland city, that, from its position, must be the centre of the trade of a wide extent of surrounding territory, we advance by the cities of Vicksburg, Natchez and other minor places, serving as valuable points of shipment for the produce of the interior, and soon reach the commercial emporium at its mouth, the city of New Orleans. Here is the grand entrepot of foreign commerce, and the natural point of export. The mighty stream of products, which are continually pouring down through the Mississippi, finds in New Orleans its grand reservoir, and here also is the depot, whence a considerable portion of the freights imported from abroad are shipped into the interior. Here, also, is the rallying point of commercial enterprise and population, the seat of mingled yet refined manners, opulence and want, splendor and poverty; exhibiting all the characteristics of an Atlantic city in its thronged marts and its tumultuous and crowded streets. Standing upon its levee, one may behold, during the season of navigation, fleets of vessels, either setting sail for foreign ports, or taking in their canvas and running into the docks, laden with freights from Great Britain and France and the most prominent ports of Europe. It is here that the cargoes of cotton and tobacco, sugar and molasses, and other agricultural products, either transported from the interior to the frontier or brought down the river in the puffing low pressure steamer, or the numerous strange water craft which ply upon that stream, are accumulated for export to our northern states or to foreign ports; and it is here that one may find the most thorough representation of the mingled population scattered along the Mississippi valley. We may judge somewhat of the amount of this commerce from the fact, that, besides the four hundred and thirty-seven steamboats which regularly ply upon the river, and that vast train of keel and flatboats that are sent down from the upper ports with produce or live stock from the interior, there were in the month of December, 1842, as we learn from the New Orleans price current of that date, in its port one hundred and twenty-eight ships, forty-six barques, forty-four brigs, and nineteen schooners, either unloading, taking in their cargoes, or awaiting a more auspicious season for future voyages. We conclude this condensed view of the commerce of the Mississippi with an expression of our thanks to the chamber of commerce of the city of St. Louis for their valuable document, to which we are much indebted in the preparation of the present paper; and we trust that this important commercial avenue of the west may receive such aid as its prominence as a national highway would seem to invoke.

ART. VI.—FREE TRADE.

MR. WOODBURY'S VIEWS OF THE TARIFF.

THE views put forth by this gentleman, in his lecture before the New York Free Trade Association, do not, in all respects, coincide with the writer of the present paper. They are tolerant towards a mode of taxation which we deem injurious to trade, and inordinately burdensome to tax-payers. We therefore wish to state our objections to them in due season, since they are views entertained by other leading politicians, and likely to become the policy of the nation, if not strenuously opposed by the people. Whether these leaders regard the revenue from customs as the best, or only as the best at present attainable, is not for us to inquire in these pages; but, leaving constitutional questions out of view, and leaving the real or supposed opinions of the multitude of voters to the guesswork of nominating juntos, we propose to show that the true interests of the world, the country, and the people, require, as the ultimate and fixed policy, a total abandonment of this species of taxation; and that the tardiness of our government, in relation to this reform, is too great, too much indulged by the public, and not without unfavorable effects on the legislation of other nations.

Having replied in a very able manner to the usual arguments against free trade, Mr. Woodbury proceeds to consider how far the necessity of revenue warrants a tax on commerce. He says—"A tariff on imports, not much exceeding the tax levied on other kinds of property by the states or the federal government, does not prevent trade from being equally free with all other kinds of business. Nor is such taxation unjust; for, when equal, it treats all with like favor, and merely makes all pay, as all should, in a just ratio for the ordinary protection of life, liberty, and all kinds of property. The true practical motto, then, where taxation becomes necessary to maintain an economical administration of the government, is, not 'free trade, and no duties,' but 'free trade, and low duties;' the latter being no higher than what is required for revenue alone, and only in due proportion to the tax which is generally imposed on other property in the country under our mixed forms of government. But, while the ordinary rate of taxation on most other property is not, by the states, over five per cent on its value, and often not one, the existing tariff is seldom less than twenty per cent, and in some cases eighty or a hundred."

By this extract, and by the general tenor of this portion of his lecture, it may be seen that he considers *equality* a necessary condition in taxation. We are not prepared to admit this; but we will for the present grant it, and show that it conflicts with the view he attempts to sustain by it. But first, to make the matter clear, we must observe that there is a fallacy in comparing, in the way he does, the tax of one or five per cent, levied by the states, with that of twenty or a hundred, levied by the nation—the one being on capital, the other on revenue. One per cent on the value of a farm or mill, is equal to a fifth or seventh of its rent—equal, at least, to the average duties since 1816. Hence, though it may serve as an argument against the existing tariff, it will not serve as an argument for such low duties as we hope Mr. W. intends to advocate.

But, in levying this tax on domestic products, the states indirectly tax the commodities for which they are exchanged—if, then, duties be after-

wards imposed, the taxation becomes double. If a farmer pays a tax equal to a fifth of all that remains to him after paying the cost of cultivation, he obtains so much less of foreign goods in exchange for his produce—for the foreigner does not pay a higher price for produce in consequence of our taxation; and if, when he brings home the pay for his remaining four-fifths of his nett produce, the government takes a fifth of that, it gets in all thirty-six per cent on the foreign goods, or sixteen more than it receives on domestic. All tariff imposts are an increase of taxes equal before; and they must be lower than is contemplated, by any low-tariff men we know, if they do not conflict with the condition stated by Mr. W., that they shall “*not much* exceed the taxes levied by the states,” &c. Equality, strictly, forbids any duties—it demands “free trade, and *no* duties;” and the moderate *inequality* which Mr. Woodbury seems willing to tolerate, even this will by no means allow the duties necessary to the government. Our design, and the narrow space that can be spared in a journal, will not allow us further to pursue this branch; but we cannot refrain from remarking that, when a statesman builds up a system, it is not advisable for him deliberately to put into it what he believes to be a false principle. If he affirms equality to be right, let him insist on it, and not tolerate a moderate intermixture of a contrary principle. For ourself, we question the necessity of equality, in the sense here implied; but whatever weight it may have, is wholly in favor of free trade, in the strict sense of the term.

Since this argument in favor of duties is shown to rest on a singular oversight of the fact that, without duties, the equality already exists, and would be destroyed by duties, we may notice some arguments against them, not alluded to by Mr. W.; namely, the compound profits on duties, and the increase of price of domestic goods, with profits thereon, all which are paid by consumers, without the least benefit to the government. Merchants of good standing inform us that the profits of importers average 10 per cent on what it costs them to get their goods into their stores; those of jobbers, 15 to 18 per cent; those of retailers, at least 25 per cent, taking the whole country through. On a given article, the importer pays one dollar duty—he sells it to the jobber; the jobber to the retailer; he to the consumer, each charging his profit. Hence, the dollar becomes $\$1 \times 1.10 \times 1.165 \times 1.25 = \1.60 . Thus, it appears that sixty cents on every dollar is paid by the consumer, in consequence of collecting taxes in a way which subjects them to profits. But this is a small fraction of what results from the effects produced by the tariff on domestic goods. Under the present tariff, by the estimate of the chairman of the committee on manufactures, the value of *protected* goods imported annually, is \$45,000,000; of those made at home, \$400,000,000. We suppose that the *protection* is only adequate—only enough to produce fair competition; for the manufacturers are too noble to ask more—the legislators too enlightened to grant more! The average duty is 36 per cent; hence the duty on imports, \$45,000,000, is equal to \$16,200,000. This is all the government receives. Let us now see what the consumers pay. The profits on the duties is \$9,720,000; the increase of price of domestic goods is \$144,000,000; the profits on this investment of price, reckoning only jobbers and retailers, is \$64,800,000—in all, \$213,520,000, paid as the incidental expense of collecting \$16,200,000; besides all the cost of the custom-house, revenue-service, legislation, negotiations, and sometimes

wars, arising from this system. But this is not all; nor is it possible to detect all. The valuation is made in this country, not according to the invoice price, but according to the price of domestic goods of the same quality—hence the duties may be increased far beyond the nominal rate.

Mr. Woodbury, however, is not friendly to an evil so enormous. High duties he condemns. But no tariff can be unattended by the evil of profits upon them; and the tariff of equal duties, which he advocates, cannot fail to raise prices on a large amount of goods. A rate of less than 10, perhaps 15 per cent, will not support the government; and this rate will afford efficient protection to cheap articles—hence, much of the evil will continue, if “*low duties*” be levied. Even if we adopt a tariff from which the principle of protection is rigidly excluded, which taxes only teas, and other articles that we cannot produce, still at least \$18,000,000 will be paid for profits on duties, which will in no respect benefit the government.

We could wish no easier task than to explode the tariff system, if the principle of equality were established—they are utterly incompatible—but we see no very strong grounds for the principle, and are not aware that it is generally deemed of consequence. Indeed, objections of the deepest root lie against it. Not only tariff taxes, but all other taxes that fall on consumers, through commodities that pass through the hands of dealers, are increased by profits—and this principle, as he expounds it, opposes a barrier to a selection of such kinds of property as may be taxed without giving rise to profits. It *assumes* that *property* of all kinds is equally subject to taxation; but it takes no notice of the fact that it bears unequally upon persons, and is not economical.

Besides the violation of sound principles of taxation, and the liberty to exchange with any who possess what we want, this method of taxing trenches on another kind of equality or right, namely, the right to equal privileges; or, rather, to equal exemption from privileges in others to use us for their profit. It has been customary to take a too limited view of the protective, or privilege system—to regard it only as a boon to manufacturers; but it is really a monopoly to capitalists in general. Put the duties low as you will, they still protect if they be indiscriminating; and, though the injury be less as the duties are lower, the principle is still indulged. Money in England lets at 2 to 3 per cent; and sometimes, of late, at 1 per cent—here, it brings 6 or 7. While the difference is so great, the American capitalist dreads a free commerce, that will bring English capital into competition with his own, just as the English landholder dreads the competition of American land, whose price is not a tenth of the annual rent of his own. Abolish restrictions, and the rates of rent and interest in the two countries will approach towards equality; but increase them, and the inequality increases. While the English manufacturer can get money at 2 or 3 per cent, he can manufacture cheaper than the American, who must pay 6 or 7; but if you allow duties, and so produce an arbitrary equality of prices, the scanty capital of this country becomes invested in costly machinery, on which the consumers must pay twice the profit they would pay on English machinery. Whoever in this country owns more than a certain amount of any kind of property, except land, if he is a shrewd and selfish fellow, will pray for high duties. If he cannot get them, he will lower his tone, and pray for moderate duties, *incidentally* protective. If these be denied, he will pray for a horizontal tariff, with duties adequate to a *judicious* administration; and if this be

denied, he will join the middle-ground conservatives, and shout "free trade," "low duties," "equality," &c., &c.; for every shackle on trade increases the demand for his capital, and every effective blow at the restrictions diminishes this demand, by giving to foreigners that work which requires large capital, and paying for it in the products of agriculture, which requires little capital, and would require less, if the lands were not sold, but rented. His policy is to create a demand for capital. To do this, he will divert it into mills; put it to sleep in lands; persuade men to buy land in Iowa, Oregon, or the moon—no matter where, so that this capital is dissipated—but he will never be in favor of free trade. In short, the tax of customs, in this country, is a device to keep up the profits of capital, and to keep down the rent of land. In England, it is worse—it is a device to keep up rents, and to keep down profits and the wages of labor, so that the landholder may obtain fifteen dollars per acre for rent, and with that money hire thirty men for a day, with the implements necessary for them to use. The higher this tax, the worse; but the least fraction of it is an offence to freedom and freemen—and if we, who are our own masters, do not explode it, and show to the world that it is not necessary for protection or for revenue, we shall not confirm the belief that, in a democracy, the men of great genius and great virtue will rule.

Another obvious objection to this tariff system, is the effect it has to keep up restrictions abroad. English papers are constantly quoting our tariff, as a pretext for countervailing duties; and they find enough who believe in reciprocal free trade, but suppose that one-sided free trade will be injurious to the nation that adopts it. We grant that the less the duty, the less is the effect in this way; but a total abolition would be palpable and prompt in removing the scruples of these men, and make them at once join the free trade parties in their respective countries; while the modifications proposed will not satisfy them. Above all, a generous movement on our part would have the unusual, because seldom tried, effect of an appeal to the nobler feelings of men. Indeed, we deem this the only way in which other nations ought to be addressed in the matter. We should do the right thing ourselves, and leave it to the exertions of the liberal-minded, who will in due time control public opinion, to remonstrate with their own oligarchies, and drive them into the right way. When all his neighbors are mean, a weak man becomes like them in practice, though he be unlike them in principle; but if an honorable man come into the neighborhood, the weak one dares to differ from the rest, being excited and emboldened by example, and ashamed to bear an unfavorable contrast. So, if a nation acts nobly, the people of other nations, from admiration and shame, will follow the example, and generally endeavor to indemnify themselves for not having had the honor of beginning the good conduct. As when a drunkard reforms, the temperance people rejoice, knowing that their orations are as nothing to his example, so if this nation sends the tariff to Coventry, a few years hence you may buy tariffs in Coventry cheaper than old clothes in Chatham-street; for cupidity—a weakness that men dare not confess before those who are above it—cannot resist the force of a bold example of generosity, a quality that all men admire, and would be thought to possess. The universality of the apology, "everybody does so," is a good reason for supposing that some notable exception, in any case of this nature, will not be barren. But, were it not likely that such results would soon follow, it is due to communities to

address the nobler portion of them with such arguments and inducements as honorable men can listen to ; and not to tamper with the weakness of human nature, by appealing to the pockets, the fears, and the national prejudices of the meaner sort. All gentlemen in Europe or America will refuse to applaud or countenance the crafty manœuvring of treaty-makers and slow-moving reformers, who are in perpetual dread that they may not get their pennyworth of privileges and meliorations ; and, wrong though it be, they will keep aloof from public affairs while such men and their measures are the only ones before the community, to claim its respect, and its zealous efforts in elections.

If, in the event of our abolishing duties, some nations should not reciprocate, and if, as the protectionists believe, this one-sided freedom of trade should prove of greater disadvantage to us than we ought to bear, there there still would remain this remedy : other nations would gladly obtain a greater share of our trade, and, to do so, would readily reciprocate our freedom, if we proposed, as a condition, to shut our ports entirely against nations that still refused to adopt the principle of freedom. We do not mean that this mode of coercion should be resorted to, unless the disadvantage were considerable, at least some millions per year ; for there is an obligation of morality and honor, to bear some sacrifice for the good of mankind, and to sway other nations by courteous means, not by appeals to their fear or avarice ; but if the conduct, contrary to our belief of England, for example, should long continue to be of the sordid character, presumed by the reciprocal free traders, then the alternative, free trade or no trade, might be offered as an inducement to England to open her ports, and at the same time to France and Germany to open theirs. The latter nations would esteem it an advantage to their manufacturers to get all the custom which England had enjoyed from us ; and, so far as France is concerned, we have reason to believe that there are no weighty obstacles to hinder the acceptance of such a proposition ; nor do we know why Germany and Russia and other nations should not avail themselves of the opportunity. England, alone, has a strong body whose interests are opposed to it, but whose honor, nevertheless, may not unsuccessfully be applied to in favor of a system generally allowed to be unexceptionable, if reciprocal, and in favor of a nation that generously incurs the real or imaginary honor of disadvantage, by being the first to adopt it. The pride and the high sense of honor of the English oligarchs are well known to render them superior to the meaner motives of avarice which operate on the middle classes ; but, if this pride and honor should fail, then the alternative we speak of would be a potent argument ; it would array the capitalists and laborers of England against the landholders, and they would not long retain their political stations, as peers, if they did not give way ; but both this noble appeal to the higher principles, and this last resort, in case higher principles are wanting, are prevented by the weak and partial reform proposed by Mr. Woodbury, the low duty system.

Since we deny this mode of taxation, as a means of the necessary revenue, we are under a sort of obligation to point out a less exceptionable one. This we shall attempt.

There is a tendency in some taxes to distribute themselves so that they will unavoidably fall on consumers, whatever legislation may do to prevent it ; in some other taxes there is no such tendency ; the latter are the fittest, since no profits accumulate upon them, provided there be no oppres-

siveness in singling out the particular kinds of property which yield such taxes, and compelling the owners to part with a portion of the natural revenue thereof. But we so far admit the doctrine of equality that we regard it as unjust to lay such taxes on property that is strictly private. What a man has made, all that results from labor and skill, all that is detached from the earth, is private property; but whatever is an original part of the earth, its soil, its waters, its atmosphere, its mines, fisheries, harbors and pleasant situations, these are the inalienable property of the race; only the revenue of them belongs to the generation at any time living; and no acts of past publics, or oligarchies, can have impaired the right of any generation to the whole of this revenue. If, in times of oppression and ignorance, men have given to the public some consideration or condition, that, forever after, the rents of certain parts of the public estate should fall to them and theirs, saving the part which the public may demand as taxes, this is no ground of right on which to claim a continuance of the alienation, though the feelings of kindness for persons, and of charity for errors, will prompt every honorable mind to indemnify these claimants on the public estate; but while we thus concede the privilege of undiminished revenue to landholders, we claim for the public the whole of whatever increase of rent may accrue—and a great increase will accrue—from a change of taxation, and an emancipation of commerce from its ancient shackles; in this there is no injustice, no unkindness; and as this is a very obvious source of revenue, and one wholly free from the objection of profits, we adduce it as a reply to those middle ground men who make the plea of treasury-want for the continuance of the overburdensome tax of the customs.

Another source of revenue, which, if rightly managed, especially under a commercial system which increases the demand for agricultural produce, will soon become considerable, and ultimately immense, is the public domain. We do not admit the right to sell any part of it; but the rents of it, of course, belong to the public, and may justly be used for current public expenses. The present management is such as to hinder the settlement of new lands; it requires the payment of \$1 25 per acre from men whose capital is so scanty, and whose credit is so limited, that the interest of this sum is worth, to them, not generally less than 20 per cent; hence the price is as burdensome as a rent of 25 cents per acre, and the lands, therefore, will not be cultivated until the price of produce will pay this rent, above all the cost of cultivation. The true natural system is, to allow land to be used as soon as it will barely pay the cost of cultivation, and to demand rent as soon as a surplus remains, after paying the wages of the farmer, and the profits of his stock; this surplus is rent; the farmer cannot fail to obtain it from the consumers; and if the public allows the farmer to keep it, it merely enriches him, but does not in the least cheapen produce, the natural price of which depends solely on the cost of raising it on the poorest or most remote lands, which barely pay for cultivation. Now an abolition of duties would increase imports, and, therefore, exports, chiefly of produce, hence lands would come rapidly into use, but more rapidly if this virtual rent were not demanded; for, let it be observed, this is an *unnatural* rent, a rent on all land, even the poorest and most remote, and such a rent, or rather tax, enhances the price of produce; it is precisely equivalent to an indiscriminate measurement land tax. But if all lands that will now barely pay for cultivation be allowed to be settled, rent free,

the increasing trade will soon increase the demand for produce, roads and canals will be opened, and the farmers' income will soon exceed what is due to their capital and labor; and in this way a natural revenue will grow up, and in time it will be sufficient for the public expenses of the new territories, and for the national government. The low duty system, though it does not wholly prevent this revenue, cannot fail to keep it far below its natural limit; for every tariff impost in some degree checks importation, and the demand for produce to pay for imports.

For the foregoing reasons, we protest against this compromise of the principles of free trade, and hope that all free traders will insist on the full measure of freedom; to be carried into effect as speedily as can be, without too much pressure upon interests that have grown up under the old system. Let it be decreed, as soon as possible, that the duties shall be wholly abolished; but if justice and good will require that they be extinguished gradually, let it be so.

F. B. F.

ART. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE LATE JACOB RIDGWAY.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Herald*, in Philadelphia, has furnished some interesting incidents of the life of the late Jacob Ridgway, of Philadelphia. The writer was personally acquainted with the subject of this notice, and gives a variety of facts derived from Mr. R. personally before his death, and other authentic sources.

It appears that Mr. Ridgway, styled the millionaire, was born near Tuckerton, in the state of New Jersey, seventy-five years ago, of wealthy parents. In Europe, his father would have been regarded as one possessing lordly domain, and altogether worthy a title and rank among their nobles. He wore a title here, among his republican fellow-citizens, of infinitely greater value than all the diadems of Europe—that of an honest, benevolent, and good man—which he never tarnished, but carried with him to his grave, leaving to his descendants each a legacy a prince might be proud of, and all true men know how to value. The object of this sketch left home at an early age, not content with the tranquil enjoyment and ease of competency in rural life, came to Philadelphia, and entered that of a busy, bold, and enterprising merchant. He commenced on a small scale; but by his industry, integrity, economy, and attention to business, he rose rapidly—*Dame Fortune* smiled—he, in common parlance, became a shipping merchant. He visited Europe, to superintend a branch of the house with which he was connected; and soon after, having the confidence of the merchants of our country, was appointed American consul at Antwerp, where he laid the foundation of his great fortune. He shortly after retired from mercantile pursuits, having applied himself so closely as to impair his health—then made the tour of Europe, and returned to his native country with his health but little recruited. He placed himself under the care of two of our most experienced physicians; visited by their directions the Virginia Springs, and other watering-places, to no purpose. He then settled himself in Philadelphia, entered extensively into the improvement of it and the city of Camden, on the opposite

side of the river Delaware, and, in proportion as he improved them, so did his fortune and health increase; and from being the owner, in early life, of a single farm, he acquired possessions and wealth, the extent of which has perhaps never but once been equalled in Pennsylvania, and in all human probability never will be by any one man again. It is in vain, at this time, to attempt to calculate with certainty his wealth; as those to whom it has worthily descended can form, as yet, no proper estimate. Mr. Ridgway was, throughout life, a plain, truth-loving man, who inspired confidence in all with whom he came in contact. His dress and deportment were plain, his manners free from *hauteur*; yet they were such as to command respect from all, and to avoid undue familiarity with any. He was judiciously benevolent; ever found ready to encourage the man of limited means, and send him on the road to fortune. This was particularly manifested in his directorship of the Bank of Pennsylvania, in which he was a large stockholder, always refusing discounts and accommodations to the rich and extensive operators or speculators, preferring the humbler mechanics, tradesmen, and merchants. His conduct in that particular may serve as an index to his business intercourse with the world. Indeed, for the last few years of his life, he had little other than business intercourse. His time was occupied in the employment and payment of a vast number of the humbler portion of our citizens, to whom, and the city of Philadelphia generally, his loss will long be felt; and many a family of respectability, whose fortune has fallen from under them within the last few years, and who were tenants of his, will live to mourn his loss, who knew and felt for them in a way not to be misunderstood. Mr. Ridgway left a son and two daughters; to whom, in equal proportions, after providing in a handsome manner for all closely connected with him in business, including his household servants, he bequeathed his vast fortune. In this last act of this prosperous and good man's life, he showed himself a true man. His children were entitled to the products of his enterprise—they have received it without stint, limit, or condition; and either of them may be considered as wealthy as any citizen of our state. The son of Mr. Ridgway is a true American nobleman—so plain, unassuming, and unpretending in his manners and deportment, that he might well be mistaken for a gentleman of humble fortune. One of his daughters is the wife of Dr. James Rush, a man of science, and high reputation in his profession. He is the son of the celebrated Dr. Rush, late of Philadelphia. Mrs. Rush is well known for her benevolence and extended charities—she is a lady of commanding intellect, and great sprightliness of character; the leader in fashionable life; yet never forgets the poor.

The other daughter of Mr. Ridgway is the widow of Mr. Roach, who was a country gentleman, and has lived for the last few years a country life. She is said to be betrothed to Dr. J. Rhea Barton, a successful and far-famed surgeon. We have thus given a brief history of the life of Mr. Ridgway. Of the leading traits of his character, and kindness to the virtuous poor, the writer speaks from personal observation, and a limited acquaintance for the last few years. But a few weeks before his death, he was in perfect health. He was injured, in walking along the street, by a pair of horses attached to a vehicle running away. He was taken home, and within a week the writer called at his office to inquire after his health, and was surprised to find him sitting in his usual seat, and in fine spirits. He was in a few days after confined to his bed. The

writer attended his funeral. The ex-president of the United States, John Quincy Adams; his secretary of state, Richard Rush; the ex-minister to Russia, the Honorable George M. Dallas; Horace Binney, Charles Chauncey, Josiah Randall, David Paul Brown, and Richard Willing, Esquires, and many other of our most distinguished citizens, were there. The coffin was plain—on the breast was a silver plate, with this inscription:—

JACOB RIDGWAY,
Died April 30, 1843,
In the 75th year of his age.

His remains were conveyed to Laurel-Hill cemetery, and deposited in the family vault.

Requiescat in pace!

ART. VIII.—STORY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE.*

THE learned author of these commentaries has rarely produced a work more likely to be directly useful to persons out of the legal profession, than is the volume before us. It may go at once into the hands of the merchant, the banker, and the broker, for purposes of great practical benefit; while it is, at the same time, of the highest value for the philosophical and well-read commercial lawyer. It treats of the origin and nature, and different kinds and requisites of bills of exchange; the competency and capacity, the rights, duties, and obligations of parties to bills; the consideration and transfer of bills; the presentment of bills for acceptance, the non-acceptance thereof, and proceedings thereon; the presentment for payment and non-payment, and proceedings thereon; and the payment of bills, and other discharges of parties thereto. All these topics, with the laws and usages of the commercial world, are unfolded with great clearness, learning, and lucid arrangement; so that the reader, when he has been through these chapters, finds not only that his actual stock of knowledge is vastly increased, but that his power of comprehending the principles of legal rules and provisions is materially enlarged. But what is to render this work of great value, and indispensable use to commercial persons in this country, is the chapter on "Guaranty of Bills and Letters of Credit." The vast amount of our commerce with foreign countries, carried on by means of these artificial aids, renders a knowledge of the principles by which they are regulated of great importance. The difference between knowing and not knowing the nature of a letter of credit, when one has purchased it—how, and where, and with whom it is an available instrument of credit, known to the usages of commerce, and protected and sanctioned by the law of civilized countries—what rights it gives to the party making advances on the faith of it—the difference between knowing and not knowing some or all of these matters, is, to an intelligent merchant, a thing of no small moment. The last chapter in this work is devoted to inland bills of

* Commentaries on the Law of Bills of Exchange, Foreign and Inland, as administered in England and America; with occasional illustrations from the commercial law of the nations of continental Europe. By Joseph Story, LL.D. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. London: A. Maxwell & Son, &c., &c., &c. pp. 608. 1843.

exchange. We confidently recommend the work to our commercial friends ; and they will find the chief benefit resulting to *them*, in consulting and using it, in comparison with other treatises, will be, that it gives them principles, and rules, and doctrines, instead of abstract statements of particular decisions. It is one of those rare works, in the law, (most of which have been produced in this country,) of which a layman may read the text, and find that he has acquired real knowledge, by being made acquainted with principles ; while the notes are enriched with a various and accurate learning that leaves the critical and studious lawyer nothing to desire, and in which the author is so distinguished.

We give below the chapter relating to guaranty of bills, and letters of credit, omitting the very copious notes, which occupy more space than the text, and are rather designed for the learned lawyer than the practical merchant.

GUARANTY OF BILLS, AND LETTERS OF CREDIT.

We have thus gone over the principal doctrines applicable to foreign Bills of Exchange. There remain one or two topics, which are, in some measure, connected therewith, and are of a kindred nature, upon one of which some remarks have already been incidentally made, but which deserve a more direct, although a brief, exposition and recapitulation in this place. These topics are, first, the Guaranty of Bills of Exchange ; and, secondly, Letters of Credit, authorizing persons to draw foreign Bills, on the faith of such Letters. These are equally applicable to cases of Foreign, and cases of Inland, Bills of Exchange ; but they are more frequent in the former cases.

In respect to the former, Guaranty of Bills, it is well known, and in much use, in cases of foreign Bills, in France, and other parts of Continental Europe. In France it is known by the name of *Aval* ; and in Germany, at least, when a Latin appellation is affixed to it, by the name of *Avallum*. This guaranty is usually placed at the bottom of the Bill of Exchange, from which circumstance it is said to derive its name ; and sometimes it is written upon a separate paper.

The effect, in France, and other foreign countries, of this *Aval* or Guaranty, subscribed at the bottom of the Bill, is, that it binds the Guarantor *in solido*, and subjects him to the like obligations, as the party on the Bill, for whom he has given it, at least, unless there is some different stipulation made by the parties, and also entitles him to the like rights, as the same party. It amounts, therefore, in effect, to a guaranty, that the party, for whom it is given, shall perform all the obligations, which the Bill itself imports on his part. The usual manner of accomplishing this purpose is, that the name of the Guarantor is preceded by the words "*pour Aval*." But this is not indispensable, for any equivalent form will do ; and even the name of the Guarantor alone, written in blank, may, if that is the usage, bind the party as a Guarantor, where it is clear that he is not liable as an Indorser on the Bill.

It follows, from what has been said, that, in the French and Foreign Law, this contract of *Aval*, or Guaranty, when on the face of the Bill, is, in the absence of any restrictive or controlling words, an agreement, partaking of the character of the Bill itself, and is negotiable, and passes to, and gives the same rights to the Holder of the Bill, as if it were made personally to himself, and subjects him to the like obligations. And this quality is, beyond question, highly important to the true value, and easy circulation, and free credit, of Bills of Exchange. The like rule seems to prevail among the German Civilians ; and it probably also prevails among the nations of Continental Europe generally ; and it is fully recognized in the law of Scotland.

Whether, under our law, a like negotiable quality belongs to the like guaranty upon the face of the Bill, so as to give the Holder a complete legal right thereto, as well as to the Bill, has been a question of considerable discussion. It has been said, by a distinguished elementary writer, that, even in cases where a valid engagement of guaranty has been made, that a Bill of Exchange or note shall be paid, it is effectual only between the original parties to it, and not transferable at law, or in equity, or in bankruptcy. But this language is quite too general ; for it is very certain that the party, to whom the guaranty is originally made, may, in equity, assign his right to the holder, at the same time that he assigns the Bill, and thereby vest in him the equitable, although not the legal title thereto. The language should further be understood to be limited to cases where

the guaranty, if it is on the face of the Bill, is, by its very terms, confined to the original party, to whom it is given; and the language does not, certainly it ought not to be extended to cases, where, by its very terms, the guaranty is to such party, and to his order, or to the bearer, or to any person, who shall subsequently become the Holder; for there does not seem to be any ground, or principle, in our law, which will, in such a case, limit the right, contrary to the avowed intention of the parties, to the first or original Guarantee. On the contrary, there would seem to be very urgent reasons why it should be deemed equivalent to a continued promise, upon a valid consideration, to every successive Holder for a valuable consideration, *toties quoties*, that the Guarantor promises the like guaranty to him personally.

There is great weight of authority for the maintenance of this doctrine, as well upon general principles, as upon the usage of the commercial world. And, with a view to the convenience, and the security of merchants, as well as the free circulation and credit of negotiable paper, it would seem, that such a guaranty, upon the face of a Bill of Exchange, not limited to any particular person, but purporting to be general, without naming any person whatsoever, or purporting to be a guaranty to the Payee, or his order, or to the bearer, ought to be held, upon the very intention of the parties, to be a complete guaranty to every successive person, who shall become the Holder of the Bill. Nay, the doctrine has been pressed farther, and it has been maintained, with great ability and cogency of reasoning, that such a guaranty upon a separate paper, ought to be held negotiable in the same manner, and to the same extent, in favor of each successive Holder of the Bill, as if it were upon the face of the original Bill.

In respect to Letters of Credit, which are in common use in our commerce with foreign countries, it may be stated, that a Letter of Credit (sometimes called a Bill of Credit) is an open letter of request, whereby one person (usually a merchant or a banker) requests some other person or persons to advance moneys, or give credit, to a third person named therein, for a certain amount, and promises that he will repay the same to the person advancing the same, or accept Bills, drawn upon himself, for the like amount. It is called a general letter of credit, when it is addressed to all merchants, or other persons in general, requesting such advance to a third person; and it is called a special letter of credit, when it is addressed to a particular person by name, requesting him to make such advance to a third person.

Marius gives the following description of Letters of Credit, of both sorts, and of their use and obligation. "Now, letters of credit, for the furnishing of moneys by exchange, are of two sorts, the one general, the other special; the general letter of credit is, when I write my open letter directed to all merchants, and others, that shall furnish moneys unto such and such persons, upon this my letter of credit, wherein, and whereby I do bind myself, that what moneys shall be by them delivered unto the party or parties, therein mentioned, within such a time, at such and such rates (or, in general terms, at the price current), I do thereby bind myself for to be accountable and answerable for the same, to be repaid according to the Bill or Bills of Exchange, which, upon receipt of the money so furnished, shall be given or delivered for the same. And, if any money be furnished upon such my general letter of credit, and Bills of Exchange therefore given, and charged, drawn, or directed to me, although, when the Bills come to hand, and are presented to me, I should refuse to accept thereof, yet (according to the custom of merchants) I am bound, and liable, to the payment of those Bills of Exchange, by virtue and force of such my general letter of credit, because he or they, which do furnish the money, have not so much (if any) respect unto the sufficiency or ability of the party, which doth take up the money, as unto me, who have given my letter of credit for the same, and upon whose credit, merely, those moneys may be properly said to have been delivered. The special letter of credit is, when a merchant, at the request of any other man, doth write his open letter of credit, directed to his factor, agent, or correspondent, giving him order to furnish such or such a man, by name, with such or such a sum of money, at one or more times, and charge it to the account of the merchant that gives the letter of credit, and takes Bills of Exchange, or receipts, for the same." And again; "Now, in the general letter of credit, he that writes it doth make use of his credit for his own account and concerns in his way of trade, and, therefore, there need no more than his letter of credit to make him liable to repay what shall be so furnished. But, in the particular letter of credit, he that writes the letter, doth it not to make use of the moneys himself, or to be employed for his own use, but for the use and accommodation of some other man, at whose request he is willing, and doth write his letter of credit; and, therefore, it is very expedient and ordinary for him, at whose entreaty the letter is written, at the writing, and upon receipt thereof, to give security by bond, or otherwise, unto the merchant that gives the letter of credit, for repayment unto him, his

executors, or assigns, of all such moneys as shall be received by virtue of the said letters of credit; for the merchant, by his letter, stands sufficiently bound to his correspondent; and, therefore, it is no more but reason, that he, for whom the letter is granted, should give (as it were) his counterbond for repayment. The Bills of Exchange, which are to be made for moneys taken up by letters of credit, do run in the ordinary form of Bills of Exchange."

This language would seem to be sufficiently explicit to establish the doctrine, that general letters of credit partake of a negotiable quality, and, according to the usage of merchants, are treated as a direct promise to repay the advance, or to accept and pay the Bill, which shall be drawn upon the advance, where the letter purports such a promise to repay, or accept and pay the Bill. There does not seem to be any ground to doubt, that the letter of credit is an available promise in favor of the person, who makes the advance upon the faith of the letter, if the letter is specially addressed to him. But it has been made a question, whether, if the letter of credit is a general one, addressed to any person or persons generally, without any other designation, the person making the advance upon the faith thereof, is entitled to a punctual performance of the promise contained therein, from the person signing the letter, as a floating contract, designed to circulate as a direct promise, in the nature of a negotiable security, for the benefit of any party, advancing funds on the faith thereof; or whether the remedy exclusively lies between the original party, writing the letter, and the party to whom, and for whose immediate use it was given.

The question does not appear to have been positively decided, or, indeed, to have been elaborately discussed in England. But, in America, it has come under judicial examination and decision in various cases. In the Supreme Court of the United States, the doctrine has been directly affirmed, on several occasions, that the Letter-writer is positively and directly bound to any party making the advance upon the faith of the Letter; and that it applies not only to cases where the Letter of Credit purports, on its face, to be addressed, generally, to any person or persons whatsoever, who should make the advance, but also in cases where the Letter of Credit is addressed solely to the person to whom the advance is to be made, and merely states, that the person, signing the same, will become his security for a certain amount, without naming any person, to whom he will become security, if it is obviously to be used to procure credit from some third person, and the advance is made upon the faith of the Letter by such third person. And it has been further held, that, if the engagement be, to accept and pay any Bills, not exceeding a limited amount, drawn by the person to whom, and for whose benefit, the advance is to be made; in such a case, the person, taking such Bills, and making the advance upon the faith thereof, if the promise of the Letter-writer cannot be treated as a positive acceptance of such Bills, is entitled to treat it as a direct promise to himself to accept and pay such Bill, which promise he may enforce, accordingly, in an action in his name, founded upon such Letter of Credit, against the writer thereof.

Mr. Bell, in his learned Commentaries, has given his own opinion, as to the nature and operation of Letters of Credit, in the following expressive language. "Letters of Credit, strictly speaking, are mandates, giving authority to the person addressed to pay money, or furnish goods, on the credit of the writer. They are generally made use of for facilitating the supply of money, or goods, required by one going to a distance or abroad, and avoiding the risk and trouble of carrying specie, or buying Bills to a greater amount than may be required. The debt, which arises on such a Letter, in its simplest form, when complied with, is between the mandatory and mandant; though it may be so conceived as to raise a debt also against the person, who is supplied by the mandatory. 1. Where the letter is purchased with money by the person wishing for the foreign credit; or, is granted in consequence of a check on his cash account; or, procured on the credit of securities lodged with the person who grants it; or, in payment of money due by him to the Payee; the Letter is, in its effects, similar to a Bill of Exchange drawn on the foreign merchant. The payment of the money by the person, on whom the Letter is granted, raises a debt, or goes into account between him and the writer of the Letter; but raises no debt to the person, who pays on the Letter, against him to whom the money is paid. 2. Where not so purchased, but truly an accommodation, and meant to raise a debt against the person accommodated, the engagement generally is, to see paid any advances made to him, or to guarantee any draft accepted, or Bill discounted; and the compliance with the mandate, in such case, raises a debt both against the writer of the Letter, and against the person accredited."

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

LIABILITY OF SHIPS IN CASE OF FORCED LOAN FOR REPAIRS.

United States District Court of Massachusetts, March Term, 1843. Shelton and others *vs.* Brig Mary.

Specie was shipped from Boston to Porto Cabello, for the purpose of purchasing a return cargo. The vessel was obliged to put into Antigua, on account of a disaster; where the master, being destitute of funds, sold a part of the specie for the purpose of making repairs, and the vessel proceeded to the port of destination, and thence to Boston. It was admitted that the specie thus taken should be paid for in general average, at its value at Porto Cabello—the only question presented was, whether, in making an adjustment, the libellants should be allowed interest on the specie so taken, from the time when they would have had the benefit of it at Porto Cabello.

Sprague, district judge, decided that the libellants were entitled to such interest, inasmuch as it is the general principle of law that the shipper must be compensated in such cases—the measure of compensation being such as is necessary to place him in as good a situation as he would have been in had the property of some other shipper been taken instead of his. To place him in such a situation, however, it is necessary that payment should be made to him at the port of destination, as there he needed his cargo to carry on his enterprise. Having a right to have the goods shipped delivered to him at the port of destination, so has he the right to have that which without his consent has been substituted for the goods, delivered to him at the same place. As this was not done, he has a claim for damages; and interest is the established measure of damages for the non-payment of money.

INSURANCE—MARITIME USAGE.

District Court of Massachusetts, in Admiralty, February, 1843.

The schooner Eddington went into Provincetown harbor in a gale of wind. After coming to anchor, she was driven from her moorings towards the flats, where she was brought up by her small anchor, and lay head to the wind. In this position she was run foul of, in the night-time, by another vessel, the Lion, having no person on board. A principal question discussed was, whether the owners of the Lion had omitted a reasonable and ordinary measure of security, and whether the collision was attributable to their neglect, notwithstanding a usage at Provincetown to leave vessels owned in that place, and manned by persons residing there, at anchor in the harbor, without any persons on board. Sprague, district judge, observed, in delivering his opinion in this case, that the neglect with which the Lion is charged consists in leaving her alone, when it was seen that a gale was coming on, with from thirty to fifty vessels at anchor in the harbor. A vessel is doubtless rendered more safe from collision when some person is on board; but the owners of the Lion were not bound to use any extraordinary measures of precaution. The question is, have they omitted a reasonable and *ordinary* measure of precaution? The general sense of the maritime world, and of maritime writers, indicates that a vessel should not be left without some one on board. This position is confirmed by numerous witnesses who have been examined in this case; but it also proved to be the usage at Provincetown to leave vessels owned in that place, and manned by persons residing there, at anchor in the harbor, without any person on board, in every aspect of the weather. There is some evidence produced of a similar usage in other places in Massachusetts; but all those places, except Cape Ann, are tide harbors, and the evidence is

by no means satisfactory as to the extent or limitations of the usage. The people of Truro, it appears, adopt the usages of their neighbors in fair weather; but when a gale is seen to be approaching, some person is put on board to guard the vessel. The usage must be considered as confined to the inhabitants of Provincetown. "The usage was followed in the present case. The respondents urge, in the first place, that they adopted all ordinary precautions. Secondly, that the adoption of such a usage, by the prudent inhabitants of Provincetown, is evidence of its safety. But the last point suggests two considerations:—First, that the practice of the inhabitants of Truro shows, on the other hand, that it is *not* safe to leave a vessel alone when a gale is foreseen; and, in the next place, this practice is not adopted by the Provincetown mariners because it is safe, but only because it is convenient; their vessels usually being small, and the officers and crews having their homes at Provincetown. Shall a stranger-vessel, like that of the libellant's, be subjected to the hazards of such a usage? This is not a case of contract, where a party has made an agreement with reference to a known usage. The harbor of Provincetown is open to all vessels of the United States. When it is said that *ordinary* precaution was used, the truth of the position depends upon the standard to which reference is had. If referred to the practice of the inhabitants of Provincetown, it is true; but with reference to the general maritime standard, it is not true. When the libellant entered the harbor at Provincetown, he was bound by the general maritime rules and usages, and has a right to rely upon their observance by others using the same waters."

Decree in favor of libellant.

FIRE INSURANCE.

New York Superior Court—present, Judge Oakley. June term, 1843. John Raynor *vs.* New York Fire Insurance Company.

This was an action upon a policy of insurance upon a frame house at the corner of the Third Avenue, which the defendants insured for the plaintiffs, describing it as "to be kept for a grocery." The house took fire, and was consumed; and in the progress of the fire, an explosion was caused by a barrel of gunpowder in the grocery. The defendants contended that the policy was annulled by reason of the plaintiff's keeping powder, an extra-hazardous article, on the premises insured. But his Honor, having declared it to be the law that the rights of the plaintiff must depend on the question whether or not it is *customary* for groceries to contain gunpowder, and the plaintiff having proved such to be the custom, a verdict was rendered for plaintiffs for \$1,500.

CHARTER-PARTY.

Superior Court. Jonathan D. Cathell *vs.* Medad Platt.

This was an action upon a charter-party. In December, 1841, J. C. and M. Stevenson, of Newbern, North Carolina, employed defendant as their agent to charter a schooner, which he accordingly did, from the plaintiff. The defendant was described in the charter-party as the agent of the plaintiff.

His Honor, the chief justice, however, charged the jury that, inasmuch as the defendant had signed, and virtually chartered the vessel as a principal, notwithstanding he was described in the body of the charter-party as an agent, he was personally and primarily bound to pay the stipulated price to the plaintiff. Verdict for plaintiff.

COMMON CARRIERS.

New York Court of Errors, June session, 1843. J. N. Vanderbilt, plaintiff in error, *vs.* Joseph Tobey, defendant in error.

This was an action originally commenced by the defendant in error in the Superior Court of the city of New York, for the recovery of the value of certain goods delivered by him to the plaintiff in error, (who is a steamboat proprietor,) for transportation to

Albany. A judgment was obtained by Mr. Tobey in the Superior Court, and this judgment was afterwards affirmed upon the merits in the Supreme Court. The cause was then appealed to the Court of Errors, which also affirmed the original judgment, and virtually decided that common carriers are liable for the safe transportation of the goods entrusted to them, unless the loss of such goods be occasioned by the act of God, or the public enemies; and that they are so liable, although they may have affixed public notices, purporting that "all baggage is at the risk of the owner."

LANDLORD AND TENANT—ACTION OF TRESPASS—EXEMPTION LAW OF NEW YORK OF 1842.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Judge Inglis presiding. *Morris Flynn vs. George Barclay and Simon P. Huff.*

This was an action of trespass under the act of 1842. It was to recover damages for illegally seizing a horse of the plaintiff's for rent, in violation of the law which provides that, "in addition to the articles now exempted by law from distress for rent, there shall be exempted from such distress, and levy, and sale, such necessary household furniture and working-tools, and team owned by any person being a householder, or having a family, for which he provides, to the value of not exceeding \$150."

In this case, the plaintiff rented a stable, on which rent was due to the defendant Barclay, who procured a landlord's warrant, and levied on the plaintiff's cart-horse, and had it sold. On the part of the plaintiff, it was contended that the horse came under the articles exempted by law under the term *team*, and that therefore the defendants have committed a trespass against the plaintiff by levying on it.

The court charged the jury. The first inquiry was, whether the property levied on was of that sort exempted by the act of April, 1842. The exemption extends to \$150 worth of household furniture, tools, wearing apparel, and team owned by the lodger—and if \$150 worth of articles were left, although other articles enumerated amongst those which are exempt, are levied on, and taken away, it does not render the person taking them responsible for doing so. If the articles are not owned by a householder, or man having a family, the law does not exempt them.

Much criticism has been resorted to in relation to the word "team," and I have taken some pains, by looking into dictionaries and other sources, to ascertain the meaning of that word. But before I state my conclusion as to its legal meaning, I will observe that it often happens that statutes are not drawn up with clerical correctness, or logical or critical propriety, from the persons who do it not paying sufficient attention to these matters. Therefore, the great and important question to be ascertained is, as to the sense in which the legislature intended to use the words.

It is said that the word "team" cannot refer to the horse of a carman, as the word *team* is used by the best writers as referring to more than one animal, and cannot be held to mean a single horse—and I confess that, so far as the usage of this word by old English authors, it appears, from many examples, that the word had originally only a plural sense. It is, however, said that the word is not derived from the Latin, but from an Anglo-Saxon word, which means a yoke, and that it does not refer to more than one animal. Counsel says that such is the proper use of the word, and I think it is, at least in the present case; although ordinarily, when we speak of a team, we mean more than one animal. But we must look at what was the object of the legislature in passing the law in which this word is used. The object of the statute was obviously to prevent the poorer class from having all their little chattels taken away from them, or be deprived of the means of procuring subsistence. With this object in view, we find that the law has exempted furniture and a "team" from being levied on; and I think, under that view of the law, a horse must be held to mean a team. But for the remarks of counsel, I might have been inclined to think that the legislature meant more than one horse by the

word team. But the act was perhaps drawn up by a person who resided in a rural district, and therefore used the word team. But if asked what did the word mean in the case of a farmer, who was so poor that he possessed but one animal, he would most probably say, that the word "team" meant but one animal. And, though I say it with some doubt, I think the word team means a single animal. If, therefore, in import and judgment of law, this horse was a "team," then the next inquiry is, was the plaintiff a carman. It appears that he had the mayor's license, dated in August before; and, although he did not do much work with his horse, and had offered to sell it, his having done so does not take away the privileges conferred on him by this act. As to his being a householder, I think that a man who rents the upper part of a house comes under the denomination of householder. If you come to the conclusion that he was a householder and carman, then the question will be, were there sufficient articles left him to amount to \$150. If there were, then the horse was rightfully taken. As this is a special statute, taking away the common-law right of the landlord, it is the plaintiff's duty to make out his case to you plain, and without doubt. Verdict for the plaintiff, \$66. For plaintiff, Messrs. De Witt, and F. Brown; for defendant, Mr. Benedict.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THIS is a period of the year when commercial affairs are usually exceedingly dull, and the present month has not been singular in that respect. There are abundant elements of improved commercial prosperity; but as yet the movement is not such as to cause any increased demand for money. In all sections of the country, the returns of tolls on the public works, those great arteries of trade, show, without exception, increased receipts over former years. On the New York state canals, in particular, although there has been but sixty days of navigation up to July 1st, the receipts were actually larger to that time than in 1842, when the canals had been open seventy days. The receipts of tolls, and of flour and wheat, at tide-water, have been as follows:

	TOLLS.		RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AT TIDE-WATER.			
	4th week in June. Dollars.	Total to July 1st. Dollars.	4th week in June. Flour.	Wheat.	Total to July. Flour.	Wheat.
1842,.....	53,244 18	593,699 83	30,914	19,973	413,157	159,641
1843,.....	64,664 14	612,896 01	68,373	9,104	438,298	102,335
Increase,....	11,399 96	19,196 18	37,359	25,441
Decrease,....	10,869	57,306

Taking into view the shorter period of navigation, this increase is large; and the same feature is apparent in all other quarters. It consists, for the most part, of produce coming to market, rather than any increase of merchandise going to the interior. The outlet for most of the surplus produce is abroad; and, under the new English tariff, the market for American provisions is rapidly extending there. Although, at the latest dates, the prospect of the English harvest was good, and prices therefore comparatively heavy, yet the demand for United States produce was on the increase, and prices well sustained. If the means of paying for those importations into England were left free and untrammelled, the intercourse between the two countries would extend with immense rapidity, to the benefit of the agricultural interests. Unfortunately, however, in the present state of things, specie is almost the only remittance this way in return—a fact which weighs heavily upon the markets. The prices of produce continue very low, although they are advancing; and we believe that almost all those who have embarked in agricultural products during the past spring, have been more than remunerated for their outlay. The margin of profits left in the hands of the producers, at the low rates at which they have parted

with their products, has been too small to cause any great increase of purchasers of supplies by them; hence, the demand for domestic and imported goods has not revived in a degree sufficient to raise the prices from the extreme low grade to which they had fallen, in consequence of the contraction of the currency, and the diminished means of the consumers. Domestic goods have fallen so low, that a large export trade sprung up, and took off considerable quantities, without materially affecting values. It is not pretended that domestic goods can be exported at a profit; but the fact that they are so exported, and sold in foreign markets on an equal footing with foreign manufactures, in preference to selling here, where they enjoy a discriminating duty of 60 to 150 per cent, is an appalling proof of the prostration which has overtaken the domestic markets, notwithstanding the exceeding abundance of the crops—a prostration which could only have been effected by the paralyzing effect of pernicious legislation. Another indication of the presence of some unnatural obstacle to the revival of trade, is the continued and increasing abundance of money. Notwithstanding the low prices of every article of commerce, for nearly one year, money has continued to accumulate in the Atlantic banks, while the means of employing it have been constantly diminishing. The state of the market is peculiarly manifest in the operations of the federal government. In 1841, a loan was authorized, to meet the deficiency in revenue. A part only of that loan was taken, and the remainder hung upon the market in the summer of 1842, without meeting any bidders, although it was offering at almost “any price,” and the state of New York borrowed \$3,000,000, at 7 per cent, at par. An agent was despatched to Europe to negotiate the loan, with utter ill success. In the mean time, money continued to accumulate in the banks, as the crops went forward, and outstanding accounts were settled, until February, 1843, when the balance of the 6 per cent loan, \$3,500,000, was taken at par. In our June number, we published the notice of the Secretary of the Treasury, to redeem the outstanding treasury-notes on the 30th June, 1843. We then remarked that it was highly probable that the necessary amount could be obtained at par, for a 5 per cent stock. Subsequently, proposals for a loan of \$7,000,000 were issued, and taken mostly by New York houses, at \$101 01. A small lot was taken at \$102 37½, and another at \$101 55. Immediately afterward, the stock rose to 5½ per cent premium in the market. The treasury-notes redeemed were mostly held by banking institutions for investment, and paying them off threw a large sum of money into the market for re-investment. For the employment of banking funds, United States government stocks are the most desirable; because, being all held on this side of the water, there is no danger, how high soever prices may rise, that amounts from abroad, sufficiently large to produce revulsion, will be suddenly thrown upon the market—a danger which would be incurred if the rates of state stocks were carried as high. On these stocks, the banks loan their money at call, many of them as low as 4 per cent per annum, keeping a margin of 10 per cent as security against sudden fluctuations. This abundance of money is not general—it is merely corporate and banking. On the contrary, many sections of the country, and most industrial pursuits, experience a scarcity. Business moves so sluggishly, and that on a cash basis, that very little paper is created of that character most desired by the banks.

The true value of the United States 5 per cent stock, of \$7,000,000, ten years to run, interest payable semi-annually, to yield 5 per cent per annum on the investment, is 100.48 per cent; and at the price given, 101.01, is therefore .527 in excess of that value, and yields an interest of 4.9929 per cent. For causes above enumerated, then, government stocks command the highest prices; while others, equally good as security, sell very low—that is, they yield much higher rates of interest. Assuming 5 per cent to be the rate of interest in the stock-market, the real value of some of the dividend-paying stocks are as follows, compared with their market prices:—

Stocks.	Interests.	Redeemable.	Value.	Market price.
United States,.....	6's semi-annual	1862	\$112 99	114½ a 115
“	5's “	1853	100 48	103½ a 104
Massachusetts,.....	5's “	1868	100 88	102 a 102½
Kentucky,.....	6's “	1868	115 15	95½ a 96
Tennessee,.....	6's “	1868	115 15	91½ a 92
Ohio,	6's “	1860	112 11	89½ a 90
New York,.....	7's “	1849	110 81	108½ a 109
“	6's “	1862	113 44	108 a 108½
“	5's “	1858	100 97	99½ a 100

This table shows very clearly the artificial state of the market. Those stocks on which corporate means have been brought more particularly to bear, for want of some more legitimate means of employing their funds, are very high; while other stocks, and those of distant states, are kept down, chiefly by the excess of the supply of stocks above the surplus of individual means seeking such investments, and the amount of new stock constantly coming upon the market for sale. Large amounts of stocks, never yet absorbed by the investments of individuals, have been pledged, by the original contractors for the loans, with third parties, for debts. As the prices have improved, these latter have been tempted to realize. Of this description, are the \$14,000,000 of stocks held by the London houses as collateral for the debentures of the United States Bank. Also, near \$700,000 of Kentucky and Tennessee bonds, being part of original loans taken by the Baltimore American Life and Trust Company, and assigned by that company to a London house to secure a debt, have been gradually coming into this market for sale, at the same time that the state of Kentucky has been gradually converting its outstanding scrip, issued to contractors, into 6 per cent bonds. These have been among the leading causes out of which has grown the inequality in stock values. The abundance of money, which, in the New York and eastern banks, has compelled them to seek the stocks of their own states and the federal government for investment, is gradually extending to the institutions in other sections—south, southwest, and west. The commercial indebtedness due by those sections to the north and east, has been mostly settled during the past year, and the banks are beginning to show an accumulation of specie, and diminution of loans, consequent upon the maturity of paper, and the absence of new applications. As the new crops come forward to enhance this feature, some other description of investment must be found; and the New York example, of stock loans, will probably be followed. The prices of stocks must, in such an event, continue high, and become uniform, and the rate of interest low on commercial paper.

In this posture of affairs, there seems to be a movement in progress to effect a change in the features of business-paper. It is, to accept for large sales short notes, drawn to the order of the buyer, and to offer them for discount without the endorsement of the seller. A combination of influential merchants, at a time like this, might effect a revolution in this particular, and thus throw the weight of mercantile risks upon corporations, rather than, as now, upon knots of mutual endorsers. It is frequently the case that these cliques absorb a very large proportion of all the means of an association; thus acting in reverse of the axiom, that the wider range over which moderate risks are spread, on certain conditions, acting in the nature of an insurance premium, the more secure are the operations, and the more infallible is the aggregate and eventual profit. The Parisian bankers, operating upon this principle, discount but a limited amount to each individual customer, over whose habits and business an unremitting watchfulness is kept up. This threatened change in the manner of doing business, has had a great influence upon the banks, as well as the operation of the new law of the state of New York, which went into operation July 1st. That law prescribes, as its leading features, that the banks of the state shall hereafter make quarterly statements of their affairs public, commencing on the first Monday of August, 1843; and that they shall issue no circulating bills except those to be derived from, and countersigned by the comptroller, with whom the plates are depos-

ited. These bills have already superseded the others in circulation. The principle on which this latter regulation was based, is, that the institutions cannot be trusted with their own issues. The public has so often sustained heavy losses by the illegal pledging of their notes, that it requires legislative interference. This produces a singular difference between the issues of the banks under the free banking law, and those of the chartered banks, viz: the *free* banks can issue no bills without depositing adequate security, in New York state stocks—the chartered banks can issue without any security.

The trade between the United States and Europe has, of late years, reversed its character, inasmuch as that the policy of the United States has approached to the prohibitive, while that of England and Europe has become more liberal. The following will show the amount of articles imported into France and England in 1840, with the amount of duties levied upon them; and of the import of dutiable imports into the United States, with the accruing duties for 1842:—

	Imports into England. <i>Dollars.</i>	Duties. <i>Dollars.</i>	Imports into France. <i>Dollars.</i>	Duties. <i>Dollars.</i>	Imports into U. States. <i>Dollars.</i>	Duties. <i>Dollars.</i>
Tobacco,....	3,227,860	20,514,816	4,841,998	2,836
Other art's, .	50,777,910	7,845,337	24,618,757	2,345,037	62,015,693	16,840,219
Total, .	54,005,790	28,360,153	29,450,754	2,347,873	62,015,693	16,840,219

With the exception of tobacco, the average English duties are 15 per cent, the French duties 8 per cent, and the United States duties 35.8 per cent. The import duty on tobacco into France is small, but that article is a monopoly enjoyed by the government, and therefore the whole impositions upon it are great. In England, the levy upon tobacco is direct and enormous. This great tax upon tobacco has been one of the most effective arguments in favor of a retaliative tariff. The tax imposed by France on the article is an internal regulation, affecting French, equally with foreign tobacco. The quantity raised in France is about 30,000 hhd., or more than double the amount she receives from the United States. In England, an important revenue is derived from the customs on tobacco, amounting, as seen above, to £4,000,000, or 11 per cent of the whole revenues of the kingdom. The article of tobacco is a luxury, and is incapable of application to any other object than that of chewing and smoking, which is entirely an acquired taste. The quantity used by any individual for these purposes, is necessarily so small, that, however great the burden upon tobacco may be, it is to him of but little importance. The weed differs from all other articles of merchandise in two particulars. If the price is very high, those who are addicted to it can find no substitute, and they must pay the price. On the other hand, no matter how low the price may fall, more than a certain quantity is desired by no votary. It can be applied to no other purpose, nor will those not accustomed to it commence its use because it is cheap. Gradually, with the progress of population, in all parts of the world, the use of tobacco increases; and facts before us show that the increase keeps in advance of production. These facts are furnished by the treasury tables. The following will show the total exports of tobacco from the United States since 1821, with the average yearly prices per hhd. :—

EXPORT OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES FROM 1841 TO 1842.

Years.	Total value of tobacco exported.	Value of snuff and manuf'd.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhd.
1821,.....	\$5,798,045	\$149,083	66,858	\$5,648,962	\$84 49
1822,.....	6,380,020	157,182	83,169	6,222,838	74 82
1823,.....	6,437,627	154,955	99,609	6,282,272	63 46
1824,.....	5,059,355	203,789	77,883	4,855,566	62 34
1825,.....	6,287,976	172,353	75,984	6,115,623	80 48
1826,.....	5,557,342	210,134	64,098	5,347,208	83 42
1827,.....	6,816,147	239,024	100,025	6,577,123	65 75
Average 7 years, .	\$6,084,073	\$183,788	81,003	\$5,864,227	\$73 53

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Years.	Total value of tobacco exported.	Value of snuff and manuf'd.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhd.
1828,.....	\$5,480,707	\$210,747	96,278	\$5,296,960	\$54 73
1829,.....	5,185,370	202,306	77,131	4,982,974	64 60
1830,.....	5,833,112	246,747	83,810	5,586,365	66 65
1831,.....	5,184,863	292,475	86,718	4,892,388	56 40
1832,.....	6,295,540	295,771	106,806	5,999,769	56 18
1833,.....	6,043,941	288,973	83,153	5,755,968	69 29
1834,.....	6,923,714	328,409	87,979	6,595,305	74 96
Average 7 years, .	\$5,849,749	\$265,061	85,982	\$5,583,247	\$63 25
1835,.....	\$8,608,188	\$357,611	94,353	\$8,250,577	\$87 01
1836,.....	10,494,104	435,464	109,442	10,058,640	91 54
1837,.....	6,223,483	427,836	100,232	5,795,647	57 82
1838,.....	7,969,449	577,420	100,593	7,392,029	73 48
1839,.....	10,449,155	616,212	78,995	9,832,943	124 47
1840,.....	10,697,628	813,671	119,484	9,883,957	81 05
1841,.....	13,450,580	873,877	147,828	12,576,703	85 09
Average 7 years, .	\$9,698,941	\$586,013	107,275	\$9,112,928	\$85 92
Total, 21 years, \$151,177,346	\$7,254,129	1,876,828	\$143,923,217	\$76 23	

This table presents certainly a very curious result. In the second seven years, ending with 1834, a very slight increase, only, took place in the quantity exported, yet the price fell largely. The seven years in which this took place were precisely those embraced by the operation of the high tariff. In the succeeding seven years, during which the compromise tariff was in progress, a constant increase in exports took place, accompanied by as regular an increase in price. Without alleging the tariff to be the cause of that singular variation, we recommend our planting friends to keep it in view, as a remarkable coincidence. Since 1834, the tobacco trade has been developed in a remarkable manner. The quantity exported in 1841 was far greater than ever before, and the price higher than the average. Now this constantly increasing export, accompanied by constantly increasing money-value, is pretty conclusive proof that demand is in excess of supply, more especially if we keep in view the fact that, during the last few years, all other articles have fallen immensely in money-value. From these data, it may be inferred that the steady and regular impositions of foreign governments upon the article of tobacco, however onerous they may be to the consumers of the article among their own citizens, are far less hurtful to the planting interest than a prohibitive tariff here, which, by excluding foreign goods, deprives them of the means of buying the tobacco at any price. If it is alleged that the impositions of foreign governments restrict the consumption of tobacco, then does the onerous tariff of the United States prohibit it altogether. But it does not appear that the foreign imposts restrict the consumption, because almost the whole production is imported; and, above all other articles, increasing quantities command improved prices. The export of snuff and manufactured tobacco has increased exceedingly, having more than doubled in quantity and value since 1834. The following is a table of the places to which manufactured tobacco has been exported since 1833:—

EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	Hanse towns.	Holland.	England & colonies.	Brit. Amer. colonies.	France.	Other places.	Total.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1833,.....	136,846	169,682	710,660	1,259,856	628	1,512,758	3,790,310
1834,.....	76,794	17,394	671,923	1,576,648	60,000	1,553,820	3,956,579
1835,.....	238,795	755,853	1,342,924	21,654	1,458,628	3,817,854
1836,.....	11,459	217,099	1,196,082	1,650	1,820,387	3,246,675
1837,.....	77,818	828,525	1,262,340	18,571	1,428,337	3,615,591

EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO—Continued.

	Hanse towns.	Holland.	England & colonies.	Brit. Amer. colonies.	France.	Other places.	Total.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1838,.....	280,123	34,603	1,694,571	1,608,908	51,388	1,338,554	5,008,047
1839,.....	276,801	136,973	1,454,996	1,266,716	545,352	4,214,943
1840,.....	526,236	43,467	2,497,664	1,831,536	7,550	1,890,713	6,787,165
1841,.....	257,124	31,364	2,825,737	1,769,935	59,982	2,559,602	7,503,644

The trade to England and its dependencies has rapidly and largely increased, having risen in quantity 400 per cent in nine years. The gross exports have doubled in quantity, and the value, as seen in the above table, has increased 200 per cent. The quantity exported increased 100 per cent, and the value 200 per cent, most of it to England. These are incontrovertible facts; and that this rapid increase of trade took place precisely in those years when, simultaneous with the generally modified tariff of England, the descending scale of the United States compromise act encouraged freedom of intercourse, are practical evidences of the benefit of reciprocity. The policy of the United States was entirely changed by the twenty-seventh Congress. The system which led to an extended introduction of United States produce in European countries and their dependencies, in exchange for the products of their industry, has been changed. The growing export trade, in agricultural products, has received a rude shock. The streams of commercial intercourse have been suddenly dammed up, and the energies of the people sought to be turned into channels other than in which their circumstances and their natural disposition directed them. From a lucrative cultivation of the soil, whereby they profitably availed themselves of the cheap labor of Europe, they are driven into new employments, and hazardous enterprises, in opposition to the capital, skill, and pauper labor of the tottering and debt-covered monarchies of the old world. While this terrible revolution has been put on foot by political partisans, the financial movement of the federal government has been changed. From 1822, down to 1837, the government borrowed no money, but paid off \$140,000,000, or nearly \$10,000 per annum; which, released from stocks, sought other employments. In 1837, the government again began to borrow; and the twenty-seventh Congress has borrowed and spent \$37,135,091 more than its legitimate receipts, creating a debt of \$27,394,261. This is the first debt contracted for revenue purposes, in time of peace, since the formation of the government, and is a fearful evidence of maladministration. It is the result of a bold and ruthless change in commercial regulations, whereby mercantile energies are paralyzed, and the sources of revenue dried up.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Exports of Cottons, Linens, Woollens, Worsteds, and Blankets, from Liverpool to the United States.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Cottons.</i>	<i>Linens.</i>	<i>Woollens.</i>	<i>Worsteds.</i>	<i>Blankets.</i>	<i>Tot. pkgs.</i>
1836,.....	41,517	21,123	28,256	8,932	5,777	105,505
1837,.....	13,113	8,125	10,169	4,851	2,612	38,870
1838,.....	26,584	15,062	16,350	7,236	2,050	67,282
1839,.....	23,909	18,502	20,031	7,667	3,798	73,907
1840,.....	19,912	14,914	9,462	4,677	1,248	50,213
1841,.....	28,729	21,113	14,841	8,582	2,538	75,803
1842,.....	13,671	11,054	10,357	5,391	1,826	42,299

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

IMPORT DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS.

STATEMENT OF DUTIES PAYABLE ON AND AFTER THE 5TH JULY, 1843, ON IMPORTS BY LAND OR INLAND NAVIGATION.

Articles prohibited.

	Imper. duties.	Provin. dut.
Arms, ammunition, and utensils of war,.....	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Base or counterfeit coin,.....	"	"
Books—such as are prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, being such books of which copyright has been secured, and now in force,.....	"	"

Free of Duty.

Beef, (fresh,) cattle or live stock, Indian corn, fish, (fresh,) grain of all kinds, pork, (fresh,) meal or flour, except wheat flour, potatoes, provisions or stores of every description imported for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces,.....	Free.	Free.
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Subject to duty of 4 per cent.

Beans, peas, seeds, except garden seeds,.....	4 per cent.	"
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Subject to duty of 5 per cent.

Biscuit or bread, cotton wool, diamonds and bullion, drugs, fruit and vegetables (fresh) except potatoes, gums and resins, hemp, flax, tow, hay and straw, hides, (raw,) manures of all kinds, rice, tallow, meats (fresh) of all kinds, except beef and pork, tortoiseshell, wood and lumber,.....	Free.	5 per cent.
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Subject to different duties.

Blubber, fins and skins, the produce of creatures in the sea, spermaceti, glass manufactures, silk manufactures,.....	15 p. cent.	"
Oils, (fish of all kinds,).....	"	Free.
Cotton manufactures, clocks and watches, corks, candles, except spermaceti, cordage and oakum, hardware of all descriptions, linen manufactures, leather manufactures, woollen manufactures, paper manufactures, soap manufactures,.....	7 per cent.	5 per cent.
Butter,.....	8s. p. cwt.	"
Beef or pork, salted or cured,.....	3s.	Free.
All other meat, salted or cured,.....	3s.	5 per cent.
Cheese,.....	5s.	"
Coffee, green,.....	5s.	2d. per lb.
" roasted,.....	5s.	5 per cent.
" ground,.....	5s.	4d. per lb.
Cocoa,.....	1s.	5 per cent.
Fish, salted or dried,.....	2s.	Free.
" pickled, per barrel,.....	4s. per bbl.	Free.
Molasses,.....	3s. p. cwt.	1s. 6d. cwt.
Syrups,.....	4 per cent.	"
Sugar, refined,.....	20 "	2d. per lb.
" unrefined,.....	5s. p. cwt.	1d. "
Tobacco, manufactured, all kinds,.....	7 per cent.	2d. "
" leaf,.....	4s. p. cwt.	1d. "
Tea,.....	1d. per lb.	3d. "
Salt, per barrel of 280 lbs,.....	Free.	2s. 6d. bbl.
Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.,.....	2s. per bbl.	Free.
Wine, (Madeira,).....	7 per cent.	1s. per gal.
" all others,.....	7 "	6d. "
Spirits, cordials or strong waters, sweetened or mixed, so that the strength cannot be ascertained,.....	1s. per gal.	1s. 7d. gal.
Spirits or strong waters, except rum, not mixed or sweetened, and not exceeding strength of proof,.....	1s. "	6d. "

And further for any greater strength than proof, Imper. duties. Provin. dut.
 And further in addition for every 100 gallons, not exceeding 1s. 6d. gal.
 the strength of proof, £2 10s.—per 10 per cent over proof,
 £2 5s.—for 20 per cent over proof, £2—and so in proportion
 for any greater or less strength or quantity.

Rum, not mixed or sweetened, and not exceeding strength of
 proof,..... 6d. per gal. 6d. “
 And further, for any greater strength,..... 1s. “
 And further, in addition for every 100 gallons, without any
 reference to strength, £2 10s., or 6d. per gallon, and so in
 proportion for any greater or less quantity.

Household goods, and necessaries of all kinds for private use,
 the property of persons coming to settle within this province,
 are subject to duty under the imperial act 5 and 6 Victoria,
 chap. 49, according to their description.

All articles not enumerated, except such as are comprised or re-
 ferred to in the table of exemptions, are subject to duty,..... 4 per cent. 5 per cent.

We mention a few articles of general import paying this duty :—
 Ashes, arrow root, apples, (dried,) baskets, bricks, bristles,
 brooms, cement, chocolate, cider, crockery, currants, dye-
 woods, earthenware, essences, fruit, preserved or pickled, figs,
 furs, honey, hops, indigo, leather, lard, lemon syrup, marble,
 medicines, musical instruments, nuts of all kinds, oil of lard,
 oil olives, pepper, pickles, pitch, prunes, raisins, salad oil,
 spices, sponge, starch, straw, all manufactures of, tar, vinegar,
 whetstones, &c.

By virtue of the imperial act 3 and 4 William IV, cap. 59, and provincial statute 4
 and 5 Victoria, cap. 16, all goods imported into this province may be bonded for ware-
 housing without payment of duties on the first of entry thereof. Bonds may be given
 for all provincial duties, when amounting to £50 currency and upwards, with conditions
 for payment in six months from date of such bonds, if the same shall be dated on or be-
 fore the first day of September; and if dated after the first day of September, then they
 become due on the first of April next ensuing. All duties collected under the imperial
 act shall be deemed sterling money of Great Britain, and be paid and received accord-
 ing to the imperial weights and measures now by law established. All duties collected
 under the provincial statute shall be deemed sterling money of Great Britain, and shall
 be paid and received according to British weights and measures in use on 6th July, 1825.
 Ten per cent will be added to invoice cost of all articles paying per centage duties un-
 der the imperial act, and duties will be levied accordingly.

VALUATION OF REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY OF NEW YORK.

It will be seen that the value of real estate in the state at large, is nearly double what
 it was in 1828, and in the city more than double. The personal property has increased
 in nearly the same ratio.

Year.	NEW YORK STATE—INCLUDING CITY.		NEW YORK CITY.	
	Real.	Personal.	Real.	Personal.
1828,.....	\$275,861,471	\$68,785,292	\$87,603,580	\$37,684,938
1831,.....	289,457,104	75,258,726	97,221,870	42,058,344
1832,.....	299,510,739	77,011,007	104,042,405	42,260,213
1833,.....	319,879,167	96,601,946	114,129,561	52,365,626
1834,.....	350,011,629	109,660,506	123,249,280	63,299,231
1835,.....	402,482,307	124,394,293	143,732,425	74,991,278
1836,.....	539,756,874	127,639,486	233,742,303	75,758,617
1837,.....	499,313,276	122,144,173	196,450,109	67,297,241
1838,.....	502,864,006	124,660,778	194,543,359	69,609,582
1839,.....	519,058,782	131,602,988	196,778,434	70,010,796
1840,.....	517,723,170	121,449,830	187,121,464	65,721,699
1841,.....	531,987,886	123,311,644	186,347,246	65,430,456
1842,.....	504,254,026	116,595,233	176,512,342	61,294,559

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

STEAM NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON RIVER.

THE PEOPLE'S LINE—NIGHT BOATS.

THE progress of steam navigation since the launching of the Clermont, of Fulton, the first boat that ploughed the waters of the Hudson, is truly astonishing. The speed has been increased from five to eighteen miles an hour. To the State of New York, with one side resting on the sea and the other upon the great lakes—with Niagara thundering upon its western boundary, and its eastern seacoast serenaded by the roar of the ocean—this empire, within itself combining agricultural and commercial resources in a remarkable degree, with a population, for the most part, sprung from the New England hive, moulded, in due proportions, with other elements—a population distinguished for its enterprise, liberality, and perseverance;—to New York, holding in her right hand the trident of the waters, and in the left the plough of the western prairies, belongs the fitting credit of first setting afloat this power—the crowning glory of its commercial victories.

In a former number of this Magazine we gave a description of the Troy and Empire, of the day line between New York, Albany, and Troy; we now proceed to lay before our readers a brief account of the steamers composing the People's (night) Line.

The People's Line consists of the steamboats Knickerbocker, South America, Rochester, North America, and Utica, forming two daily evening lines between New York and Albany; one at 5 o'clock P. M., stopping at the intermediate landings, and the other at 7 P. M., which proceeds direct, without landing.

The Rochester, Captain A. Houghton, is two hundred and seventy-five feet long, and twenty-five feet beam. She has in her main cabins below three hundred berths, fifty in the ladies' saloon on the main deck, which is eighty feet in length, and fifty-two in a suite of twenty-six state-rooms on the upper deck, which, together with two large rooms on the guards, afford sleeping accommodations for about four hundred and fifty persons.

The South America, Captain L. W. Brainard, is two hundred and seventy-five feet long, twenty-seven feet wide, nine feet six inches deep, and measures six hundred and forty tons. She has two hundred berths in the gentlemen's cabin, forty-eight in the ladies' saloon, which is eighty-one feet in length on the main deck aft, and fifty-two in twenty-two splendid state-rooms, which enclose a fine sitting-room on the upper deck.

The North America, Captain M. H. Truesdell, is two hundred and fifty feet long, twenty-six feet beam, and nine feet depth of hold. She has accommodations in her cabins and state-rooms for about three hundred persons.

The steamboat Utica is used as a spare boat, and, in the winter season, for hard service, has rendered herself celebrated for her formidable encounters with the ice. She is two hundred feet in length, and twenty-three in breadth, and can accommodate about three hundred persons with berths.

The proprietors of this line have spared neither pains nor expense in the construction and fitting out of these boats. They have adopted all the new improvements which have been proved to lessen the risk of accident, or add to the comfort and convenience of passengers. Daniel Drew and Isaac Newton, Esqs., the principal owners, have, with the assistance of Messrs. Smith and Dimon, ship builders, N. G. Minor, joiner, J. E. Coffee, boiler maker, Hogg and Delamater, engine builders, and other mechanics, determined to add to their already excellent line a steamboat which, in size, extent of ac-

commodation, speed, elegance and beauty of finish, will equal, if not surpass, any on the navigable waters of the world. The Knickerbocker is three hundred and twenty-five feet long, thirty-two feet wide, nine feet nine inches depth of hold, and will measure one thousand and forty-two tons; a greater amount of tonnage than any other American steam vessel. Her engine was built at the Phœnix foundry. The cylinder is sixty-five inches in diameter, and ten feet stroke. The main water-wheel shafts are of wrought iron, forged at Cold Spring, New York, are sixteen inches in diameter, and weigh thirty-one thousand seven hundred and sixty pounds. The cut-off is the one invented by James Cunningham, Esq. The boilers are intended for burning anthracite coal, aided by a blast from blowers, driven by two small engines. The water-wheels are thirty-two feet in diameter, and eleven feet face.

The hull is built of the best materials, well fastened, and unusually strong, in order that she may run, if necessary, on other waters than the Hudson. The main cabins below are three hundred feet in length, and are furnished with three hundred berths, sixty of which are in state-rooms. The ladies' saloon is ninety feet long, twenty-nine feet wide, and has sixty-four berths, twenty-four of which are in twelve state-rooms. On the upper deck there are fifty-six state-rooms, extending on the sides of the boat from the pilot's wheel to the promenade deck, between which is a large saloon, intended for a ladies and gentlemen's sitting-room. Her state-rooms number, altogether, one hundred and three, twelve of which are in the ladies' cabin, thirty in the dining cabin below, fifty-six on the upper deck, and five on the main deck. She is to be commanded by A. P. St. John, long and favorably known as captain of the Rochester. She will be completed by the 1st of August.

BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The report of the directors of the Boston and Worcester railroad, presented at the late annual meeting of the stockholders, announces the near completion of the second track of that road, and of the ample buildings for the accommodation of the increased freight and travel that may be anticipated at the several stations. The whole expenditure, to the date of the report, was \$2,885,374 45, to meet which a capital had been already paid in of \$2,700,000; and this amount will probably be increased by the creation of 2,000 additional shares, making a capital of \$2,900,000. Over \$500,000, in addition to the amount given by the South Cove corporation, have been expended for real estate, tools, and fixed machinery in Boston, including about ten acres of land. About an equal amount has been expended for land and buildings out of Boston—land for the track, engines, and cars; and \$1,680,000 for the road itself, including the two tracks, the branches, sidelings, bank walls, bridges, and every expense immediately connected with the road itself.

PHILADELPHIA, WILMINGTON, AND BALTIMORE RAILROAD.

The Fifth Annual Report of the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad Company, embraces some interesting statements. The gross receipts of the road for 1842, were \$386,874; receipts on the Newcastle and Frenchtown Railroad for the same period, \$82,983; joint gross receipts, \$469,857. The largest receipts for passengers, \$38,370, were in the month of May; the largest receipts for freight, \$7,293, were in the month of February. The largest gross receipts, in 1841, were \$603,868, being an increase of \$134,010 over 1842. Expenses in 1841, \$342,940; expenses in 1842, \$239,965. Decrease in net revenue in 1842, \$31,080. The saving in expense for the last year is a very important matter, and speaks well for the management of the road.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.
IRISH CENSUS FOR 1841.

The Dublin Mercantile Advertiser contains the following curious and interesting statement:—The census, which was simultaneously taken in every parish in Ireland on a given day in 1841, and which has occupied a considerable staff in its preparation for publication, will soon be printed and laid before Parliament. A variety of curious and interesting details will be supplied for the first time. The exact amount of the population, rated according to sex and age—and the diseases which are most prevalent and fatal—the number of insane persons under restraint, with other statistical details, will, we understand, be given with a surprising degree of accuracy. The following is a return of the population:—

Leinster,.....	Males. 963,747	Leinster,.....	Females. 1,009,984
Munster,.....	1,186,190	Munster,..	1,209,971
Connaught,.....	707,884	Connaught,.....	711,072
Ulster,.....	1,161,846	Ulster,.....	1,224,579
Total males,.....	4,019,667	Total,.....	3,155,606
Total population,.....			8,175,273
In 1821, the population was.....			6,801,827
1831 " "			7,767,401
1841 " "			8,175,273
Increase between 1821 and 1831,.....		965,547	
" " 1831 " 1841,.....		407,872	

From this it appears that the increase during the ten years up to 1841, was 557,702 less than it had been in ten years preceding. This extremely reduced rate of increase is a very remarkable and extraordinary fact. It is evident that, during the last ten years, there has been a very decided check to the progress of population in Ireland.

The increase in England, during the ten years from 1831 to 1841, was 2,004,794, which was more than one-seventh upon the population of 1831.

The increase in Ireland, during the same ten years, was 407,872, which was little more than one-twentieth of the population of 1831.

The increase in England has been in the ratio of nearly 3 to 1, as compared with Ireland. This is the first time that Ireland has shown a less degree of increase than England.

CENSUS OF UPPER CANADA.

The late census of Upper Canada gives the population as 506,655, of which number the natal country of—

40,684 is England.	13,969 is Canada, of French origin.
78,255 is Ireland.	6,681 is the Continent of Europe.
39,781 is Scotland.	32,838 is the United States.
247,665 is Canada, of British origin.	7,595 are foreigners, not naturalized.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF INDIAN CORN AND CORN MEAL.

A statement of the quantity of Indian corn and meal exported from the United States from 1791 to 1841, inclusive; also, the value of the same, from 1803 to 1841.

Years.	Corn. <i>Bushels.</i>	Meal. <i>Barrels.</i>	Value. <i>Dollars.</i>	Years.	Corn. <i>Bushels.</i>	Meal. <i>Barrels.</i>	Value. <i>Dollars.</i>
1791,	1,713,241	351,695	1817,	387,454	106,763	1,328,522
1792,	1,964,973	263,405	1818,	1,075,190	120,029	2,335,405
1793,	1,233,768	189,715	1819,	1,086,762	135,271	1,423,792
1794,	1,505,977	241,570	1820,	533,741	146,316	843,025
1795,	1,935,345	512,445	1821,	607,277	131,669	606,279
1796,	1,173,552	540,286	1822,	509,098	148,228	900,656
1797,	804,922	254,799	1823,	749,034	141,501	930,485
1798,	1,218,231	211,694	1824,	779,297	152,723	736,340
1799,	1,200,492	231,226	1825,	869,644	187,225	878,073
1800,	1,694,327	338,108	1826,	505,381	158,652	1,007,321
1801,	1,768,162	919,355	1827,	978,664	131,041	1,022,464
1802,	1,633,283	266,816	1828,	70,492	174,639	822,858
1803,	2,079,608	133,606	2,025,000	1829,	897,656	173,775	974,535
1804,	1,944,873	111,327	2,500,000	1830,	444,107	145,301	597,119
1805,	861,501	116,131	1,442,000	1831,	571,312	207,604	992,051
1806,	1,064,263	108,342	1,286,000	1832,	451,230	146,710	758,775
1807,	1,018,721	136,460	987,000	1833,	437,174	146,678	871,814
1808,	249,533	30,818	298,000	1834,	303,449	149,609	695,483
1809,	522,047	57,260	547,000	1835,	755,781	166,782	1,217,665
1810,	1,054,252	86,744	1,138,000	1836,	124,791	140,917	725,262
1811,	2,790,850	147,426	2,896,000	1837,	151,276	159,435	1,011,634
1812,	2,039,999	90,810	1,939,000	1838,	172,321	171,843	864,391
1813,	1,486,970	58,521	1,838,000	1839,	162,306	165,672	799,516
1814,	61,284	26,438	170,000	1840,	574,279	206,063	1,043,516
1815,	830,516	72,634	1,140,000	1841,	535,727	232,284	995,411
1816,	1,077,614	89,119	1,646,000				

CONSUMPTION OF TOBACCO IN ENGLAND.

We have received, fresh from the London press, (1843,) another volume of "The Progress of the British Nation in its various Social and Economical Relations, from the beginning of the nineteenth century to the present time. By G. R. Porter, Esq., F. R. S." The present volume relates to "Consumption, Accumulation, Moral Progress, Colonial and Foreign Dependencies." We shall, from time to time, lay before our readers the most important and interesting portions of it. We extract the following remarks and tables, all that relate to the consumption of tobacco in Great Britain, Ireland, and the United Kingdom at different periods, from the commencement of the nineteenth century to the present period (1841) inclusive.

The quantity of this plant upon which consumption duty is paid is considerably less at the present time, taking the kingdom throughout and making allowance for the increased population, than it was at the beginning of the present century. This fact is clearly attributable to the increase made in the rate of duty. In great towns and among the easy classes, and especially among our young men whose expenditure is least likely to be carefully regulated as regards minor luxuries, the smoking of tobacco is probably much greater now than it has been at any earlier period. The falling off in the consumption is principally experienced in Ireland, where the smoking of tobacco has long

been a chief luxury among the working classes, and where, considering the few comforts that usually fall to their lot, its diminution betokens a great degree of privation. Contrasting 1839 with 1801, it will be seen that the average use of tobacco in Ireland is only one-half what it was at the beginning of the century, and although the rate of duty is now about three times what it was in 1801, the contribution per head to the revenue has advanced only 75 per cent. In Great Britain, where the condition of the people generally has been more satisfactory than in Ireland, the consumption per head is now about equal to what it was at the beginning of the century, and the contribution to the revenue has consequently been more in agreement with the increased rate of the duty.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Pounds weight consumed. <i>lbs.</i>	Duty per pound.		Amount of duty. <i>£</i>	Aver. yearly consumption. <i>ozs.</i>	Aver. contribution to the revenue.	
		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>			<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1801,.....	10,514,998	1	7 6.20	923,855	15.37	1	8½
1811,.....	14,923,243	2	2 13.20	1,710,848	18.95	2	8½
1821,.....	12,983,198	4	0	2,600,415	14.43	3	7½
1831,.....	15,350,018	3	0	2,338,107	14.84	2	9½
1841,.....	16,830,593	2,716,217	14.52	2	11½

It is made evident by these figures that the duty of 4*s.* per *lb.* was excessive. The advance to that rate from 2*s.* 2*d.* caused a diminished consumption to the extent of one-fourth; and the revenue per head, which, had the consumption not been lessened, would have been 4*s.* 10½*d.*, amounted to only 3*s.* 7½*d.*

IRELAND.

Years.	Pounds weight consumed. <i>lbs.</i>	Duty per pound.		Amount of duty. <i>£</i>	Aver. yearly consumption. <i>ozs.</i>	Aver. contribution to the revenue.	
		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>			<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1801,.....	6,389,754	1	0 7.10	285,482	18.95	1	0½
1811,.....	6,453,024	1	7	552,082	17.35	1	10½
1821,.....	2,614,954	3	0	528,168	6.15	1	6½
1831,.....	4,183,823	3	0	626,485	8.61	1	7½
1841,.....	5,478,767	3	0	863,946	10.71	2	0

UNITED KINGDOM.

1801,.....	16,904,752	1,209,337	16.05	1	5½
1811,.....	21,376,267	2,262,930	18.44	2	5½
1821,.....	15,598,152	3,122,583	11.77	2	11½
1831,.....	19,533,841	2,964,930	12.85	2	5½
1841,.....	22,309,360	3,580,164	13.36	2	8

One great evil that attends upon exorbitant taxation on this article of consumption, is the encouragement that it gives to smuggling. The amount of the duty is so vastly out of proportion to its value, that the contraband dealer can afford to lose several ventures if he can succeed in safely disposing of one.

The high rates of duty charged on tobacco in various European countries have been felt as a grievance by some of the states of the American Union, and threats have for some time been used, that unless an alteration be made in those rates, retaliatory measures will be taken, and heavy duties placed upon some of the staple manufactures of Europe when imported into the United States. This very ineffectual, but by no means uncommon method of meeting the case, has very recently been adopted by the American congress. The result of the new tariff of the United States will, in all probability, be to limit the sales as well as the purchases of America, and instead of causing an increased vent for tobacco, to diminish it by lessening the means which foreigners have for buying.

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

A statement of the quantity of Tobacco exported from the United States in each year from 1791 to 1841, and of the value of the same from 1802 to 1841, inclusive, compiled from official documents.

Years.	Hogsheads. Number.	Value. Dollars.	Years.	Hogsheads. Number.	Value. Dollars.
1791,.....	101,272	1817,.....	62,365	9,511,529
1792,.....	112,428	1818,.....	84,337	10,241,304
1793,.....	59,947	1819,.....	69,427	8,874,167
1794,.....	76,826	1820,.....	83,940	8,118,188
1795,.....	61,050	1821,.....	66,858	5,798,045
1796,.....	69,018	1822,.....	83,169	6,380,020
1797,.....	58,167	1823,.....	99,009	6,437,627
1798,.....	68,567	1824,.....	77,883	5,059,355
1799,.....	96,070	1825,.....	75,984	6,287,976
1800,.....	78,680	1826,.....	64,098	5,347,208
1801,.....	103,758	1827,.....	100,025	6,816,146
1802,.....	77,721	6,220,000	1828,.....	96,278	5,480,707
1803,.....	86,291	6,209,000	1829,.....	77,131	5,185,370
1804,.....	83,343	6,000,000	1830,.....	83,810	5,833,112
1805,.....	71,252	6,341,000	1831,.....	86,718	4,892,388
1806,.....	83,186	6,572,000	1832,.....	106,806	5,999,769
1807,.....	62,186	5,476,000	1833,.....	83,153	5,755,968
1808,.....	9,576	26,000	1834,.....	87,979	6,595,308
1809,.....	53,921	3,774,000	1835,.....	94,353	8,250,577
1810,.....	84,134	5,048,000	1836,.....	109,442	10,058,640
1811,.....	35,828	2,150,000	1837,.....	100,232	5,795,647
1812,.....	26,094	1,514,000	1838,.....	100,593	7,392,029
1813,.....	5,314	319,000	1839,.....	78,995	9,832,943
1814,.....	3,125	232,000	1840,.....	119,484	9,883,957
1815,.....	88,337	8,235,000	1841,.....	147,828	12,576,703
1816,.....	69,241	12,809,000			

BALTIMORE FLOUR TRADE.

The miller's year, as we learn from Lyford's Commercial Chronicle, commences with July, and ends with June. The following is the amount of flour inspected in the city of Baltimore during the last three years, ending June of each year, viz :—

	Barrels.	Half Bbls.
1842 to 1843—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	150,893	9,480
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	186,502	8,595
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	111,765	3,185
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	102,473	7,440
Total,.....	551,633	28,700
1841 to 1842—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	144,115	8,810
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	179,217	8,586
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	111,441	4,412
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	99,965	4,475
Total,.....	534,738	26,283
1840 to 1841—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	136,625	8,075
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	198,530	9,907
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	166,264	6,474
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	123,420	7,846
Total,.....	624,839	32,302

TRADE OF BUFFALO.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser, of July 1st, 1843, gives the subjoined list of arrivals, &c., with the aggregate of principal articles landed at that port from the commencement of lake navigation to 1st July, for three seasons:—

IMPORTS AT THIS PORT TO FIRST JULY.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Flour,.....bbls.	284,188	255,034	322,434
Wheat,bush.	328,447	397,674	428,247
Corn,.....	34,317	136,264	32,700
Oats,.....	*	116,806	none.
Ashes,.....casks	3,241	7,179	14,587
Whiskey,.....	8,311	7,628	4,049
Tobacco,.....	unknown	693	1,192
Hams and bacon,.....	3,548	1,272	3,244
Pork,.....bbls.	59,423	47,872	34,178
Seed,.....	2,757	3,682	3,252
Fish,.....	1,232	304	660
Butter and lard,.....kegs	20,536	33,304	28,942
Hides,.....No.	11,298	13,001	10,640
Lead,.....pigs	unknown	8,014	8,130
Brooms,.....dozens	3,181	1,229	877
Staves,.....	2,861,000	2,320,000	457,000

Below will also be found the date of commencing lake business, the number of arrivals, the quantity of wheat and flour landed up to the 1st July, with the prices paid at that period for those two articles, for five seasons:—

Lake open—	Arrivals.	Wheat. Bushels.	Value.	Flour. Barrels.	Value.
1843, May 6,.....	670	428,247	\$1 12	322,434	\$5 12
1842, March 7,.....	812	397,674	1 10	255,034	5 12
1841, April 14,.....	698	328,447	1 10	284,188	4 90
1840, April 24,.....	546	261,262	75	218,206	3 70
1839, April 11,.....	446	349,688	1 12	142,321	5 63

This exhibit shows that although the arrivals here have been one hundred and forty-two less than in 1842, the aggregate of wheat landed is 30,572 bushels greater, while the excess of flour received is 67,400 barrels above the same season; and so in proportion to the three preceding years. The universal cry among the dealers before navigation commenced, was—"The receipts will be short; the grain is not in the country to come forth." How fallacious!

MICHIGAN.

Exports from the Port of Detroit in 1842.

Flour,.....barrels	180,210	Whiskey & High Wines, casks.	383
Pork,....."	19,461	W. I. & Stand. Staves, M....	773½
Fish,....."	11,894	Hams,.....pounds	108,155
Lard,....."	107	Shoulders,....."	35,500
Butter,....."	609	Wool,....."	33,464
Wheat,.....bush'ls	98,923	Lumber,.....feet...	3,000
Corn,....."	100	Michigan Glass,.....boxes	1,860
Pot Ashes,.....tons...	912½	Merchandise,....."	130
Grass & Flax Seed, tcs. & bbls.	767	Brooms,.....dozen	362

Amounting, in value, to..... \$1,108,496 81

The value of exports from this district to Canada amounted, during the year, to \$323,943 41.

* Included in the corn.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.

The following statement, showing the annual amount of the exports of domestic manufactures of cotton to each of the different countries to which they were chiefly sent from the United States in each year, from 1826 to 1842, was compiled from the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury on commerce and navigation by a correspondent of the United States Gazette :—

MEXICO

Has been a regular, and, for several years, a large customer, as well for colored as for white goods. Of the former, in 1826 she took \$20,464, in 1835 \$291,780; since then there has been a falling off in the amount, so that, in 1841, it was only \$52,079. Of white goods she received, in 1826, \$309,807; in 1835, \$1,054,608; which has since gradually declined to \$61,583 in 1841, owing, probably, to the perturbed state of that country.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$20,464	\$309,807	1834,.....	\$91,249	\$417,502
1827,.....	18,397	311,492	1835,.....	291,780	1,054,608
1828,.....	21,897	63,106	1836,.....	2,818	789,831
1829,.....	48,704	116,627	1837,.....	223,015	94,920
1830,.....	32,832	465,331	1838,.....	99,109	371,023
1831,.....	79,737	342,837	1839,.....	100,617	170,523
1832,.....	29,200	165,701	1840,.....	86,883	155,220
1833,.....	235,481	578,057	1841,.....	52,079	61,583

THE CENTRAL REPUBLIC

Has likewise regularly received from us since 1826, but to a comparatively small extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$1,254	\$22,061	1834,.....	\$28,123
1827,.....	738	41,887	1835,.....	\$2,724	18,134
1828,.....	4,328	17,070	1836,.....	20,459	21,321
1829,.....	6,046	23,616	1837,.....	5,931	51,178
1830,.....	540	35,468	1838,.....	7,788	48,938
1831,.....	200	14,849	1839,.....	1,414	36,470
1832,.....	3,151	27,240	1840,.....	13,677	68,093
1833,.....	14,490	103,323	1841,.....	5,539	46,314

TEXAS,

Considering the unsettled state of the country since its independence, has formed a considerable outlet for our manufactures, and, when established, will no doubt afford a permanent and extensive market. The first exports appear to have been made in 1837.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837,.....	\$9,593	\$50,051	1840,.....	\$86,300	\$67,488
1838,.....	30,711	29,553	1841,.....	54,393	43,030
1839,.....	95,857	138,603			

HONDURAS

Has taken, nearly every year, both white and colored goods, and the export is increasing.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1827,.....	\$450	\$476	1836,.....	\$507	\$3,270
1828,.....	250	1837,.....	1,742	5,292
1829,.....	955	13,754
1832,.....	5,454	1,400	1839,.....	607	25,061
1833,.....	1,699	9,221	1840,.....	1,246	25,044
1834,.....	2,742	1841,.....	33,173
1835,.....	944	11,102			

CHILI

Has uniformly been our largest customer, especially for white goods, receiving at the same time, to some extent, colored goods also.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$37,403	1829,.....	\$52,090	\$341,695
1827,.....	1,894	271,033	1830,.....	5,847	90,077
1828,.....	15,747	503,989	1831,.....	4,456	306,336

CHILI—Continued.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1832,.....	\$275	\$278,146	1837,.....	\$57,865	\$660,717
1833,.....	10,913	346,651	1838,.....	4,006	634,201
1834,.....	7,029	316,548	1839,.....	20,989	914,604
1835,.....	5,828	249,310	1840,.....	30,687	827,931
1836,.....	123,771	273,359	1841,.....	12,870	470,419

BRAZIL

Furnishes the next largest market for both white and colored goods.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$1,559	\$215,287	1834,.....	\$16,365	\$306,824
1827,.....	2,736	63,880	1835,.....	20,827	246,089
1828,.....	2,544	109,853	1836,.....	12,161	187,967
1829,.....	5,904	172,231	1837,.....	86,769	217,095
1830,.....	554	54,234	1838,.....	32,887	499,847
1831,.....	1,388	62,541	1839,.....	61,017	231,242
1832,.....	13,244	166,023	1840,.....	79,533	391,170
1833,.....	16,545	207,151	1841,.....	164,031	424,701

THE CISTALATINE REPUBLIC

Commenced receiving our manufactures in 1837 to a small extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837,.....	\$1,172	\$344	1840,.....	\$6,494	\$26,165
1838,.....	3,154	16,190	1841,.....	6,548	12,752
1839,.....	10,866	11,294			

BUENOS AYRES.

Till 1828, and during the remainder of the period, the Argentine Republic received regularly of cotton goods from the United States.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$2,486	\$42,591	1834,.....	\$4,824	\$258,357
1827,.....	370	5,531	1835,.....	101,488
1828,.....	136	17,967	1836,.....	13,184	83,423
1829,.....	4,081	143,570	1837,.....	2,803	50,657
1830,.....	1,265	43,509	1838,.....	5,496	98,596
1831,.....	30	32,922	1839,.....	2,105	45,139
1832,.....	38,116	127,857	1840,.....	864	92,405
1833,.....	12,419	138,466	1841,.....	21,622	131,342

PERU,

From 1820 to 1832, was a regular customer, omitting 1831. No further exports appear to have been made till 1837 and 1838, since when they have ceased.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Years.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$11,700	\$29,706	1830,.....	\$2,481
1827,.....	257	62,324	1832,.....	2,223
1828,.....	5,674	40,290	1837,.....	\$32,466	15,104
1829,.....	1,612	41,556	1838,.....	97,713

COLOMBIA

Has been a small but regular customer from 1826 to 1838, when Venezuela and New Grenada took her place.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$3,230	\$14,411	1833,.....	\$1,852	\$33,343
1827,.....	2,598	14,284	1834,.....	15,914	41,422
1828,.....	1,803	5,138	1835,.....	9,426	44,209
1829,.....	358	4,555	1836,.....	12,217	50,035
1830,.....	295	11,693	1837,.....	27,739	70,418
1831,.....	980	14,623	1838,.....	11,543	43,715
1832,.....	3,057	20,378			

Venezuela in 1839 took of colored goods, \$2,003; 1840, \$12,569; 1841, \$3,988; and of white goods in 1838, \$16,945; 1839, \$49,549; 1840, \$80,621; 1841, \$26,083.

New Grenada in 1839 took all white goods, \$2,858; 1840, \$3,527; 1841, \$1,794.

SOUTH AMERICA, GENERALLY.

Under this head, in addition to the foregoing, there were exported in 1827, \$2,339; in 1829, \$967; in 1834, \$90; in 1839, \$12,276; in 1840, \$58,810; and in 1841, \$37,760, all white goods; and in 1840, \$766, and in 1841, \$21,051 of colored goods.

CHINA

Does not now, for the first time, receive our cotton manufactures, having, since 1826, been a customer to a considerable amount, viz :—

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	\$154	\$14,776	1834.....	\$146,881
1827.....	9,388	1835.....	\$2,552	170,175
1828.....	14,981	1836.....	15,351	70,394
1829.....	25,913	1837.....	11,997	189,255
1830.....	52,080	1838.....	11,280	507,560
1831.....	49,256	1839.....	6,360	255,975
1832.....	87,480	1840.....	361,995
1833.....	64,881	127,813	1841.....	173,755

TURKEY, LEVANT, AND EGYPT,

With the exception of \$417 in 1828, and \$172 in 1829, have received all in white cottons.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826.....	\$29,058	1834.....	\$30,433
1827.....	46,321	1835.....	14,969
1828.....	3,880	1836.....	51,240
1829.....	4,004	1837.....	21,720
1830.....	29,117	1838.....	111,947
1831.....	11,599	1839.....	48,996
1832.....	32,961	1840.....	63,749
1833.....	70,902	1841.....	81,780

NORTHWEST COAST.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	\$300	\$9,951	1832.....	\$11,226
1827.....	67	14,364	1833.....	8,239
1828.....	1,025	17,488	1834.....	\$1,130	12,269
1829.....	1,075	1835.....	4,809
1830.....	396	7,188	1836.....	6,104	5,900
1831.....	5,113	1840.....	24	59

SOUTH SEAS,

Commenced in 1826, and have furnished a regular market.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	\$433	\$3,859	1835.....	\$4,185
1828.....	1,180	9,403	1836.....	24,764
1829.....	1,824	2,064	1837.....	8,848
1830.....	1,194	600	1838.....	\$4,060	11,590
1831.....	371	1839.....	5,359	37,739
1833.....	4,677	7,455	1840.....	6,371	49,174
1834.....	96	3,911			

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837.....	\$15,227	1839.....	\$37,739	\$5,350
1838.....	\$11,590	4,060	1840.....	49,174	6,371

In the report of 1841, these two are united—\$45,373 worth of colored, and \$60,128 worth of white goods.

AUSTRALIA,

In 1838, received \$910 worth of cotton goods; and in 1840, \$3,590.

MANILLA AND PHILIPPINE ISLANDS,

Have been regular customers since 1828; taking altogether of white goods, excepting \$362 worth of colored in 1829.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1828,.....	\$534	1835,.....	\$35,471
1829,.....	190	1836,.....	5,030
1830,.....	25,024	1838,.....	79,531
1831,.....	8,571	1839,.....	95,416
1832,.....	2,680	1840,.....	80,271
1834,.....	3,662	1841,.....	33,050

ASIA, GENERALLY.

Besides the preceding, there have been regular exports to other parts of Asia, under this general head.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$1,277	1834,.....	\$166	\$9,723
1827,.....	3,100	1835,.....	1,170	33,668
1828,.....	583	1836,.....	9,316
1829,.....	5,233	1837,.....	58,931
1830,.....	10,846	1838,.....	376	82,427
1831,.....	7,316	1839,.....	58,013	67,126
1832,.....	18,334	1840,.....	21,231	80,597
1833,.....	\$278	12,678	1841,.....	2,029	183,577

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The export commenced in 1828. From that year to 1833, none but white goods; for five subsequent years, a portion of colored; since then, all white.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1828,.....	\$2,577	1835,.....	\$283	\$124,602
1829,.....	5,777	1836,.....	134,914
1830,.....	4,110	1837,.....	1,911	240,699
1831,.....	3,500	1838,.....	4,000	129,350
1832,.....	6,396	1839,.....	65,618
1833,.....	\$5,339	26,285	1840,.....	90,241
1834,.....	2,072	52,896	1841,.....	82,789

DUTCH WEST INDIES,

Have likewise been small customers for several years.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$1,504	1835,.....	\$433	\$842
1827,.....	\$939	1836,.....	1,050	262
1828,.....	176	706	1837,.....	2,978	6,091
1831,.....	171	1838,.....	6,704
1832,.....	854	1839,.....	5,989
1833,.....	15	1,422	1840,.....	960	16,637
1834,.....	428	772	1841,.....	2,000	3,373

HOLLAND,

In 1832, took \$900, and in 1837, \$5,027 worth of white goods.

HANSE TOWNS OF GERMANY,

In 1826, took \$315 worth of white goods; in 1832, \$72; in 1834, \$820; in 1839, \$20; in 1840, \$2,150; in 1841, \$1,412; and in 1837, \$288 worth of colored goods.

BELGIUM,

In 1840, took \$341, and in 1841, \$10,894 worth of cotton goods.

FRENCH WEST INDIES,

Have constantly received a small amount, chiefly white goods.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$657	1831,.....	\$436
1827,.....	1,004	1832,.....	505
1828,.....	320	1833,.....	1,968
1829,.....	1,807	1834,.....	818
1830,.....	418	1835,.....	2,504

FRENCH WEST INDIES—Continued.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1836,.....	\$6,345	1839,.....	\$4,693
1837,.....	3,395	1840,.....	5,193
1838,.....	5,558	1841,.....	3,536

and in 1826, \$20 worth of colored goods; 1827, \$47; 1833, \$472; 1834, \$144; 1840, \$158; 1841, \$68.

FRANCE ON THE ATLANTIC

Received, in 1832, \$100, and in 1838, \$310 worth of white goods. Her African settlements took, in 1830, \$266 worth; and her ports on the Mediterranean, in 1830, received \$1,292; 1833, \$450; 1835, \$931.

RUSSIA

Received, in 1830, \$52, and in 1839, \$12,131 worth of white goods.

ENGLAND, AND THE DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

To England, herself, the amount is very small, and probably was only designed to exhibit samples of our different manufactures. In 1826, it was only \$664; in 1829, \$450, of white goods. In 1828, the first colored goods were sent, amounting only to \$273; in 1830, \$1,852; 1832, \$2,289; 1833, \$1,861; 1834, \$4,566, all white goods. In 1835, \$573 worth of colored; in 1836, \$2,233 worth of white, and \$8,580 worth of colored; and in 1837, \$11,899 of colored, which appears to be the last export up to 1841. Several of her colonies have been regular customers, to some extent.

BRITISH EAST INDIES.

In 1827, the export commenced, and has been continued ever since, increasing, till, instead of deriving, as formerly, from this quarter, our principal supply of white goods, we received not a piece from thence in 1840 and 1841; but in each of those years furnished them with over \$150,000 worth of our own manufacture.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1827,.....	\$1,200	1835,.....	\$27,300
1828,.....	1,957	1836,.....	102,746
1829,.....	9,553	1837,.....	52,017
1830,.....	16,358	1838,.....	134,848
1831,.....	29,016	1839,.....	42,862
1832,.....	26,073	1840,.....	153,484
1833,.....	36,013	1841,.....	157,560
1834,.....	89,454		

In 1832, \$87 worth of colored goods were exported to the East Indies; in 1838, \$5,914; and in 1839, \$442.

ST. HELENA.

In 1833, \$2,426 worth of colored, and \$1,846 worth of white goods, were exported to this island; and in 1834, \$1,407 worth of colored, and \$7,108 worth of white—none since.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Received from us, in 1826, \$584 worth of white goods; in 1833, \$865; in 1835, \$2,015; in 1836, \$1,023; and in 1838, \$552. Here the exportation ceased.

GIBRALTAR.

There have annually, since 1826, been clearances of our manufactures for this port, chiefly white goods.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$6,095	1834,.....	\$3,638
1827,.....	22,127	1835,.....	4,550
1828,.....	22,736	1836,.....	19,709
1829,.....	2,914	1837,.....	3,392
1830,.....	40,936	1838,.....	9,986
1831,.....	7,414	1839,.....	6,071
1832,.....	962	1840,.....	1,763
1833,.....	1,846		

In 1828, \$446 worth of colored goods were exported; in 1830, \$280; in 1834, \$2,153; and in 1839, \$933.

MALTA.

Prior to 1834, Italy was united with Malta. In that year she received \$2,041 worth of white goods; in 1835, \$10,475; in 1837, \$11,695; in 1838, \$5,120; in 1839, \$13,407; and in the same year \$383 worth of colored goods.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

In 1826, \$11 worth of colored, and \$1,122 of white goods, were exported. From that year to 1831, there was no further export. Since then, it has amounted annually to more or less.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1831,.....	\$292	1837,.....	\$731	\$13,144
1832,.....	433	1838,.....	132	1,664
1833,.....	2,662	1839,.....	581	6,083
1834,.....	\$469	10,248	1840,.....	1,375	3,338
1835,.....	1,252	12,341	1841,.....	1,530	4,374
1836,.....	2,237	9,689			

BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES.

Have been regular customers to a small amount.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$736	\$3,689	1834,.....	\$2,067	\$12,372
1827,.....	1,524	4,762	1835,.....	75	12,678
1828,.....	593	4,800	1836,.....	305	1,451
1829,.....	800	1,452	1837,.....	620	2,444
1830,.....	323	1,189	1838,.....	48	5,274
1831,.....	83	2,693	1839,.....	13	1,885
1832,.....	7,719	1840,.....	7,428
1833,.....	354	20,935	1841,.....	3,453

BRITISH GUIANA

Received, in 1833, \$337 worth of colored goods; in 1838, \$4,121; and in 1841, \$9,533.

SPAIN ON THE MEDITERRANEAN,

Received, in 1840, \$7,013 worth of white goods; and the

SPANISH WEST INDIES

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$126	1834,.....	\$403
1827,.....	1,175	1835,.....	\$1,127
1828,.....	259	1836,.....	995	119
1829,.....	497	1837,.....	1,561	2,673
1830,.....	\$270	640	1838,.....	300	458
1831,.....	185	595	1839,.....	778
1832,.....	96	1840,.....	1,013	2,849
1833,.....	1,723	360			

ITALY AND MALTA.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$5,102	1830,.....	\$24,514
1827,.....	1,401	1831,.....	660
1828,.....	2,941	1832,.....	7,366
1829,.....	1,485		

In 1838, Italy alone received \$44 worth of white goods; in 1840, \$1,342; and in 1841, \$10,274.

GREECE,

In 1838, received \$1,579 worth of white goods.

TRIESTE, AND OTHER PORTS ON THE ADRIATIC.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$4,095	1835,.....	\$1,000
1827,.....	20,465	1837,.....	200
1829,.....	10,080	1839,.....	1,484
1834,.....	416	1840,.....	1,350

all white goods. In 1837, \$289 worth of colored; and in 1839, \$138.

SICILY,

In 1841, commenced by receiving \$500 worth of white goods.

AFRICA, GENERALLY,

Has afforded, since 1826, a considerable market; which, as the American settlements there progress, will continue to extend the consumption of our manufactures.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1825,.....	\$3,609	\$1,759	1834,.....	\$13,607	\$13,927
1827,.....	3,975	3,450	1835,.....	18,284	27,475
1828,.....	4,007	11,390	1836,.....	17,005	18,827
1829,.....	6,369	9,249	1837,.....	12,900	43,594
1830,.....	4,350	4,619	1838,.....	9,148	69,568
1831,.....	4,345	6,171	1839,.....	22,974	68,790
1832,.....	8,455	19,015	1840,.....	22,903	53,478
1833,.....	18,004	15,665	1841,.....	33,097	84,266

PORTUGAL

Has received a small amount, viz:—In 1826, \$833 worth of white goods; in 1837, \$2,244; in 1838, \$740; and in 1835, \$548 worth of colored.

AZORES,

In 1826, received \$2,636 worth of colored, and \$200 worth of white; and since 1831 have continued to take a small amount.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1831,.....	\$825	1837,.....	\$335	\$1,483
1832,.....	\$124	704	1838,.....	495	1,728
1833,.....	1,329	1839,.....	823
1834,.....	3,172	1840,.....	3,617	1,358
1835,.....	1,460	1841,.....	1,584
1836,.....	1,196			

MADEIRA

Has also furnished a regular but small market from 1826 to 1838.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$2,504	1833,.....	\$1,661	\$4,476
1827,.....	417	1834,.....	399	295
1828,.....	90	1835,.....	213	2,471
1829,.....	\$711	5,187	1836,.....	50	548
1830,.....	310	1837,.....	2,465
1831,.....	21	88	1838,.....	499

TENERIFFE,

In 1826, received \$502 worth of white goods; in 1827, \$500; in 1829, \$5,650; in 1830, \$1,107; in 1831, \$1,959; in 1832, \$516; and in 1827, \$21 worth of colored goods; in 1831, \$480.

CAPE DE VERDES

Have been more important customers.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$9,693	1834,.....	\$422	\$12,550
1827,.....	\$1,760	23,304	1835,.....	514	24,539
1828,.....	2,236	7,216	1836,.....	697	16,664
1829,.....	1,743	20,410	1837,.....	8,739	81,647
1830,.....	1,381	17,318	1838,.....	13,249	52,911
1831,.....	2,140	13,647	1839,.....	2,175	35,410
1832,.....	894	9,023	1840,.....	4,457	16,224
1833,.....	4,785	16,655	1841,.....	8,487	16,179

HAYTI

Has received regularly from us during the whole period, to a moderate extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$6,292	\$9,374	1830,.....	\$4,618	\$9,267
1827,.....	2,441	4,023	1831,.....	1,398	15,363
1828,.....	2,282	5,396	1832,.....	1,288	15,660
1829,.....	3,423	4,894	1833,.....	8,348	9,304

HAYTI—Continued.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1834,.....	\$4,459	\$10,945	1838,.....	\$4,373	\$24,078
1835,.....	7,805	20,876	1839,.....	14,829	47,034
1836,.....	5,931	21,984	1840,.....	8,519	39,702
1837,.....	10,468	15,302	1841,.....	6,100	34,111

CUBA.

Both colored and white goods have also found a tolerable market in this island, from the first export in 1826.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$9,336	\$23,395	1834,.....	\$20,467	\$32,983
1827,.....	6,082	13,509	1835,.....	24,218	66,140
1828,.....	2,737	15,126	1836,.....	9,009	23,317
1829,.....	8,112	13,868	1837,.....	17,566	43,416
1830,.....	4,155	7,021	1838,.....	3,356	115,629
1831,.....	1,970	4,564	1839,.....	3,383	51,337
1832,.....	894	7,448	1840,.....	8,957	53,557
1833,.....	10,810	9,783	1841,.....	4,884	42,554

DANISH WEST INDIES

Have been regular customers.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$7,171	\$17,301	1834,.....	\$2,359	\$17,909
1827,.....	749	7,238	1835,.....	4,791	13,520
1828,.....	4,510	6,439	1836,.....	4,194	10,465
1829,.....	1,745	2,477	1837,.....	2,568	24,946
1830,.....	18	4,100	1838,.....	736	13,267
1831,.....	195	3,702	1839,.....	1,032	16,338
1832,.....	623	5,476	1840,.....	3,261	32,346
1833,.....	3,230	6,354	1841,.....	4,751	35,478

SWEDISH WEST INDIES,

Since 1828, have taken more or less.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1828,.....	\$534	1836,.....	\$443
1829,.....	\$768	486	1838,.....	\$102	734
1830,.....	1,020	1839,.....	452	1,687
1831,.....	300	1840,.....	619	471
1832,.....	150	1841,.....	76
1835,.....	192	1,094			

WEST INDIES, GENERALLY,

Not before mentioned, have received small amounts.

From the preceding statements, prepared with considerable labor from treasury documents, some idea may be formed of the importance of this branch of American manufactures, which is yet in its infancy, and struggling under many difficulties. It is gratifying to find that American goods are making their way to almost every portion of the globe to which our commerce extends; and although to many places the amount of export is at present small, indications are afforded of the future extent to which it may be carried. These tables will be useful, as pointing out the various markets to which cotton goods have been sent, and directing future adventurers to those which appear to hold out favorable prospects, from the gradual increase of the amount which they have required.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Illustrations of the Croton Aqueduct.* By F. B. TOWER, of the Engineer Department. 1 vol. quarto. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

We have looked over the pages and illustrations of this splendid volume with great interest. The views it furnishes of the important points on the line of the Croton aqueduct, are engraved from sketches taken by Mr. Tower, who was employed as an engineer on the work from its commencement to its completion, for his own satisfaction; but the interest so generally taken in the enterprise suggested to him the propriety of presenting them to the public in the present form. The first forty-seven pages of the volume are devoted to a comprehensive description of the aqueducts of ancient Rome; the principal aqueducts constructed by the ancient Romans in other parts of Europe; aqueducts of modern Rome; principal modern aqueducts of Italy, France, &c.; aqueducts of Mexico, and the adjacent states; aqueducts of South America, fountains, &c. Then follows a history of the progressive measures for supplying the city of New York with water; of the plans proposed for the same purpose, and of that which was finally adopted, and has been so successfully and satisfactorily completed; the sources of the Croton river; flow of water in the Croton; capacity of the fountain reservoir; general design of the channel-way and reservoirs; an account of the general construction of the aqueduct, and a description of the line of it, are prepared with good taste, and the utmost accuracy. The illustrations, twenty in number, are beautifully executed, rendering the work an ornament for the library or centre-table, aside from its great practical value to the accomplished engineer, to whom we should suppose it would be almost indispensable. We give a list of the illustrations, as follows:—Sections of the Croton aqueduct; Entrance ventilator; Isometrical view of culvert; Tunnel and gate-chamber, at the head of the aqueduct; View above the Croton dam; Entablature over the entrance to the aqueduct; View below the Croton dam; View of the aqueduct, and aqueduct-bridge, at Sing Sing; Aqueduct-bridge, for roadway; Croton aqueduct at Mill river—at Jewell's brook—at Hastings—at Yonkers—at Harlem river; View of the jet at Harlem river; Croton aqueduct, at Clendenning valley; Aqueduct-bridge, at Clendenning valley; Plan of the receiving reservoir, and Isometrical view of the distributing reservoir. Appended to the volume, is a valuable essay on the natural history of water; embracing an analysis of the Croton and Schuylkill waters, and a variety of other appropriate and useful facts, prepared by Charles A. Lee, M. D. The work has cost Mr. Tower great care and industry, and a large sum of money; so that the whole edition, if disposed of at the moderate price of \$3 50 per copy, will only pay the actual expenditures in the engraving and printing of the book, leaving no balance to compensate him for the time occupied in making the drawings, and preparing the history and letter-press illustrations for publication.

2.—*Thirty Years from Home; or, A Voice from the Main-Deck:* being the Experience of SAMUEL LEECH. Embellished with engravings. Boston: Tappan & Denet. 1843.

It is well remarked that the quarter-deck has long and often told its own story. In this volume, an unlettered tar details the secrets of the naval main-deck. The author was six years in the British and American navies. Captured in the British frigate *Macedonian* in the last war, he afterwards entered the American navy, and was taken in the United States brig *Syren*, by the British ship *Medway*. His experience has furnished the materials of an interesting volume. The credentials to his character for veracity are such as to induce the belief that the details of his life and adventures may be relied upon as generally authentic.

3.—*Speeches of John C. Calhoun.* Delivered in the Congress of the United States from 1811 to the present time. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

This volume contains nearly six hundred closely printed octavo pages, embracing thirty-eight speeches, mostly delivered in Congress from 1811 to 1843. Whatever difference of opinion may exist among our countrymen as to the soundness of Mr. Calhoun's political doctrines, no one can detract from the transcendent genius of the statesman, or the unsullied purity of the man. These speeches afford the best, if not the only means of knowing the political opinions of a citizen "who, for a long succession of years, has occupied a conspicuous place before the public; who, as a high officer of government at one time, and as a statesman and legislator both before and since that time, has taken a leading part in all the great political questions that have agitated the country; who has long possessed an almost paramount influence in one part of the Union, and been looked upon, in fact, as the chief representative of political opinion in that portion; and who, finally, has now retired from direct participation in the councils of the country, only to occupy the station of a candidate for the highest office in the gift of the people." The compiler, in his zeal for Mr. Calhoun's consistency, has omitted several of his earlier, but not less able speeches. No one, however, supposes for a moment that the high-minded statesman had any participation in the disingenuous act. It seems to us a very strange notion, that a statesman may not modify his opinions, or adopt from conviction entirely different views, without losing the confidence of his constituents, or incurring the charge of inconsistency. We have been inclined to think that such changes were evidences of greater light, or at least indications of a commendable frankness and honesty of purpose. We would not, however, be understood as the advocate of all Mr. Calhoun's political doctrines, or as participating in the party politics of any man.

4.—*Tables exhibiting the Present Worth of Government or State Stocks, etc.* By JOSEPH M. PRICE. New York: Peter A. Mesier. 1843.

These tables, which have evidently been prepared with great care, are designed to show, at a glance, what price should be paid for stocks on which interest is payable semi-annually or quarterly, and which are redeemable at the end of from one to fifty years, in order to have them yield to the purchaser any given rate of interest, from 3 to 10 per cent. They are calculated upon the only true principle that can be used, to produce direct and positive results—that of annuities and compound interest. A person purchasing a stock, purchases an annuity equal in amount to the yearly interest the stock bears, and also purchases the par of the stock payable at a future period. The present worth of these two, at the rate of interest assumed or desired by the purchaser, constitutes the present worth of the stock at such assumed rate. The labor of constructing these tables has been vastly increased by referring the interest to a yearly basis, as the only mode of instituting a proper comparison between a stock, the interest of which is payable semi-annually, and the same stock interest payable quarterly. And, although this gives rise to what might, at first sight, appear an inconsistency, (as, for instance, a five per cent stock, to produce five per cent, is shown to be worth a trifle over par,) yet it assimilates itself precisely to the most approved method of keeping mercantile accounts—in which interest is debited on all payments, and credited on all receipts, to the end of the year—as is clearly and fully set forth in the introduction to the work.

5.—*The Marriage Ring; or, How to make Home Happy.* From the writings of JOHN ANGELL JAMES. Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 1843.

This beautiful little volume is compiled from the writings of an able and popular English dissenter. The compiler informs us that he "endeavored to present a work that shall be both interesting and instructive, and a suitable offering from the hands of the Christian pastor or pious friend."

6.—*Mental Hygiene; or, an Examination of the Intellect and Passions, designed to illustrate their influence on Health and the Duration of Life.* By WILLIAM SWEETSER, M. D., late Professor of the Theory and Practice of Physic, and Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1843.

We had read with interest the work of Dr. S. on consumption, published several years ago, a work written with clearness, and divested of the technicalities of the profession, so desirable to the unprofessional reader, seeking information on subjects that do not fall immediately within his vocation or calling. The present work is in the same style, and more generally interesting. Its leading design, as the title implies, is to elucidate the influence of intellect and passion upon the health and endurance of the human organization. The work is divided into two parts. In the first, are considered the intellectual operations in respect to their influence on the general functions of the body. The second part is devoted to a view of the moral feelings or passions, in the relation which they also sustain to our physical nature, embracing a concise definition, with such general classification as is necessary to the leading design of the work; describing a few of the most important of the passions belonging to each of the three great classes, namely, pleasurable, painful, and mixed, into which they are separated; examining closely their physical phenomena, and incidental influence in the well-being of the human mechanism. The evil consequences resulting from an ill-regulated imagination, to the firmness of the nervous system, and the integrity of the general health, are forcibly exposed. Truth being the grand aim of Dr. S. in his investigations, all mystical speculations and ungrounded theories, whether of a metaphysical or moral nature, appear to be avoided in the pages of the work. It is addressed to no particular class of readers, and its matter is rendered as plain and comprehensible as the nature of the subject will admit.

7.—*Davis's Manual of Magnetism; including also Electro-Magnetism, Magneto-Electricity, and Thermo-Electricity. With a description of the Electrotype Process.* For the use of Students and Literary Institutions. With one hundred illustrations. Boston: Daniel Davis. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The progress of magnetism and electricity, as related to science, is truly astonishing. Many important facts which have been observed, have not, as yet, been collected in any scientific treatise, and the amount of unwritten knowledge is constantly increasing. The work before us furnishes a very full view, embracing all that is new and authenticated, of these sciences; together with minute descriptions of the instruments and experiments designed to illustrate them in their relation to each other. It is therefore adapted, not only for a manual, but will answer the purpose of an elementary treatise in those branches of science to which it relates. Mr. Davis's object, it appears, has been simply to state the facts which have been observed, and to generalize them only so far as the progress of discovery has fully authorized. Many of the observations recorded in the volume, and many of the instruments described, are new. The volume is beautifully printed on a fine, white, and firm paper.

8.—*Every-Day Book, or History and Chronology: embracing the Anniversaries of Memorable Persons and Events, in every period and state of the world, from the Creation to the present time.* Compiled from authentic sources. By JOEL MUNSSELL. 2 vols. 12mo. Albany: Erastus H. Pease.

The object of the present work, as will be seen by the title-page quoted, is to bring together the most memorable events of each day in the year, in all ages, as far as their dates can be ascertained, arranged chronologically. Although the volumes contain about nine hundred pages of closely printed matter, the compiler appears to have devoted as few words as possible to each subject, in order to embrace the principal great events. The work is evidently the result of an unusual degree of research, and the most untiring industry. It dates back to an early period before the Christian era, and records events down to the present time.

9.—*The Kingdom of Christ; or, Hints respecting the Principles, Constitution, and Ordinances of the Catholic Church.* By F. D. MAURICE, M. A., Chaplain of Guy's Hospital, and Professor of English Literature and History in King's College, London. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

This is one of the most remarkable and interesting books which has come from the English church. It is masterly in its criticisms, evincing great compass of thought, fidelity of study, and candor. Evidently, Mr. Maurice has been a reverend disciple of Coleridge; and shows, in intellectual symmetry and strength, the substantial food the master supplied. He has none of that aping of Coleridge's style, however, which offends the heart as well as head, in reading some of his follower's writings. This book might exert great power in England and in this country, if the currents which are sweeping men on were not so deep and strong. If the Oxford Tractarians would listen to this judicious, though earnest churchman, they would avoid the plunge which they are rapidly hastening to make into Romanism. On the other hand, if the Evangelicals would follow this lead, and co-operate with such a movement as Mr. Maurice contemplates, they might quicken spirituality while preserving steadfastly all the institutions of "the Church." Indeed, this is the soundest, most thorough, and just book that has been called out by the existing controversies in the Episcopal body. All in vain, however, probably, will be such well-timed words. Changes are at hand, which will divide between realities and appearances, substances and shadows, as with a sword of fire. Meanwhile, we recommend this book as a most instructive one to all earnest seekers of truth, of all denominations. The Messrs. Appleton have added a most noble and useful volume to their long list of publications.

10.—*Catholic Imputation, &c.* By VANBRUGH LIVINGSTON. With an Introduction, by the Right Rev. JOHN HUGHES, D. D. New York: Casserly & Sons. 1843.

This book, and its introduction, are interesting signs of the times to all observers. It contains an amount of historical illustration of past opinions, which are quite valuable. To Episcopalians, especially, in the perplexed and divided state of that body, it must meet with respectful attention, and must present to many minds considerations whose force it will be difficult to avoid. If this were the place for polemics, criticisms might easily be made upon both the introduction and the book. Both writers take much for granted which requires some proofs. It is not impossible that the impending controversies between two churches, each assuming to be Catholic, may present the whole question of the One, Holy, Universal Church, in new aspects to this generation. This book is candid, talented, and instructive, and will reward perusal.

11.—*Old Humphrey's Walks in London and its Neighborhood.* By the author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," "Addresses," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," &c. 18mo. pp. 286. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

We have noticed, from time to time, as they were reprinted by the same enterprising house, the works of this popular author. There is a quaintness and individuality, that not only interests the reader in the book, but in its author. We feel, in the perusal, that good-nature, charity, or benevolence, united with shrewdness, are the distinguishing characteristics of "Old Humphrey." His "Walks in London" are deeply tinged with the "orthodox" religious sentiment, though not sectarian. He says in his preface—"I trust it will not appear that I have sought to give pleasure unaccompanied with profit, but so connected my walks in London with that 'city which hath foundations,' that those who are informed as to the one, shall not be altogether unmindful of the other." The volume contains visits to twenty-five different places, as the "Tower of London," "St. Paul's Cathedral," &c. It is printed in the uniform neat style of the other works of this author, and, indeed, of the numerous publications of Robert Carter.

12.—*Lectures on the Epistle of Paul the Apostle to the Romans.* By THOMAS CHALMERS, D. D. and LL. D., Professor of Theology in the University of Edinburgh, and Corresponding Member of the Royal Institute of France. 8vo. in five parts. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

Dr. Chalmers stands in the front rank of the "orthodox" divines of the present century, and his writings will be considered as standards among Christians and theologians of the Calvinistic school, while the tenets of that distinguished reformer endure. Whatever we may think of the soundness of the theological views inculcated in the Lectures on the Epistle to the Romans, there can be but one opinion as to the ability of his commentaries, or the strength and beauty of the language in which they are written.

13.—*Marmaduke Wyvil; or, The Maid's Revenge.* A Historical Romance. By HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT, author of "The Brothers," "Cromwell," &c. New York: J. Winchester. 1843.

We have not found time to read this work, but we make no doubt, from the well established character of the author, that it is replete with all the characteristics of a fascinating romance. All the facts introduced as historical, we are assured by Mr. Herbert, will be found strictly true; the author deeming it a species of crime, even in fiction, to falsify the truth of history.

14.—*An Introduction to Geometry and the Science of Form.* Prepared from the most approved Prussian Text-books. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This elementary treatise appears to have been prepared with great care, and is admirably adapted to the wants of the student in geometry and the science of form. "By a beautiful and original series of inductive processes," says the learned professor of astronomy and mathematics in Harvard University, "it avoids tedious demonstrations, develops the taste for observation, and leads the pupil to a real and practical knowledge of the truths of geometry with a rapidity which would not have been anticipated."

15.—*Devotional Exercises for Schools.* Boston: J. Munroe & Co.

This little manual consists of selections from the Bible, judiciously arranged. Its unsectarian character will, we presume, render it very generally acceptable to the liberal and enlightened Christian.

16.—*Antioch; or, Increase of Moral Power in the Church of Christ.* By PHARCELLUS CHURCH. With an Introductory Essay, by Rev. BARON STOW. Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 1843.

This work contains the ideas, in an expanded form, of an address on commencement week, before a subsidiary organization of the Hamilton Theological Seminary. The author is favorably known to the religious public as an original thinker, and a forcible writer. His two principal works, entitled "Philosophy of Benevolence," and "Prose Essay on Religious Dissensions," have been extensively read and circulated.

17.—*Lessons on the Book of Proverbs, Topically arranged, forming a System of Practical Ethics, for the use of Sabbath Schools and Bible Classes.* Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

An excellent little volume, admirably elucidating and enforcing, by appropriate examples, the various Proverbs of Solomon. It may with safety be recommended to the religious of all denominations.

18.—*Russia and the Russians.* By J. G. HALL. In two parts. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1843.

A very interesting description of Russia, its manners, customs, habits, and all that relates to its social condition or political institutions, by one who resided among the people he appears to have described with fidelity and candor. It forms the two first parts of the Foreign Library. The work is printed on a fair type, but rather poor paper. Price, 25 cents per part.

19.—*Life in Mexico, during a Two Years' Residence in that country.* By Mme. C. DE LA B———. In two vols. 12mo. pp. 412 and 423. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1843.

We have seldom seen two volumes of residence or travel in foreign lands more deeply interesting than the present; but perhaps the best notice we can give of them under our "Book Trade" is the preface to this work, by the accomplished author of "Ferdinand and Isabella," William H. Prescott, Esq. He says:—"This work is the result of observations made during a two years' residence in Mexico, by a lady, whose position there made her intimately acquainted with its society, and opened to her the best sources of information in regard to whatever could interest an enlightened foreigner. It consists of letters written to members of her own family, and, *really*, not intended originally—however incredible the assertion—for publication. Feeling a regret that such rich stores of instruction and amusement, from which I have so much profited myself, should be reserved for the eyes of a few friends only, I strongly recommended that they should be given to the world. This is now done, with a few such alterations and omissions as were necessary in a private correspondence; and although the work would derive more credit from the author's own name than from anything which I could say, yet as she declines prefixing it, I feel much pleasure in making this statement, by way of introduction, to the public." We may add that the volumes have received the consenting praise of the highest literary authorities. The typography of the volumes is unexceptionably elegant and beautiful.

20.—*The Farmer's Encyclopædia, and Dictionary of Rural Affairs.* By CUTHBERT W. JOHNSON. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

We have received the tenth number of this excellent work. It should be in the hands of every American agriculturist, as it combines all the matter of the English edition with judicious adaptations to our soil, climate, &c., and numerous additions by a practical farmer of the United States.

☞ *Letters to the Cotton Manufacturers of Massachusetts.*—We have received from Henry Lee, Esq., a distinguished merchant of Boston, several letters, forming part of a series now in press, and to be published sometime in November next, in pamphlet form; which, although addressed to the cotton manufacturers of Massachusetts, are of general interest to the cotton planter, as well as the manufacturer, in the United States. In the twenty-fifth letter, now before us, Mr. Lee maintains that the consumption of cotton in Europe, other than the product of India and America, is too insignificant to have any important bearing in prices—that the superior cheapness of home-grown cotton is especially favorable to the interests of New England, as the principal seat of cotton manufacturing—that the decline in the value of cotton has increased the ratio of advantage heretofore enjoyed by the American over the British manufacturers—that heavy cotton goods, according to the statements of the manufacturers, are made as cheap, or cheaper, in this country, than in England—that the charges of importing cotton goods, under a duty of 25 per cent, amount to 45 per cent, without any allowance of mercantile profit to the importer—that any material advance in the existing prices of cotton must arise from over-issues of currency, or from speculative operations in the article, and consequently is not likely to be maintained—that the prostration of bank credit, and of banking operations, in the southwestern states, is favorable to a continuance of the existing natural and sufficient prices of cotton—that the notion of increasing the wealth of the community by altering the measure of value, still prevalent through the country, is fallacious.

THE
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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1843.

ART. I.—THE DEBTS AND TARIFFS OF THE SOUTH OF EUROPE.

IN a late paper we gave a brief statement of the debts of the chief commercial nations of Europe from the history of their creation, and from the manner in which they had been sustained, important lessons, we argued, might be drawn. Who is there who witnesses the prodigious debt which hangs around the neck of the Dutch people, not only checking their future progress, but endangering their present existence, who does not stop to admire the energetic honesty with which its demands have been met, and the patient endurance with which its burden has been born? That calm but consummate courage which called in the sea as an auxiliary against civil and ecclesiastical encroachments, has been displayed in characters more glorious because under circumstances more trying, by the regular and full payment of the interest of a debt, the largest and most galling in history. Who is there who reflects on the convulsions with which Great Britain is torn—who recollects that dismemberment is threatened on the one hand, and revolution on the other—who does not respect the systematic faithfulness with which, at the allotted moment, every tittle of her obligations has been met? Great has been the profligacy with which the British debt has been incurred, shameless the abuses which have checked its liquidation; but the grandeur of the moral principle which has rejected the very mention of repudiation, stands forth more strikingly when the magnitude of the inducements to repudiate are considered.

We regret that the tables which we presented in the paper to which this is an appendix, should have been made use of in various quarters as extending to us as a people some reason for satisfaction, both with the amount of our debts, and the tardiness of our honesty. It was seen, on the one side, that the man in Pennsylvania has only about one-seventh as much on his shoulders as the man in Holland and the man in Great Britain; and the Pennsylvanian was invited to felicitate himself, therefore, with the reflection that, after all, the great mountain of which he had heard so

much, was only a small hill, of which he need think but little. It was observed, also, that the repudiation which the man of Pennsylvania had adopted as a "temporary expedient," had been for a long time practised by the men of Austria and of Spain; and that so far, consequently, from its being a vast and unmanageable monster, it had been domesticated for a century in the palaces of Vienna and the Escorial, and had been found one of the most active allies of the Spanish kings and the Austrian emperors. Such were the considerations which we have seen drawn, more than once, from the statements we presented; and useful as was the information they contained, we need not say that if we could have imagined the purposes to which they would be devoted, they would never have been collected. The expedient of repudiation is, to our minds, of a character too extreme and awful to be hinted at through statistics, or softened by revenue tables. Never, except in a death-struggle, is a nation justified in adopting it. If I feel the pressure of taxation grinding me to the dust—if the weight of the superincumbent column is mashing my breast to pulp—I may be excused in struggling to overthrow the load that is destroying me. But what I do I must do instinctively—by the spasmodic impulse of nature, and not with the calm conclusion of reason. A country must pay its debts while it has a cent within its realm to pay them; and not until it finds all the sanctions of well-ordered government powerless to collect the prescribed revenues—not until its people, pressed from their homes by starvation, throw themselves on the road-side for support—not until its dues cease to flow into its treasury, should its debts cease to flow out of it. Never will that nation prosper, whose government has broken its faith. Crime will abound, because the law-maker himself is a law-breaker. Dishonesty will abound, because the cancer at the head of the state will strike its roots through its substance. There are eternal and changeless laws laid down by that authority whose wisdom is without blemish, and whose hand never sleeps—whose violation draws with it its vindication. A ship goes down when the law of atmospheric pressure is disregarded; and the planks which the water touches, instead of presenting a barrier impregnable to the subtle enemy, opens to let it in between their seams. The man who is pitched from the deck of a balloon is dashed to atoms, because he encounters the law of gravitation. The nation which deliberately and determinately repudiates its debts will be destroyed, because it violates a law whose sanction is the same, and whose vindication is the same as those of the laws which indicate the physical government of the universe.

France has repudiated, and Spain has repudiated, and why cannot we repudiate in the United States? But France repudiated in the spasm of revolution, and Spain in the lassitude of decay. We are yet in the virgin of youth; our fields are still bristled with the bayonets of our own sturdy, native corn, and rich with the blossoms of those various grains which, in their fruitfulness and their nourishing powers, could support ten times our population; our plantations are still plumed with the feathers of the cotton-plant, and plaided with the flower of the tobacco; our rivers are as fructifying and capacious as ever; our canals remain open; the steam-whistle of the locomotive has penetrated our deepest forests, and startled our own remotest lands; every day we hear of new mineral wealth opening upon us; and alas! from that very state which has stood foremost in the ranks of repudiation, there is not a mail comes that does not tell us of mines of

coal and of iron, capable of supplying both material and fuel for the construction of the lever of Archimedes, which was to move worlds. We are yet, then, in the virgin of youth, and far be it from us to throw ourselves in despair within the precincts of that great insolvent court to which France had resort during the agony of revolution, and within whose courts Austria and Spain are now the only inmates. If it should be our lot, either through a defect in our own moral vision, or through the turpitude of our rulers, to go thither for purgation, never will we be able to take our rank again among the great nations of the world till our robes be cleansed. France hugged her repudiated debts to her bosom during the whole of her governmental vicissitudes till she discharged them; and there are but few who read this paper who will not recollect the fidelity with which the twenty-five millions indemnity claim, incurred by Napoleon and sanctioned by Charles X., was met by Louis Philippe. The lesson told by the tables of national debts, which we have already alluded to, was, that in Europe the expedient of repudiation had been confined to states in the convulsions of revolution, or in the palsy of decay. Great Britain and Holland, with debts whose average to the population is ten times as great as the aggregate of our own, have postponed repudiation to annihilation; and let it not be said, that with resources infinitely greater, we have denied our assets, and defrauded our creditors by an insolvency whose necessity is as imaginary as its disgrace is substantial.

We proceed to consider the commercial regulations of the chief European states, as connected with their national circumstances:—

I. SPAIN.

We begin with Spain, not because she ranks highest, but because she ranks lowest in the scale of European civilization. Before the Flemish separation, there was no continental power whose commercial activity equalled that of the dominions of Philip II.; but scarcely were the Netherlands in rebellion, when the maritime supremacy of Spain vanished. The prodigious influx of gold from Mexico sustained the treasury of the kingdom; the immense value of its American domains supported the honor of the crown; and had the course of nature been unchecked, the commercial as well as the political supremacy of the peninsula would have continued. Schiller, in his *Don Carlos*, has put into the mouth of the Marquis Von Posa, one of the wisest of the counsellors of Philip II., a warning which it would have been well if the monarch could have heard and heeded:—

<p>VON POSA.</p> <p>To check the ripening course of Christendom; To blight the universal spring that now Is playing o'er the world's broad countenance. In Europe you would be supreme; and here, Into the track in which the rolling world Pursues appointedly its onward course, You would extend your human arm, and grasp, With heavy clutch, upon its jutting spokes. Oh no! It all is fruitless! Thousands fly From the cold vineyards of your lands! They fly Poor but contented.</p>	<p>You hope</p>
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Most of the wool manufacturers of the realm were Protestants, and being Protestants, they gave so suspicious a complexion to their trade, that wool

manufacturers, as a rule, were found to desert their country. The Moorish workmen were chained to the galleys. The Protestant mechanics, such as were not suffered to escape into exile, were immured in the inquisition. The mechanical arts were pursued with about as much energy and enterprise as they are in our own penitentiaries. Foreign merchants were warned away by ecclesiastical tests and civil penalties. Foreign ships were scared from the coast by the batteries of prohibitory duties. The hand of the king, after driving away the Protestant mechanics, picked up the Pyrenean shepherds from the laps of their ancient pastures, and chained them at the deserted manufactories, to supply the place of the workmen he had driven away. In fifty years Spain lost her trade, her manufactures, and her wealth; and in a few years after she resigned herself in quiet to the depredations of her allies, the dismemberment of her dependents, and the rebellion of her subjects.

Presenting, both on the Atlantic and the Mediterranean sides, ports the most commodious for shipping, had the Spanish government given free course to commercial enterprise, the assertion may be hazarded that Spain would have controlled the trade of the south of Europe. But the same policy which crushed manufactures and drove away imports, prohibited the carrying trade. We insert a brief sketch of the present Spanish tariff, relying principally on the authority of *Schubart*, in his *Algemeine Staatskunde* :—

1. Grain, provisions, fish of all kinds, wines, oils, and some small articles, as starch, roots, straw; of these, seventy-two articles are entirely prohibited, including corn and seeds, and food, and all kinds of salted and pickled fish, of whatever kind, (except stock-fish, and Newfoundland cod-fish at discriminating duties.)

2. Animals of all kinds, importation prohibited, and exportation subject to high duties, except on merino sheep, black cattle, and horses, which are prohibited.

3. Drugs, herbs, roots, barks, seeds, &c. for dyeing, painting, and other uses; wax, tallow, pitch, &c., exhibit a list amounting to upwards of four hundred articles, out of which number there are nearly one hundred total prohibitions.

4. Includes hides and skins of common description, dressed and undressed, tanned, &c.; fine peltry of all kinds, either in the hair, dressed, or tanned, and all articles made of the above. These articles amount to about eighty in number, out of which there are sixty-four prohibitions.

5. Manufactures of flax, hemp, cotton, and wool of all kinds, containing about ninety articles; out of which there are forty-two prohibitions, and those admitted are of but very little value.

6. Wool and hair manufactured, including goats' hair, bristles, horse hair, feathers, and human hair; consists of about seventy-seven articles, and contains sixty-three prohibitions.

7. Comprises manufactures of silk only, or of silk mixed with wool, gold or silver, and is, with but two exceptions, (silk twist, or Turin hair, and raw or spun silk of all sorts,) entirely prohibited.

8. Includes cabinetware, furniture, and other utensils of wood, horn, shell, ivory, mother-of-pearl, &c., or of ornaments made thereof; and in this class are also comprised the original raw materials, in all about eighty articles, with thirty-nine prohibitions.

9. Instruments and machines of all kinds ; nearly all of a prohibitory character.

10. Toys and jewelry of all kinds, open or in boxes. This is a most extensive class ; it contains nearly three hundred distinct articles, out of which there are but twenty-three prohibitions ; but the duties are enormous.

11. Paper, of all kinds and qualities entirely prohibited.

12. Includes all manufactures of crystals and glass, of stone and minerals, of porcelain and earthenware ; contains about ninety articles, of which thirteen only are entirely prohibited ; the duties are also enormous.

13. Comprises metals, wrought, unwrought, or manufactured, and contains nearly the same number of articles as the preceding class, out of which there appears to be about thirty-five prohibitions ; and the duties on the others all excessive, with the exception of tools, &c.

14. Contains all descriptions of the precious metals, gold and silver in bullion, or wrought in jewelry, &c. ; amounts to seventy-two articles, with but three total prohibitions.

15. Includes common timber for naval, house, and other purposes, fine wool for cabinet work, and dyeing woods, &c., nearly fifty descriptions, and no prohibitions ; although cork in boards, or prepared for bottles, and tanning barks of all kinds, included under this class, are strictly prohibited.

The gross amount of the Spanish debt, according to the budget of 1841, was 14,160,068,047 *reals*, or about \$775,000,000 ; of which the internal debt amounts to 8,318,985,279 *reals*, or nearly \$311,000,000, the interest of the greater portion of which has been, for a long series of years, unpaid. Unless great reforms take place, of which some promise is made, Spain will sink into irremediable bankruptcy.

II. PORTUGAL.

Portugal was for so long a period a portion of the empire of Spain, that she imbibed the Spanish spirit and adopted the Spanish policy. Standing on the rim of the peninsula, it became her misfortune to present to Spanish marauders a field of operation sufficiently accessible to their own homes, and to foreign invaders a vantage ground of which they have not failed to make use. Both imbecile and tyrannical has been her governmental system ; and while her home policy has answered the purpose of degrading her commerce and annihilating her wealth, her diplomatic relations have been the most abject and humiliating. The great wealth possessed by the ecclesiastical foundations of the realm, if wisely appropriated, might have rescued the people from many of their misfortunes ; but the coagulation of the resources of Portugal into a few points on her surface, has destroyed that free circulation of capital by which alone trade could be supported. Her yearly exports, once covering half the imports of the new world, do not now amount to \$10,000,000. Wine, fruit, and salt, are the last representatives of the once numerous catalogue of Portuguese exports ; and if we can judge of the effects of the existing tariff, it is probable that the demand to which they once were subjected will, before long, come to a stop. So heavy are the duties laid upon foreign importations, that unless the wine, fruits, and salt of Portugal are paid for in specie, it is difficult to see how they can be paid for at all. Fair exchange cannot exist when 50 per cent duties, comprising 20 per cent *decima*, 20 per cent *liza*, 4 per cent *donativa*, 3 per cent *conatado*, and 3 per cent *fragata comboy*, are laid indis-

criminally upon all imports. Fish is only admitted after the most tedious probation, and flour is prohibited altogether.

The debt of Portugal it has been the peculiar felicity of the Portuguese government to mystify. By the budget of February 17, 1840, the regular income is rated at \$8,000,000; and the corresponding expenditures, comprising \$2,300,000 for the payment of interest on foreign bonds, at \$11,000,000. Whatever loss exists is at once tossed over upon the shoulders of the public creditors; and if it is found the revenue falls short, as it always does, the deficiency is made up out of the fund appropriated to the payment of interest. One-half of the interest has already been repudiated; and unless the young queen calls wiser and more honorable consellers to her aid, it is probable that the other half will follow its fate. The entire debt, not computing the large slices which are occasionally cut off by repudiation, amounts to nearly \$144,500,000, or about thirty-nine dollars to the head.

III. THE ITALIAN STATES.

The states of Italy, with a few unimportant exceptions, have adopted the system of commercial restriction which, during the last century, was pursued almost universally in Europe. Genoa has been called a free port, though in truth it is nothing more than a commercial depot, where goods are landed temporarily free of duty for the purpose of re-exportation. The prohibitions established by Joseph II. extend to the whole of the Lombardo-Phenician states of Italy.

The policy of Tuscany is calculated to advance the spirit of trade. We can observe no restraint upon the commercial interests of the Tuscan dominions, unless, perhaps, we may estimate as such the severe quarantine regulations of the port of Leghorn. The population is industrious and quiet; and we believe that in Tuscany alone, among the Italian states, is there an exemption from those periodical disturbances which rack both government and people.

The scale of duties in the papal dominions is comparatively low, though, by the great financial mismanagement of the government, the country has never been able to extricate itself from the heavy taxation which has destroyed the enterprise, and exhausted the wealth of the people. The scale of duties in Naples and the two Sicilies is exorbitantly high, although, by a treaty lately concluded with Great Britain, considerable reductions were made in favour of the latter country. The duties upon both trade and navigation within the limits of the two Sicilies, are almost prohibitory. By the Neapolitan tariff, from 50 to 170 per cent is imposed on cotton manufactures, from 30 to 80 per cent on woollen cloths; and on colonial produce, sugar, coffee, and the like, the duty is so immense, that two-thirds of the consumption, according to the report of the farmer of customs, is smuggled in from Trieste and other ports. In the words of Mr. Macgregor, "His Sicilian Majesty's government has contrived to enforce the most effectual measures of mal-administration, taxation, and commercial restriction, to ruin the industry and trade, and to impoverish his own subjects in all parts of his dominions, as well as to drive those of England from the island of Sicily." The debt of the papal states is about \$60,000,000, or twenty-six dollars to each inhabitant; that of Naples is \$126,000,000, or about sixteen dollars to each inhabitant.

IV. PRUSSIA.

Of the Prussian customs we have, in a former paper, spoken more fully than our present limits will allow us. The liberal modifications to which the ancient policy of the realm has been subjected, has given cause to a considerable improvement in the national revenue. The history of the Prussian debt, in fact, presents a striking illustration of the vicissitudes to which that great people has been subjected, both in war and in trade. Notwithstanding the oppressive wars of Frederick the Great, the treasury was left at his death not only without encumbrance, but with a large and substantial surplus. His successor left a debt of about \$40,000,000, which, within a few years after his accession, was fully removed by the late king, Frederick William III. On the eve of the battle of Jena, the kingdom was unincumbered; but by the great disasters which followed that memorable struggle, not only was the nation temporarily dismembered, but at the close of the war, a debt of more than \$110,000,000 remained. According to the official exhibits, the following table will display the revenue and obligations of Prussia:—

	<i>Thalers.</i>
The average annual revenue from 1822 to 1833, the date of the union of customs, amounts to,.....	51,740,000
Expenditure,.....	49,260,000
Surplus applicable to sinking the national debt,.....	2,480,000
In 1822 the interest of the public debt of Prussia amounted to.....	10,143,000
In 1832, it was reduced to.....	6,397,000
If peace continues until January, 1843, the expiration of the date of convention of customs union, the same will be reduced to about.....	3,746,000
In 1835, the whole debt, if peace continues, will be extinguished.	

Such is the abstract of statements given us from official returns and calculations. The sources of revenue are :

Land, and direct taxes,.....	18,112,000
Excise and customs,.....	21,418,000
Royal mines, and salt,.....	4,717,000
Annual income of rents, &c., derived from public domains and forests,.....	4,212,000
Annual income for funds set aside for redemption of rents of domains sold to form a sinking fund,.....	1,000,000
Post office,.....	1,200,000
Lottery,.....	669,000
Divers small revenues,.....	412,000
Total,.....	Thalers 51,740,000

Considerable as is the Prussian income, there is no country whose disbursements are regulated on a scale so frugal. About \$2,000,000 is annually appropriated to the purposes of the sinking fund; and though the demands arising from the military establishment are at first sight startling, it must be remembered that they spring from the necessities of a frontier, the most susceptible of attack in Europe, and from a country, every male inhabitant of which, above sixteen, is enrolled and drilled in the regular army. To prevent the recurrence of those bitter mortifications which the French invasion caused, was the darling object of the late king; and when we reflect upon the splendour of the fortifications of Ehrenbreitstein and Coblenz, upon the extent and power of the national army, upon the efficient though despotic discipline established throughout the realm, and upon

the fact that, should the calamity of war break out, there will be no occasion to resort for loans for two years—we will be ready to conclude that if another uprooting of the elements should occur, similar to that over which Napoleon rode triumphant, the bulwarks of Prussia will be the last to give way to the storm.

V. AUSTRIA.

In a letter to Earl Kolowrat, written at the opening of his reign, Joseph II. thus sketched the policy which was to sway the imperial councils: "In order to bring forward indigenous productions, and to curb the useless growth of luxury and fashion, make public my orders concerning the *general prohibition of foreign manufactures.*" At once were nets stretched around the frontier, custom-house officers were stationed at every post, and a barrier almost insurmountable was laid against the admission of foreign goods. Monopolies were granted to companies for the carrying on and selling of specific manufactures, salt and tobacco being reserved to the crown. So entangled became the imperial finances in consequence of the great deficiency of revenue, and the immense outlay springing from the establishment of the custom-house machinery, that the Emperor Francis was obliged to have recourse to expedients neither honorable nor honest. In the words of Schneller's *Geschichte von Bochemen*—History of Bohemia—"On the 11th of February, 1811, the orders were printed with the greatest secrecy in the imperial printing-office; a copy of the warrant was sent sealed to all the governors of the empire, who were to open it on the same hour on the 15th of March, 1811; these orders were to be instantly acted on without remonstrance, and without the advice of the states, and they were promulgated amidst the roll of drums. This master-stroke consisted in the substitution of *quittances* for *bank notes*, so that *five florins of the latter were paid by one florin of the former in all public and private engagements.*"

It is painful to consider the profligacy of the Austrian government in the assumption and management of its obligations. The war of 1813 drew forth an issue of 212,000,000 florin paper, besides three times that amount in *anticipation scheme*, or notes to be paid by anticipated funds. During the ministry of Count Stadion, the paper money fell so rapidly that it was reduced one hundred and fifty per cent. So great were the ultimate reductions, that, before the war closed, the property of minors, of hospitals, of all the eleemosynary institutions of the empire, and of most of the capitalists, was reduced from one hundred to twenty by Wallis, and from twenty to eight by Stadion; that is, in the two national bankruptcies, creditors of all kinds received only eight florins in state paper for every hundred due them in silver. "Yet," continues the historian, "all this was of no comparison to the consequent consumption of morals among the people."

The short space before us will not allow us to enter at large into the intricate labyrinth of the Austrian tariff. So badly managed have been the monopolies of sugar, of tobacco, and of salt, that a sum more than sufficient to sink the national debt has been lost through their instrumentality. A strong illustration of the fact is to be found in the instance of tobacco. Great Britain, with a population of 24,000,000, with duties so heavy as to shoot beyond the highest revenue level, receives, notwithstanding the partial use of the weed within her limits, as much as

£3,000,000 sterling on tobacco duties. Austria, with 34,000,000 of inhabitants, all of whom smoke, with but little distinction either of age or sex, has gathered from the same source, by means of her monopoly machinery, only £550,000. So great is the inequality of the Austrian tariff, so great the prohibitions established, that but few articles are able to bear up against the heavy duties imposed upon them. Foreign trade is almost at an end, and the revenue of which it is susceptible has been extinguished.

VI. TURKEY.

The Spanish policy was, to let nothing come in the country, but to make everything go out; the Ottoman government adopted a system diametrically the reverse, and endeavored to let nothing go out of its borders, but to make everything come in. The first thought that for a nation to be wealthy, all that was necessary for her to do, was to throw other countries into her debt; the second cared nothing about being on the debtor side herself, and was only anxious to get as much as she could without paying. Spain checked importation, Turkey checked exportation; and both have erred so far as they have violated the spirit of reciprocity. Exchange is the gist of commerce; and if a fair exchange cannot be effected, trade must languish.

The error made by Turkey, however, though scarcely more detrimental, was more easily rectified than that committed by the western European nations. The government found that foreign merchants would not send their goods to Turkey without either specie or Turkish goods being sent in return; and the Turks discovered that, since their stock of specie was soon exhausted, the only alternatives were, either to give up the foreign luxuries to which they were accustomed, or to provide for their payment by barter. The Ottoman harbors were open to the produce of all nations. A duty of three per cent *ad valorem* on goods, and a small anchorage charge on ships, are the only restrictions which, for three hundred years—since the days of Solymán the Magnificent—have been imposed on Turkish commerce.

The fall of the Turkish empire is to be associated with other causes, therefore, than that commercial costiveness which has been so fatal to the remainder of the nations of the south of Europe. The degrading influence of Moslemism has had its full share. Those benign maxims which our Lord extended to us in the Sermon on the Mount, were there neither received nor practised. The superior civilization of which Christianity has been the cause, has acted disadvantageously upon a people who were detached from its operation, and who only acknowledged its superiority when they felt its pressure. The government also, liberal as was its foreign policy, persevered at home in the paralyzing system of which it was the author. A total embargo still continues on the exportation of such articles as are necessary for the consumption of the people. Luxuries may be exported to meet the foreign demand; but the necessaries of life, no matter to what a degree they may be produced, are hoarded up within the realm. The natural, exterior demand for bread-stuffs, and for the primary articles of consumption—staples, which the fruitful soil of Turkey could produce in great abundance—has been crushed, and the premium, therefore, on agricultural industry, has been removed. Monopolies of almost every article of produce have been granted to companies or individuals; and as the Musulman authorities have not yet learned that contracts are inviolable, an

extraordinary bonus is exacted whenever the government is in want, or an irregular tax is imposed whenever its proceeds are useful. As it would contravene the Turkish policy to borrow money whenever the public income falls short, which does not rarely occur, two expedients are resorted to : first, the debasing of coin ; and secondly, the levying of exactions. Whole villages are sometimes confiscated at the demands of the finance minister ; and so uncertain are the dealings of the government, so violent and so irregular are its exactions, that the whole stability of trade, of manufactures, and of agriculture is destroyed. "Parch us or freeze us, burn us or sink us," is the cry ascribed to the working classes of this country, by Mr. Webster in his great Baltimore speech ; "only tell us what you mean to do beforehand, and persevere in it afterwards." The Turks, as producers and traders, have suffered vicissitudes of heat and cold so various and so violent, that their strength has been destroyed, and their energy dissipated.

The trade of Constantinople is but limited. The exports are confined to wool, silk, goats' hair, and wax, the deficiency being made up by bullion, and diamonds. The imports comprise woollens, cottons, hardware, &c., to a considerable amount from Great Britain ; sugar and coffee from the West Indies and Brazil, the carrying of which is conducted chiefly by American shipping ; and jewelry, clocks, &c. from France, through Vienna and the Danube.

It is worth while to pause a moment, before concluding, to view the great resources of the Turkish empire, and the still greater facilities it possesses for the affairs of trade. Corn, wool, silk, cotton, timber, flax, hemp, and tallow, are capable of almost infinite production within the Turkish territory. Fertile and populous are the regions which are watered and drained by the Danube ; while the villages and towns which are rapidly gathering on the banks of the great Noir, form a chain of wealth, of agricultural and commercial capacity, which will before long form a suitable connecting line between the nations of the west and the east. Only let Turkey awake from the lethargy of barbarism in which the fatalism of her creed, and the ignorance of her rulers have cast her. When the Danube and the Black sea are regularly traversed by steamers, when the impediments to the free navigation of the Dardanelles are removed, when free access is found to the city of the Constantines, we may hope that Christian truth and Christian wisdom will once more shine upon the empire of the east.

Such is the position of the nations of the south of Europe ; and imperfect as is the sketch we have produced, enough has been done to exhibit the connection between commercial illiberality and financial embarrassment. At other periods we have discussed the protective system at some fulness ; and although, beyond all things, we desire permanency in our commercial legislation—though we would not lift a finger to effect a change in our commercial policy simply as a change—we think that, at a period when the term tariff has become a household word in our land, it is worth while to consider the lessons taught us by nations whose experience is somewhat greater than our own. There are extraneous considerations existing in every country, to modify the operation of general governmental truths ; and such considerations undoubtedly exist among us. We should never forget, however, that it is far better to govern too little, than to govern too much ; and that, except under extraordinary circumstances, the mer-

chant should be permitted to buy in the cheapest market, and sell in the dearest.

It has been reported of a late noble Scotch philosopher, whose speculations claimed the honor of exceeding in boldness the wildest theories in the skeptical age to which he belonged, that in order to bring together a new species of artisans on the heath of his highland estate, he imported a colony of beavers at great expense from their native wilds. On the banks of a Scotch river the little emigrants were landed, and great hopes were held forth that not only would the secret of their own instinctive architecture be elicited, but that they themselves could be instructed in the deductions of human science. Scarcely had the untaught mechanics commenced their labors, when a Glasgow builder was stationed among them. If an arch was swung over a ditch not quite on the model of the catenary curve, it was torn down, and another more philosophical erected. If a dyke was hedged around the shore, whose outward slope might provoke the increased anger of the waves, it would be pared down to a shape that would be more likely to bear the brunt of the enemy. We do not know whether it was because the deductions of philosophical speculation are of less value than the actual experience of the workman himself, or whether the course that labor strikes out instinctively is the safest, but in the course of a few weeks the beavers gave up all attempts to build according to the rules of Glasgow architecture, and the colony disappeared almost immediately on its arrival.

The lesson taught to the Scotch theorist would be of value to the commercial legislators of the day. The natural course of trade has been checked and thwarted by the restraints which have been thrown upon it. The great natural channels into which the stream forced itself in its first necessity have been dammed up, and the current itself has been led into canals and aqueducts which may be mathematical in their dimensions, and correct in their construction, but which have served in a great measure to destroy that power which they were constructed to assist. The laborer is not permitted to choose the branch of industry which will be most profitable to him, but is legislated into another, which, for the time being, may be devised for the purpose of checking the importations of the foreign commodities whose place it is meant to supply. The merchant is prevented from exporting those articles of which there is an exuberance, and of importing those of which there is a want, by the regulations of the protective system. Through the severe restrictions which have been laid upon trade, as we demonstrated in a former number, the consuming classes, in the first place, are obliged to pay in an increased degree whatever is gained by the manufacturer; the protected interests themselves, in the second place, are subjected to violent and ruinous fluctuations; the demand for domestic staples, in the third place, is stopped to the very amount in which the foreign staples with which they are to be exchanged are rejected; and fourthly, a system of retaliation is provoked which ends in a comparative non-intercourse.

Doctor Paley once said that he never allowed his wife to shop on credit, as the actual out-paying of ready money was such an excellent check on the imagination. Could, a century ago, a similar restriction have been laid on the war ministers of the southern courts, not only bloody wars would have been spared, but heavy debts would have been avoided. But with countries as rich as Spain and Austria, debts, such as those precipitated

in the eddies of the French revolution, ought to have been gradually though effectually removed. Prussia, under distresses far more stringent than those of her southern neighbors, has preserved unblemished the integrity of her character, and the honor of her name. But Spain, and Portugal, and Austria, after borrowing at the wildest hazards, and under the severest pledges, blocked up, as soon as the time came for payment, the channels through which the debt was to be paid. By a duty on foreign tobacco, for instance, to the amount of about 30 per cent, Austria could have obtained a revenue of \$12,000,000; but by raising the duty to a height which made it prohibition, that revenue was cut off. We all know what punishment is inflicted on a debtor who fraudulently conceals or wantonly destroys his assets; and it would be well if a moral judgment of corresponding severity could be inflicted on legislative bad faith. It was the duty of the Spanish and Austrian governments—it is the duty of all governments similarly situated—to look solely to the payment of their just obligations. We will pay our debts, they should have said, by such an adjustment of our tariff as will yield the *maximum* revenue. Putting all other considerations aside, we will surrender to our manufactures such incidental protection as is afforded by the revenue thus raised; but beyond that protection we will not go until our hands are free from debt.

Had such been the determination of the nations who took part in the French war, the prodigious incumbrances now throttling the chief European governments would have been considerably lightened. Such a resolution even now, might be of value; but from long mismanagement, from disregard of duty become habitual, and from crippled commercial energies, we believe that the redemption of the honor of the southern kingdoms is hopeless. They cannot get up if they try. So drunken are they, that the innumerable little silken threads which bind them to the earth, resist their occasional efforts at disenthralment. They have no physical power, no moral energy to enable them to emerge from the precincts of insolvency. Their creditors call upon them to redeem their obligations, and they, as a pledge of their sincerity, proceed to make good their word by doubling the nominal amount of their duties. A duty of 200 per cent, for instance, has been laid in Portugal on Nuremburg toys, and though at such a premium, no Portuguese toy dealer would think of taking the German playthings—though, in consequence, not a cent of revenue has been raised from a staple, which, at a lower standard of taxation, might have been of some value—foreign bondholders are answered that as a pledge for future payment, the duty of 200 per cent on Nuremburg toys has been raised to 500. By such a process, the revenue from duties has been pared away till nothing remains but the core. The minister of the day stands at the treasury door with the tariff list in his hand, and at every pressure from the creditor interest without, by doubling one duty or trebling another, he is able to tell bondholders that the utmost exertions of the government have been used to spare its credit, but that on the perversity of its commercial returns—which, like the boy at sea, the more they are called, the more they refuse to come—must the cause of the failures be laid. So goes on the progression; and the high-toned tariffs of the south of Europe, instead of removing their corresponding debts, have destroyed the interests which they should have fostered, and cut off the revenue they should have raised.

Let us turn home to ourselves, and see whether we are not running

against the same perils which have ruined the countries we have just considered. Three years ago we were free from debt under the operation of a heavy though decreasing tariff. As our revenue fell off, not so much from our sinking below the protective level, as from the injudicious exoneration from duty of luxuries on which a duty is slightly felt, a debt was accumulated which increased monthly, as much from the deficiency of our receipts, as from the increase of our expenditures. The first step we took towards paying our obligations, was to convey away the land fund, which had previously swollen our income; the next step was to raise the barrier of duties so high, that the flood of imports, subtracting those from the calculation which had been tempted to us by the previous light duties of the compromise act, was at once checked and broken. Every day our debt is swelling. Every day our receipts are falling off. We have allowed our honesty to be outwitted by our policy; and before long, instead of having protected our manufacturers, we will have destroyed our name.

What course must then be taken? We answer, the establishment, on grounds of common honesty alone, without recourse to any other considerations whatever, of a tariff framed to produce the *maximum* of revenue. A hat of foreign manufacture, for instance, may cost two dollars, while a hat of similar pretensions could be manufactured at home for five dollars and a half. If a duty of a single dollar be laid on the foreign hat, and if of such hats there is an annual demand of one thousand, it is clear that the domestic hat will lie on the makers' shelves unbought, and that the revenue produced by the foreign hats will be a thousand dollars. If, however, a duty of an additional two dollars be laid, bringing the foreign article, when we consider the cost of importation, almost up to the level of the home manufacture, it will be found that while a reasonable protecting stimulus is given to the New England hat-maker, the revenue drawn will be increased, though the number of hats imported will be diminished. By bringing, therefore, foreign goods to the level of those produced at home, leaving a margin of course for wear and tear, and for cost of carriage, the maximum of revenue will be raised.

In our late tariff, such a level has, except in a few instances, been neglected. Tea and coffee might easily have been taxed without injury to consumers. Manufacturers ought not to complain if the present exorbitant duties be let down on goods which came into collision with our own products. What our manufactures want, we are told, is stimulus; and where, we ask, is there a more earnest stimulus than that which such a tariff as we have suggested will bring into the field? Pitch the price of the manufactured article as you choose; but then, when you have found the level, let it be known, and duties will be laid on foreign goods so as to bring them up to it. The presence of competition, endowed with no unfair advantages, is not only calculated to swell our revenue, but to give a spirit of emulation to our manufacturers which the heaviest protection would be incapable of producing.

We are stepping out of the road in arguing the question. It is a point which should never be argued. We are in debt, and we must pay our debts in the best way we can. The sequestration of our effects is dishonest, and its policy we have no right to discuss. Let the matter be understood, let it be seen that every month our revenue is decreasing, that we are borrowing to pay, that we are squandering our assets, and

we believe that the question is ended. We, for our part, will never condescend to argue a question of honesty. Show us the way, and we will enter into it. If it be rugged, we will struggle the more; but we will do it with the consciousness that by so doing we will be doing our duty. We are sure that when the case is made known, the great body of the people will act as becomes the faith delivered to them by their fathers. The agricultural interests, embracing seven-twelfths of the people, having nothing to protect by an exorbitant tariff, interested rather in buying whatever is in the market at the cheapest rate possible, will be willing, we are sure, to pay the requisite additional price on the foreign article, to ensure the payment of the national debt. On the manufacturers, apparently, would the greatest loss fall; and though in fact, as the considerations we have suggested will show, the reasonable emulation a maximum tariff affords will benefit them, yet to induce the manufacturers, we are afraid, to desert the policy in which for years they have trodden, will require no slight struggle. That the struggle will cheerfully be made, we will not allow ourselves to doubt. They are mostly New Englanders; and in the ancient and honorable country in which they have lived and labored, they have been imbued with those stern but generous principles which have raised New England to her own most noble level, and without which no nation can prosper. Whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, they have been taught from that book to which their country dates its settlement and its success, those things are essential to the safe existence of a people. If a sacrifice must be made for the sake of justice, it is no more than has already been done at hazards far greater. We must unite, as our fathers united, heartily at the work. We must determine, come what may, to discharge our debts; and on that determination we must act with wisdom and firmness. The king and the church was the motto of the feudal kingdoms; let religion and justice be ours.

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XX.

THE PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY—CONTINUED.

In the subjoined table, the values of the principal products of agriculture and of manufactures, and occasionally of other branches of industry, are specifically stated, while the rest are included under the general heads.

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN NEW YORK.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	474,543	\$23,736,150
Neat cattle,.....	1,911,244	21,823,928
Sheep,.....	5,118,777	7,678,165
Hogs,.....	1,900,065	5,700,195
25 per cent of.....		\$58,928,438
is.....		\$14,757,109
Poultry,.....		1,153,413
		<hr/>
		\$15,910,522

Wheat,.....bush.	12,286,418	\$12,286,418	
Oats,.....	20,675,847	7,753,192	
Maize,.....	10,972,286	6,857,699	
Other grain,.....	7,787,276	5,890,457	
Potatoes,.....	30,123,614	7,530,903	
			\$40,318,669
Wool,.....lbs.	9,845,295	3,445,853	
Products of dairy,.....		10,496,021	
" orchards,.....		1,701,935	
Hay,.....tons	3,127,047	28,143,423	
Other products,.....		8,258,838	
			52,046,050
			\$108,275,241
II. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....			24,311,715
III. <i>Mines</i> ,.....			7,408,070
IV. <i>Manufactures</i> .			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$8,060,348		
Woollen,.....	3,537,337		
Cotton, &c.,.....	5,185,968		
Hats and caps,.....	2,914,817		
Leather,.....	6,232,924		
Paper,.....	882,758		
Cordage,.....	792,910		
Musical instruments,.....	472,910		
Spirits,.....	3,592,144		
Carriages,.....	2,364,461		
Furniture,.....	1,971,776		
Houses,.....	7,265,844		
Ships,.....	797,317		
Other manufactures,.....	19,079,759		
		\$63,151,273	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		21,050,424	
			\$42,100,849
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		4,238,320	
Printing, &c.,.....		1,115,345	
			\$47,454,514
V. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....			5,040,781
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....			1,316,072
			\$193,806,433

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN NEW JERSEY.

I. <i>Agriculture</i> .			
Horses and mules,.....No.	70,592	\$3,505,100	
Neat cattle,.....	220,202	2,642,424	
Sheep,.....	219,285	438,570	
Hogs,.....	261,443	784,329	
			\$7,370,423
25 per cent of.....			\$1,842,606
is.....			336,953
Poultry,.....			\$2,179,559
Wheat,.....bush.	774,703	\$774,703	
Oats,.....	3,083,524	1,233,409	
Maize,.....	4,361,975	2,617,175	
Other grain,.....	2,534,438	1,900,827	
Potatoes,.....	2,072,069	518,017	
			7,044,631
Wool,.....lbs.	397,207	139,022	
Products of dairy,.....		1,328,032	
" orchards,.....		464,066	

Hemp and flax,..... tons	2,165½	\$281,547	
Hay,.....	334,861	3,013,749	
Other products,.....		1,759,247	
			<u>\$6,985,663</u>
			\$16,209,853
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$1,406,997		
Woollen,.....	440,710		
Cotton, &c.,.....	2,321,628		
Hats and caps,.....	1,181,562		
Leather,.....	1,582,746		
Glass,.....	904,700		
Paper,.....	569,000		
Carriages,.....	1,397,149		
Ships,.....	344,240		
Houses,.....	1,092,056		
Other manufactures,.....	3,412,278		
		<u>\$14,653,062</u>	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		4,884,354	
		<u>\$9,768,708</u>	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		861,724	
Printing, &c.,.....		65,825	
			<u>\$10,696,257</u>
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			1,206,929
IV. Mines,.....			1,073,921
V. The Forest,.....			361,326
VI. Fisheries,.....			124,140
			<u>\$29,672,426</u>

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN PENNSYLVANIA.

I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	365,129	\$18,256,450	
Neat cattle,.....	1,172,665	14,071,980	
Sheep,.....	1,767,620	2,651,430	
Hogs,.....	1,503,064	4,518,192	
			<u>\$39,498,052</u>
25 per cent of.....			\$9,877,013
is.....			685,801
Poultry,.....			<u>\$10,565,814</u>
Wheat,.....bush.	13,213,077	\$13,213,077	
Oats,.....	20,641,819	7,740,682	
Maize,.....	14,240,022	8,544,013	
Other grain,.....	8,928,508	6,626,480	
Potatoes,.....	9,535,663	2,383,416	
			<u>38,607,668</u>
Wool,.....lbs.	3,048,564	1,066,997	
Products of dairy,.....		3,187,292	
“ orchards,.....		618,179	
Hemp and flax,..... tons	2,649½	344,467	
Hay,.....	1,311,643	11,804,787	
Other products,.....		1,985,720	
			<u>19,307,442</u>
			<u>\$68,180,924</u>
II. Mines,.....			17,666,146
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			10,593,368
IV. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$6,757,665		
Woollen,.....	2,319,061		

Cotton, &c.,.....	\$6,202,133	
Hats and caps,.....	820,331	
Leather,	3,482,793	
Drugs, &c.,.....	2,100,074	
Glass,.....	772,400	
Paper,.....	887,835	
Carriages,.....	1,207,252	
Furniture,.....	1,155,692	
Ships,.....	668,015	
Houses,.....	5,354,480	
Spirits,.....	1,560,046	
Porter, &c.....	2,553,194	
Other manufactures,.....	8,387,737	
		\$44,228,708
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		13,742,903
		\$30,485,805
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		2,356,239
Printing, &c.,.....		512,235
		\$33,354,279
V. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....		1,203,578
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,		35,360
		\$131,033,655

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN DELAWARE.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	14,421	\$721,050	
Neat cattle,.....	53,883	646,596	
Sheep,.....	39,247	58,870	
Hogs,.....	74,228	222,684	
25 per cent of.....		\$1,649,200	
is.....		\$412,300	
Poultry,.....		47,265	\$459,565
Wheat,.....bush.	315,165	\$315,165	
Oats,.....	927,405	370,962	
Maize,.....	2,099,359	1,259,615	
Other grain,.....	50,005	37,478	
Potatoes,.....	200,712	50,178	
			2,033,398
Wool,.....lbs.	64,404	22,541	
Products of dairy,.....		113,828	
“ orchards,.....		28,211	
Hay,..... tons	22,483	224,830	
Other products,.....		316,067	
			705,477
			\$3,198,440

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$350,700	
Woollen,.....	104,700	
Cotton, &c.,.....	332,389	
Leather,.....	166,037	
Gunpowder,.....	336,000	
Houses,.....	145,850	
Other manufactures,.....	581,710	
		\$2,017,386
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		672,462
		\$1,344,924
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		184,493
Printing, &c.,.....		9,462
		\$1,538,879

III. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....	\$266,257
IV. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....	181,285
V. <i>Mines</i> ,.....	54,555
VI. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....	13,119
Total ,.....	\$5,252,535

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MARYLAND.

I. <i>Agriculture</i> .		
Horses and mules,.....No.	92,220	\$4,611,000
Neat cattle,.....	225,714	2,708,568
Sheep,.....	257,921	381,881
Hogs,.....	416,943	1,250,829
25 per cent of.....		\$3,952,278
is.....		\$2,238,069
Poultry,.....		218,765
		\$2,456,834
Wheat,.....bush.	3,345,783	\$3,345,783
Oats,.....	3,534,211	1,413,684
Maize,.....	8,233,086	4,058,271
Other grain,.....	800,777	610,582
Potatoes,.....	1,036,433	259,108
		10,569,008
Wool,.....lbs.	488,201	170,870
Products of dairy,.....		457,466
“ orchards,.....		105,740
Tobacco,.....lbs.	24,846,012	1,739,220
Hay,.....tons	106,687	1,066,870
Other products,.....		1,020,712
		4,560,878
		\$17,586,720
II. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent on capital,.....		3,499,087

III. *Manufactures*.

Metals and machinery,.....	\$690,155	
Woollen,.....	235,900	
Cotton, &c.,.....	1,692,040	
Hats and caps,.....	153,456	
Leather,.....	150,275	
Paper,.....	198,100	
Carriages,.....	357,622	
Furniture,.....	305,360	
Ships,.....	279,771	
Houses,.....	1,078,770	
Other manufactures,.....	2,779,855	
		\$7,921,334
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,640,444
		\$5,280,890
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		816,812
Printing, &c.,.....		114,975
		\$6,212,677
IV. <i>Mines</i> ,.....		1,056,210
V. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....		241,194
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....		225,773
Total ,.....		\$28,821,661

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN VIRGINIA.

I. <i>Agriculture</i> .		
Horses and mules,.....No.	326,438	\$16,321,900
Neat cattle,.....	1,024,148	10,241,480

Sheep,.....	1,293,772	\$1,940,658	
Hogs,.....	1,992,155	3,994,310	
25 per cent of.....		<u>\$32,498,348</u>	
is.....		\$8,124,587	
Poultry,.....		754,698	\$8,879,285
Wheat,.....bush.	10,109,716	\$10,109,716	
Oats,.....	13,451,052	5,380,424	
Maize,.....	34,577,591	17,288,795	
Other grain,.....	1,814,051	1,360,534	
Potatoes,.....	2,944,660	761,165	34,900,364
Wool,.....lbs.	2,538,374	761,512	
Tobacco,.....	73,347,106	3,767,355	
Cotton,.....	3,494,483	319,558	
Products of dairy,.....		1,480,498	
" orchards,.....		705,765	
Hemp and flax,*.....tons	25,594½	3,071,310	
Hay,.....	364,708	2,917,664	
Other products,.....		2,282,250	15,305,902
			<u>\$59,085,821</u>
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$789,573		
Woollen,.....	147,792		
Cotton, &c.,.....	679,312		
Tobacco,.....	2,406,671		
Leather,.....	826,597		
Carriages,.....	647,815		
Furniture,.....	289,391		
Ships,.....	136,807		
Houses,.....	1,367,393		
Other manufactures,.....	2,130,483		
		<u>\$9,421,734</u>	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		3,140,578	
		<u>\$6,281,186</u>	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		1,963,850	
Printing, &c.,.....		104,212	\$8,349,218
			<u>5,299,451</u>
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			
IV. Mines.			
Iron,.....		\$1,129,247	
Coal,.....		1,593,381	
Salt,.....		436,404	
Other products,.....		162,597	3,321,629
			617,760
V. The Forest,.....			
VI. Fisheries,.....			
			<u>95,173</u>
Total,.....			<u>\$76,769,032</u>

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN NORTH CAROLINA.

I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	166,608	\$8,330,400	
Neat cattle,.....	617,371	5,556,339	

* This item is certainly erroneous, if in nothing else, in the product of the county of Lee, which, with a population of 8,441, is stated to produce more hemp and flax—10,468 tons—than any state in the Union, except Virginia. The error probably exceeds \$1,000,000.

Sheep,.....	538,279	\$682,848	
Hogs,.....	1,649,716	3,299,432	
25 per cent of.....		\$17,869,019	
is.....		\$4,467,505	
Poultry,.....		544,125	\$5,011,630
Wheat,.....bush.	1,960,855	\$1,960,855	
Oats,.....	3,193,941	1,277,626	
Maize,.....	23,893,763	9,477,505	
Other grain,.....	233,936	176,343	
Potatoes,.....	2,609,239	452,309	13,344,638
Wool,.....lbs.	625,044	156,261	
Cotton,.....	51,926,190	3,633,863	
Tobacco,.....	16,672,359	833,618	
Products of dairy,.....		674,349	
“ orchards,.....		386,006	
Hemp and flax,..... tons	9,879 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,284,367	
Hay,.....	101,369	810,962	
Other products,.....		840,147	8,619,563
			\$26,975,831
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$63,039		
Cotton, &c.,.....	444,721		
Leather,.....	185,387		
Carriages,.....	301,601		
Ships,.....	62,800		
Houses,.....	410,264		
Other manufactures,.....	979,022		
		\$2,446,834	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		815,611	
		\$1,631,223	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		388,024	
Printing, &c.,.....		34,450	
			\$2,053,697
III. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....			1,446,108
IV. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....			1,322,284
V. Mines.			
Gold,.....		\$255,618	
Other minerals,.....		116,868	
			372,486
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....			251,792
Total,.....			\$32,422,198
ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN SOUTH CAROLINA.			
I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	129,921	\$7,795,260	
Neat cattle,.....	572,608	4,582,864	
Sheep,.....	232,981	291,226	
Hogs,.....	878,532	1,757,064	
25 per cent of.....		\$14,426,414	
is.....		\$3,606,603	
Poultry,.....		396,364	
			\$4,002,967
Wheat,.....bush.	968,354	\$968,354	
Oats,.....	1,483,208	593,283	

Maize,.....	14,722,805	\$7,361,402	
Other grain,.....	48,777	37,579	
Potatoes,.....	2,608,313	452,079	
			<hr/>
Wool,..... lbs.	299,070	89,721	\$9,412,697
Cotton,.....	61,710,274	4,628,270	
Rice,.....	60,590,861	1,514,771	
Products of dairy,.....		577,810	
" orchards,.....		55,275	
Hay,..... tons	24,618	246,180	
Other products,.....		1,028,742	
			<hr/>
			8,138,027
			<hr/>
			\$21,553,691
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$83,531		
Cotton, &c.,.....	362,830		
Leather,	109,472		
Carriages,	189,270		
Ships,	60,000		
Houses,	1,527,576		
Other manufactures,.....	492,642		
			<hr/>
		\$2,825,321	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		941,440	
			<hr/>
		\$1,882,881	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		300,419	
Printing, &c.,		65,615	
			<hr/>
			\$2,248,915
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			2,632,421
IV. The Forest,			549,626
V. Mines,.....			187,608
VI. Fisheries,			1,275
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$27,173,536

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN GEORGIA.

I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	157,540	\$9,452,400	
Neat cattle,.....	884,414	7,075,312	
Sheep,.....	267,107	407,660	
Hogs,.....	1,457,755	2,915,510	
			<hr/>
25 per cent of		\$19,850,882	
is.....		\$4,962,720	
Poultry,.....		449,623	
			<hr/>
			\$5,412,343
Wheat,.....bush.	1,801,830	\$1,801,830	
Oats,	1,600,630	644,012	
Maize,.....	20,905,122	10,462,561	
Other grain,.....	73,713	58,637	
Potatoes,.....	1,291,366	322,841	
			<hr/>
			13,289,881
Wool,..... lbs.	371,303	111,391	
Cotton,.....	163,392,396	11,437,467	
Rice,.....	12,384,732	309,618	
Products of dairy,.....		605,072	
" orchards,.....		156,122	
Hay,..... tons	16,940	169,400	
Other products,.....		977,477	
			<hr/>
			13,766,527
			<hr/>
			\$31,468,271

II. Manufactures.		
Metals and machinery,.....	\$144,704	
Cotton, &c.,.....	308,025	
Leather,.....	123,701	
Carriages,.....	249,065	
Houses,.....	693,116	
Other manufactures,.....	839,046	
	<hr/>	\$2,357,657
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		785,886
		<hr/>
		\$1,571,771
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		317,179
Printing, &c.,.....		65,000
		<hr/>
		\$1,953,950
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....		2,248,488
IV. Mines,.....		191,631
V. The Forest,.....		117,439
VI. Fisheries,.....		584
		<hr/>
Total,.....		\$35,980,363

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN ALABAMA.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	143,147	\$8,588,820
Neat cattle,.....	668,018	5,344,140
Sheep,.....	163,243	244,854
Hogs,.....	1,423,873	2,847,746
		<hr/>
25 per cent of.....		\$17,025,560
is.....		\$4,256,390
Poultry,.....		404,894
		<hr/>
		\$4,661,284
Wheat,.....bush.	828,052	\$828,052
Oats,.....	1,406,353	562,541
Maize,.....	20,947,004	8,378,801
Other grain,.....	58,758	44,091
Potatoes,.....	1,708,356	427,189
		<hr/>
		10,240,674
Cotton,.....lbs.	117,138,823	8,209,717
Wool,.....	220,353	66,106
Products of dairy,.....		265,200
" orchards,.....		55,240
Hay,.....tons	12,718	127,180
Other products,.....		1,071,112
		<hr/>
		9,794,555
		<hr/>
		\$24,696,513
II. Manufactures.		
Metals and machinery,.....	\$179,470	
Leather,.....	180,152	
Carriages,.....	88,891	
Houses,.....	739,871	
Other manufactures,.....	882,449	
	<hr/>	\$2,071,333
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		690,444
		<hr/>
		\$1,380,889
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		306,356
Printing, &c.,.....		45,525
		<hr/>
		\$1,732,770
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....		2,273,267
IV. The Forest,.....		177,465
V. Mines,.....		81,310
		<hr/>
Total,.....		\$28,961,325

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MISSISSIPPI.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	109,227	\$6,553,620	
Neat cattle,.....	623,197	3,739,182	
Sheep,.....	128,367	192,550	
Hogs,	1,001,209	2,002,418	
25 per cent of.....		\$12,487,770	
is.....		\$3,121,997	
Poultry,		369,482	\$3,491,479
Wheat,.....bush.	196,024	\$196,024	
Oats,.....	668,624	334,312	
Maize,.....	13,161,237	5,264,494	
Other grain,.....	13,159	10,298	
Potatoes,.....	1,630,100	407,525	
Cotton,.....lbs.	193,401,577	15,472,126	6,212,653
Rice,.....	777,193	23,315	
Wool,.....	175,192	52,559	
Products of dairy,.....		359,585	
" orchards,.....		14,458	
Other products,.....		868,290	
			16,990,456
			\$26,494,565

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$286,685		
Leather,	118,167		
Houses,	1,175,513		
Other manufactures,.....	568,231		
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		\$2,121,596	
		707,199	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		\$1,414,397	
Printing, &c.,.....		121,716	
		49,677	\$1,585,790
III. <i>Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....</i>			1,453,686
IV. <i>The Forest,.....</i>			205,297
Total,.....			\$29,739,338

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN LOUISIANA.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	99,888	\$5,973,280	
Neat cattle,.....	381,248	3,049,984	
Sheep,.....	98,072	147,108	
Hogs,	323,229	646,440	
25 per cent of.....		\$9,816,812	
is.....		\$2,454,203	
Poultry,		283,559	\$2,737,762
Oats and other grain,.....bush.	109,225	\$54,548	
Potatoes,.....	844,341	217,085	
Maize,.....	5,952,912	2,976,451	
Cotton,	152,555,368	10,678,875	3,248,084
Sugar,	119,947,720	4,797,908	
Rice,.....	3,604,534	108,136	
Hay,	24,651	246,510	

Products of dairy,.....		\$153,069	
" orchards,.....		11,769	
Other products,.....		869,262	
		<hr/>	\$16,865,529
			<hr/>
II. Manufactures.			\$22,851,375
Metals and machinery,.....	\$35,000		
Bricks and lime,.....	861,655		
Tobacco,.....	150,000		
Leather,.....	108,500		
Refined sugar,.....	770,000		
Tallow candles,.....	425,000		
Ships,.....	80,500		
Houses,.....	2,736,944		
		<hr/>	\$5,676,944
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		1,892,667	
		<hr/>	\$3,784,134
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		176,696	
Printing, &c.,.....		126,825	
		<hr/>	\$4,087,655
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			7,868,898
IV. Mines,.....			165,280
V. The Forest,.....			71,751
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$35,044,959
ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN ARKANSAS.			
I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	51,472	\$2,573,600	
Neat cattle,.....	188,786	1,509,188	
Sheep,.....	42,151	52,699	
Hogs,.....	393,058	786,116	
		<hr/>	\$4,921,603
25 per cent of.....			\$1,230,401
is.....			109,468
Poultry,.....			<hr/>
			\$1,339,869
Wheat,.....bush.	105,878	\$105,878	
Maize,.....	4,846,632	2,423,316	
Oats and other grain,.....	196,620	82,232	
Potatoes,.....	293,608	74,402	
		<hr/>	2,685,828
Cotton,.....lbs.	6,028,642	\$361,718	
Hemp,.....tons	1,039½	135,135	
Other products,.....		564,207	
		<hr/>	1,061,060
			<hr/>
			\$5,086,757
II. Manufactures.			
Houses,.....	\$1,141,174		
Other manufactures,.....	406,578		
		<hr/>	\$1,577,879
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		525,957	
		<hr/>	\$1,051,922
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		82,712	
Printing, &c.,.....		10,675	
		<hr/>	\$1,145,309
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			420,635
IV. The Forest,.....			217,469
V. Mines,.....			18,225
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$6,888,395

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN TENNESSEE.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	341,309	\$17,070,450	
Neat cattle,.....	882,857	7,062,956	
Sheep,.....	741,693	926,991	
Hogs,.....	2,926,607	4,389,010	
25 per cent of.....		\$29,449,407	
is.....		\$7,612,352	
Poultry,.....		606,969	\$8,219,321
Wheat,.....bush.	4,569,692	\$3,427,269	
Oats,.....	7,035,678	1,758,419	
Maize,.....	44,986,188	11,246,547	
Other grain,.....	326,307	164,322	
Potatoes,.....	1,904,370	476,092	17,072,649
Products of dairy,.....		\$472,141	
“ orchards,.....		367,105	
Wool,.....lbs.	1,060,332	265,583	
Tobacco,.....	29,550,432	1,172,017	
Cotton,.....	27,701,277	1,662,076	
Hemp and flax,.....tons	3,344½	334,450	
Hay,.....	31,233	218,631	
Other products,.....		1,876,207	6,368,210
			\$31,660,180

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$445,050		
Cotton,.....	325,719		
Wool, &c.,.....	27,198		
Hats and caps,.....	104,940		
Leather,.....	359,050		
Cordage,.....	139,630		
Carriages,.....	219,897		
Spirits,.....	224,821		
Houses,.....	427,402		
Other manufactures,.....	1,191,666		
		\$3,233,552	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		1,077,850	
		\$2,155,702	
Manufactures by mills,.....		255,166	
Printing, &c.,.....		56,325	\$2,477,193

III. *Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....*

2,239,478

IV. *Mines,.....*

1,371,331

V. *The Forest,.....*

225,179

Total,..... \$37,973,361

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MISSOURI.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	196,632	\$7,865,280	
Neat cattle,.....	433,875	3,471,000	
Sheep,.....	348,018	348,018	
Hogs,.....	1,271,161	1,271,161	
25 per cent of.....		\$12,955,459	
is.....		\$3,238,865	
Poultry,.....		270,647	\$3,509,512

Wheat,.....bush.	1,037,386	\$518,693	
Oats,.....	2,234,947	335,241	
Maize,.....	17,332,524	3,482,505	
Other grain,.....	93,727	36,863	
Potatoes,.....	783,768	117,565	
		<hr/>	\$4,490,867
Products of dairy,.....		\$100,432	
" orchards,.....		90,878	
Wool,.....lbs.	562,265	140,564	
Tobacco,.....	9,067,913	362,716	
Hemp and flax,.....tons	8,010 $\frac{1}{4}$	640,860	
Hay,.....	49,083	343,581	
Other products,.....		804,853	
		<hr/>	2,483,884
			<hr/>
			\$10,484,263
II. Manufactures.			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$257,600		
Woollen, &c.,.....	24,865		
Hats and caps,.....	111,620		
Leather,.....	298,345		
Carriages,.....	97,112		
Houses,.....	1,441,573		
Other manufactures,.....			
		<hr/>	\$3,108,385
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		1,036,128	
		<hr/>	\$2,072,257
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		240,014	
Printing, &c.,.....		48,437	
		<hr/>	\$2,360,708
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			2,349,245
IV. The Forest,.....			448,559
V. Mines,.....			187,669
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$15,830,444
ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN KENTUCKY.			
I. Agriculture.			
Horses and mules,.....No.	395,853	\$19,792,650	
Neat cattle,.....	787,098	9,445,176	
Sheep,.....	1,008,240	1,260,300	
Hogs,.....	2,310,533	2,310,533	
		<hr/>	\$32,808,659
25 per cent of.....			\$8,202,165
is.....			536,439
Poultry,.....			<hr/>
			\$8,738,604
Wheat,.....bush.	4,803,152	\$2,401,526	
Oats,.....	7,155,974	1,788,993	
Maize,.....	39,047,120	7,969,424	
Other grain,.....	1,347,033	680,602	
Potatoes,.....	1,088,085	158,262	
		<hr/>	12,998,807
Products of dairy,.....		\$931,363	
" orchards,.....		434,935	
Wool,.....lbs.	1,786,847	446,712	
Tobacco,.....	53,435,409	2,137,476	
Hemp,.....tons	9,992 $\frac{1}{4}$	799,380	
Hay,.....	88,306	353,224	
Other products,.....		2,386,044	
		<hr/>	7,489,134
			<hr/>
			\$29,226,545

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$255,106	
Woollen,.....	151,246	
Cotton, &c.,.....	465,593	
Tobacco,.....	413,585	
Hats and caps,.....	201,310	
Leather,.....	732,646	
Cordage,.....	1,292,276	
Carriages,.....	168,724	
Furniture,.....	273,350	
Spirits,.....	352,737	
Houses,.....	1,039,172	
Other manufactures,.....	
		\$6,624,132
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,208,044
		\$4,416,088
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		609,484
Printing, &c.,.....		66,781

\$5,092,353
2,580,575
1,539,919
184,799

III. *Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,*.....

IV. *Mines,*.....

V. *The Forest,*.....

Total,.....

\$38,624,191

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN OHIO.

I. *Agriculture.*

Horses and mules,.....No.	430,527	\$17,221,080
Neat cattle,.....	1,217,874	9,728,992
Sheep,.....	2,028,421	2,535,525
Hogs,.....	2,099,746	2,099,736

25 per cent of..... \$31,585,333

is..... \$7,896,333

Poultry,..... 551,193

\$8,447,526

Wheat,.....bush.	16,571,661	\$8,285,830
Oats,.....	14,393,103	2,158,965
Maize,.....	33,668,144	6,733,629
Other grain,.....	1,659,884	669,179
Potatoes,.....	5,805,021	870,753

18,718,356

Wool,.....lbs.	3,685,315	\$921,329
Tobacco,.....	5,942,275	297,113
Sugar,.....	6,363,386	381,303
Products of dairy,.....		1,848,869
“ orchards,.....		476,271
Hemp and flax,.....tons	9,080½	726,420
Hay,.....	1,022,037	4,088,148
Other products,.....		1,896,666

10,636,119

\$37,802,001

II. *Manufactures.*

Metals and machinery,.....	\$2,141,807
Woollen,.....	685,757
Cotton, &c.,.....	435,148
Hats and caps,.....	728,513
Leather,.....	1,986,146
Paper,.....	350,202
Carriages,.....	701,228
Furniture,.....	761,146
Spirits,.....	1,265,893

Ships,.....	\$522,855	
Houses,.....	3,776,823	
Other manufactures,.....	\$18,036,527
Deduct for materials one-third,.....	6,012,176
		<hr/>
		\$12,024,351
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....	2,217,052
Printing, &c.,.....	346,680
		<hr/>
		\$14,588,091
III. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....	8,050,316
IV. <i>Mines</i> ,.....	2,442,682
V. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....	1,013,063
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....	10,525
		<hr/>
Total,.....	\$63,906,678

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN INDIANA.

I. <i>Agriculture.</i>		
Horses and mules,..... No.	241,036	\$9,641,440
Neat cattle,.....	619,980	4,959,840
Sheep,.....	675,982	834,939
Hogs,.....	1,623,008	1,623,008
		<hr/>
25 per cent of.....	\$17,069,218
is.....	\$4,267,317
Poultry,.....	357,594
		<hr/>
		\$4,624,911
Wheat,..... bush.	4,049,375	\$2,028,687
Oats,.....	5,981,605	498,467
Maize,.....	28,155,887	5,631,177
Other grain,.....	206,655	80,625
Potatoes,.....	1,525,794	228,868
		<hr/>
		8,467,824
Products of dairy,.....	742,269
“ orchards,.....	110,055
Sugar,..... lbs.	3,727,795	223,667
Wool,.....	1,237,919	309,473
Tobacco,.....	1,820,306	91,015
Hemp and flax,..... tons	8,605½	668,440
Hay,.....	178,029	712,116
Other products,.....	1,297,972
		<hr/>
		4,155,008
		<hr/>
		17,247,743
II. <i>Manufactures.</i>		
Metals and machinery,.....	\$177,479	
Cotton,.....	135,400	
Wool, &c.,.....	112,141	
Hats and caps,.....	122,844	
Leather,.....	730,001	
Carriages,.....	163,135	
Furniture,.....	211,481	
Spirits,.....	357,427	
Ships,.....	107,223	
Houses,.....	1,241,312	
Other manufactures,.....	
		<hr/>
		\$4,556,397
Deduct for materials one-third,.....	1,518,799
		<hr/>
		\$3,037,596
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....	582,283
Printing, &c.,.....	56,826
		<hr/>
		\$3,676,705

III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....	\$1,866,155
IV. The Forest,.....	660,836
V. Mines,.....	80,000
VI. Fisheries,.....	1,192
Total,.....	\$23,532,631

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN ILLINOIS.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	199,235	\$7,969,400
Neat cattle,.....	626,274	5,013,192
Sheep,.....	395,672	494,590
Hogs,.....	1,495,254	1,495,254
25 per cent of.....		\$14,972,436
is.....		\$3,743,109
Poultry,.....		309,204
		\$4,052,313
Wheat,.....bush.	3,335,393	\$1,667,696
Oats,.....	4,988,088	415,667
Maize,.....	22,634,211	4,526,842
Other grain,.....	228,332	124,346
Potatoes,.....	2,025,520	303,828
		7,038,379
Products of dairy,.....		428,175
“ orchards,.....		126,756
Wool,.....lbs.	650,007	162,500
Hemp and flax,.....tons	1,976½	158,100
Hay,.....	164,932	659,728
Other products,.....		1,075,515
		2,610,774
		\$13,701,466

II. Manufactures.

Metals and machinery,.....	\$88,640	
Leather,.....	247,217	
Carriages,.....	163,135	
Spirits,.....	310,336	
Furniture,.....	84,410	
Ships,.....	39,200	
Houses,.....	2,065,255	
Other manufactures,.....	881,857	
		\$3,880,050
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		1,293,350
		\$2,586,700
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		604,450
Printing, &c.,.....		52,825

III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....	1,493,425
IV. Mines,.....	293,272
V. The Forest,.....	249,841
Total,.....	\$18,981,995

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MICHIGAN.

I. Agriculture.		
Horses and mules,.....No.	30,144	\$1,205,760
Neat cattle,.....	185,190	1,481,520
Sheep,.....	99,618	124,022
Hogs,.....	205,890	205,890
25 per cent of.....		\$3,017,192
is.....		\$754,298
Poultry,.....		82,730
		\$837,028

Wheat,.....bush.	2,157,108	\$1,078,554	
Oats,.....	2,114,051	175,337	
Maize,.....	2,277,039	455,408	
Other grain,.....	275,630	148,790	
Potatoes,.....	2,109,205	316,380	
			<hr/>
Sugar,.....lbs.	2,329,784	\$79,877	
Wool,.....	153,375	38,344	
Hay,.....tons	130,805	523,220	
Hemp and flax,.....	755½	60,420	
Products of dairy,.....		428,175	
" orchards,.....		126,756	
Other products,.....		234,600	
			<hr/>
			1,491,392
			<hr/>
			\$4,502,889
II. <i>Manufactures.</i>			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$114,073		
Leather,.....	192,190		
Ships,.....	10,500		
Houses,.....	571,005		
Other manufactures,.....	430,181		
			<hr/>
		\$1,317,949	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		439,316	
			<hr/>
		\$878,633	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		458,091	
Printing, &c.,.....		39,525	
			<hr/>
			\$1,376,249
III. <i>Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,</i>			622,822
IV. <i>The Forest,</i>			467,540
V. <i>Mines,</i>			56,790
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$7,026,290

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN WISCONSIN TERRITORY.

I. <i>Agriculture.</i>			
Horses and mules,.....No.	5,735	\$229,400	
Neat cattle,.....	30,269	242,152	
Sheep,.....	3,462	4,327	
Hogs,.....	51,383	51,383	
			<hr/>
25 per cent of.....		\$527,262	
			<hr/>
is.....		\$131,815	
Poultry,.....		16,167	
			<hr/>
			\$147,982
Wheat,.....bush.	212,116	\$106,058	
Oats,.....	406,514	33,876	
Maize,.....	379,359	75,872	
Other grain,.....	23,681	13,223	
Potatoes,.....	419,608	62,941	
			<hr/>
Other products,.....			291,970
			129,153
			<hr/>
			\$568,105
II. <i>Manufactures.</i>			
Miscellaneous,.....	\$102,269		
Houses,.....	212,085		
			<hr/>
		\$314,354	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		104,785	
			<hr/>
		\$209,569	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		87,748	
Printing, &c.,.....		7,375	
			<hr/>
			\$304,692

III. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....			\$189,957
IV. <i>Mines</i> .			
Lead,.....lbs.	15,129,350	\$378,233	
Other minerals,.....		6,370	
			<hr/> 384,603
V. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....			430,580
VI. <i>Fisheries</i> ,.....			27,663
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$1,905,600

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN IOWA TERRITORY.

I. <i>Agriculture</i> .			
Horses and mules,.....No.	10,791	\$431,630	
Neat cattle,.....	38,049	304,352	
Sheep,.....	15,354	19,192	
Hogs,.....	104,809	104,809	
			<hr/>
25 per cent of.....		\$859,993	
is.....		\$214,998	
Poultry,.....		16,529	
			<hr/>
Wheat,.....bush.	154,693	\$77,336	
Oats,.....	216,385	32,450	
Maize,.....	1,406,241	281,248	
Other grain,.....	10,732	5,912	
Potatoes,.....	234,063	35,109	
			<hr/>
Other products,.....			432,073
			105,695
			<hr/>
			\$769,295
II. <i>Manufactures</i> .			
Miscellaneous,.....	\$90,224		
Houses,.....	135,985		
			<hr/>
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		75,403	
			<hr/>
		\$150,806	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		23,856	
Printing, &c.,.....		4,425	
			<hr/>
			\$179,087
III. <i>Commerce</i> , 25 per cent of capital,.....			136,525
IV. <i>The Forest</i> ,.....			83,949
V. <i>Mines</i> ,.....			13,250
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$1,182,106

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN FLORIDA TERRITORY.

I. <i>Agriculture</i> .			
Horses and mules,.....No.	12,043	\$722,580	
Neat cattle,.....	118,081	944,648	
Sheep,.....	7,198	10,797	
Hogs,.....	92,680	185,360	
			<hr/>
25 per cent of.....		\$1,863,385	
is.....		\$465,846	
Poultry,.....		61,007	
			<hr/>
Maize,.....bush.	808,974	\$404,243	
Oats and other grain,.....	14,576	6,078	
Potatoes,.....	264,617	66,154	
			<hr/>
Cotton,.....lbs.	12,110,583	\$726,632	
			<hr/>
			476,475

Sugar,.....lbs.	275,317	\$16,519	
Other products,.....		87,758	
			<u>\$830,909</u>
II. Manufactures.			\$1,834,237
Miscellaneous,.....	\$227,795		
Houses,	327,913		
		\$555,708	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		185,236	
			<u>\$370,532</u>
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		47,412	
Printing, &c.,.....		16,600	
			<u>\$434,544</u>
III. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			464,637
IV. Fisheries,.....			213,219
V. The Forest,.....			27,350
VI. Mines,.....			2,700
			<u>\$2,976,687</u>

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

I. Agriculture.			
Live stock,.....No.	161,969		
25 per cent,.....		\$40,492	
Grain,.....bush.	63,029	46,367	
Other products,.....		90,083	
			<u>\$176,942</u>
II. Commerce, 25 per cent of capital,.....			802,725
III. Manufactures,.....		\$1,153,714	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		387,905	
			<u>\$765,808</u>
Manufactures by mills,.....		45,842	
Printing, &c.,.....		92,875	
			<u>904,526</u>
IV. Fisheries,.....			87,400
			<u>\$1,971,593</u>

Table showing in what proportions the several products of industry are distributed, and the proportional value of each product to each person in the great divisions of the States.

EMPLOYMENTS.	N. ENGLAND STATES.		MIDDLE STATES.		SOUTHERN STATES.		SOUTHWESTERN STATES.		NORTHWESTERN STATES.		TOTAL U. STATES.	
	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.	Prop. of prod.	Value to each person.
Agriculture, ..	40.	\$33.45	54.7	\$41.57	80.4	\$41.80	79.9	\$48.76	66.8	\$27.41	61.6	\$38.16
Manufacture, ..	43.9	37.05	25.6	19.49	8.5	4.46	8.	4.85	18.	7.40	22.5	13.99
Commerce, ..	7.2	6.05	10.4	7.92	6.8	3.55	10.3	6.28	10.1	4.14	9.2	5.70
Mining,	2.	1.71	7.	5.31	2.4	1.21	1.2	.72	3.2	1.33	4.	2.47
The Forest, ..	1.8	1.50	1.8	1.33	1.6	.82	.6	.39	1.7	.71	1.6	.98
Fisheries, ...	5.1	4.23	.5	.38	.3	.162	.01	1.1	.70
Total, ...	100.	\$84.	100.	\$76.	100.	\$52.	100.	\$61.	100.	\$41.	100.	\$62.

Summary of the Annual Products of Industry in the several States, with the proportional amount to each individual of the whole of the free population in each State.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	VALUE OF ANNUAL PRODUCTS FROM							PROP. TO EACH PERS'N.	
	Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Com-merce.	Mining	Forest.	Fisheries.	Total.	Wh'le p. p.	Free pop.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollar	Dollars	Dol s.	Dollars.	Dollars.		
Maine,....	15,856,370	5,615,303	1,505,380	327,376	1,877,663	1,280,713	26,462,705	52	52
N. Hamp.,	11,377,752	6,545,811	1,001,533	88,373	449,861	92,811	19,556,141	68	68
Vermont.,	17,879,155	5,685,425	758,899	389,488	430,224	25,143,191	85	85
Mass.,....	16,065,627	43,518,057	7,004,691	2,020,572	377,354	6,483,996	75,470,297	103	102
R. Island.,	2,199,309	8,640,626	1,294,956	162,410	44,610	659,312	13,001,223	110	119
Connect't,	11,371,776	12,778,963	1,963,281	820,419	181,575	907,723	28,023,737	90	90
N. Eng. S.	74,749,889	82,784,185	13,528,740	3,808,638	3,361,287	9,424,555	187,657,294	84	84
N. York,...	108,275,281	47,454,514	24,311,715	7,408,070	5,040,781	1,316,072	193,806,433	79	79
N. Jersey,...	16,209,853	10,696,257	1,206,929	1,073,921	361,326	124,140	29,672,426	79	79
Pennsylv.,	68,180,924	33,354,279	10,593,368	17,666,146	1,203,578	35,360	131,033,655	76	76
Delaware,	3,198,440	1,538,879	266,257	54,555	13,119	181,285	5,252,535	67	70
Maryland,	17,586,720	6,212,677	3,499,087	1,056,210	241,194	225,773	28,821,061	61	76
D. of Col.,	176,942	904,526	802,755	87,400	1,971,593	45	50
Middle S.	213,628,160	100,161,132	40,680,081	27,258,902	6,859,998	1,970,030	390,558,303	76	77
Virginia,...	59,085,821	8,349,218	5,299,451	3,321,629	617,760	95,173	76,769,053	62	97
N. Caroli.,	26,975,831	2,053,697	1,322,284	372,486	1,446,108	251,792	32,422,198	44	63
S. Caroli.,	21,553,691	2,248,915	2,632,421	187,608	549,626	1,255	27,173,536	45	101
Georgia,...	31,468,271	1,953,950	2,248,488	191,631	117,439	584	35,980,363	52	87
Flor.da., ..	1,834,237	434,544	464,637	2,700	27,350	213,219	2,976,687	54	103
South'n S.	140,917,851	15,040,324	11,967,281	4,076,054	2,758,283	562,043	175,321,836	52	87
Alabama,	24,696,513	1,732,770	2,273,267	81,310	177,465	28,961,325	49	103
Mississip'i	26,494,565	1,585,790	1,453,686	205,297	29,739,338	79	104
Louisiana,	22,851,375	4,087,655	7,868,898	165,280	71,751	35,044,959	99	189
Arkansas,	5,086,757	1,145,309	420,635	18,225	217,469	6,888,395	70	88
Tennessee	31,660,180	2,477,193	2,239,478	1,371,331	225,179	37,973,360	45	58
S'west S.,	110,789,390	11,028,717	14,255,964	1,636,146	897,161	138,607,378	61	97
Missouri,	10,484,263	2,360,708	2,349,245	187,669	448,559	15,830,444	41	48
Kentucky,	29,226,545	5,092,353	2,580,575	1,539,919	184,799	38,624,191	49	64
Ohio,	37,802,001	14,588,091	8,050,316	2,442,682	1,013,063	10,525	63,906,678	42	42
Indiana,...	17,247,743	3,676,705	1,866,155	660,836	80,000	1,192	23,532,631	34	34
Illinois,...	13,701,466	3,243,981	1,493,425	293,272	249,841	18,981,985	39	39
Michigan,...	4,502,889	1,376,249	622,822	56,790	467,540	7,026,390	33	33
Wisconsin	568,105	304,692	189,957	384,603	430,580	27,063	1,905,600	47	47
Iowa,	769,295	179,087	136,525	13,250	83,949	1,132,106	27	27
N'west S.	114,302,307	30,821,866	17,289,020	5,579,011	2,958,331	39,380	170,989,925	41	44
Total,...	654,387,597	239,836,224	79,721,064	42,358,761	16,835,060	11,906,008	1,063,134,736	62	73

The following table shows, in centesimal proportions, how the product of each branch of industry in the United States is distributed among the great divisions of the states :—

DIVISIONS.	Agricult.	Manufac.	Comm'ce.	Mining.	Forest.	Fisheries.	Total.
New England States,....	11.4	34.3	13.8	9.	20.	78.6	17.6
Middle States,.....	32.7	42.	41.6	64.3	40.7	16.4	36.8
Southern States,.....	21.5	6.2	12.3	9.6	16.4	4.7	16.5
Southwestern States,....	16.9	4.6	14.6	3.9	5.3	13.
Northwestern States,....	17.5	12.9	17.7	13.2	17.6	.3	16.1
	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.

It appears from the preceding tables, that, notwithstanding the great inequality in the five geographical divisions of the Union, both as to population and extent, there is no considerable difference in the total value of their annual products, with the exception of those of the middle states, which are more than one-third of the whole. Of the other four divisions, the New England states, though somewhat the smallest in population, and much the smallest in extent, exceed the other divisions in the value of their annual products.

The agricultural products of the states may be compared in various ways. 1st. As to the proportion which they bear to the agricultural products of the whole Union. 2d. As to the proportion which this branch of their industry bears to the other branches. 3d. As to the average value to each inhabitant. 4th. As to the average value for each one of its territory. 5th. As to the quantities produced.

The three first comparisons are exhibited in the first and third table. They show that nearly one-third of the agricultural products of the Union are furnished by the middle states, one-ninth by the New England states, and from about a fifth to a sixth by each of the other three divisions. Thus, four-fifths of the products of the southern and southwestern states are agricultural, two-thirds of those of the northwestern states, more than half of those of the middle states, and but two-fifths of those of the New England states; that the value of this class of products to each inhabitant is the greatest in the southwestern states, and the lowest in the northwestern.

But the greatest diversity is in the average value per acre of their agricultural products, which is principally owing to the great difference among the states in the proportion of their uncultivated lands. Thus:—

	Agricultural products.	Area in acres.	Value per acre.
New England States,.....	\$74,749,889	42,336,000	\$1 76
Middle States,.....	213,628,160	75,168,000	1 84
Southern States,*.....	139,083,614	133,996,800	1 03
Southwestern States,.....	110,789,390	156,851,200	70
Northwestern States,†.....	112,964,907	191,904,000	58

The last point of comparison is in the quantities annually produced; and we should make a very false estimate of the agricultural wealth of the different states, if we were to confine our attention to the money value of their several products, and not to regard the quantities produced. A large part of the products of every state are consumed where they are produced; and as to this portion, the greater the cheapness of the products of a state, the greater is its wealth. If the same labor and capital would produce twice as much grain in the western states as in the Atlantic states, it is obvious that either one-half the labor and capital required in the latter may be saved in the western states, and diverted to other sources of profit, or that those states may have twice as much as the Atlantic states for consumption. And as to the surplus sent abroad to be exchanged for other products, though the price be but half that in the Atlantic states, yet if twice the quantity is produced at the same expense, the value produced in both places will be the same. The advantage of the superior fertility of the western states is not as great as we have supposed, for the purpose of illustration, but it is probably sufficiently great to bring the profits of their agriculture upon a level with those of the Atlantic states.

* The territory of Florida not included.

† The territories of Wisconsin and Iowa not included.

Of the wheat, Indian corn, and other grain used for bread, and potatoes, the quantities produced by the different great divisions of the states, and the proportion to each inhabitant, are as follows :—

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	Population.	Bushels of grain, exclusive of oats.	Propor. to each pers.	Bushels of potatoes.	Propor. to each pers.
New England States,.	2,234,822	12,506,000	5½	35,181,000	15½
Middle States,.....	5,118,076	89,952,000	17½	42,969,000	8½
Southern States,.....	3,279,006	111,080,000	33½	9,710,000	3
Southwestern States,.	2,245,602	95,982,000	42½	6,862,000	3
Northwestern States,.	4,057,313	179,620,000	43½	12,615,000	3

It thus appears that the proportion of grain to each inhabitant in the western states is eight times as great as it is in New England, and two and a half times as great as it is in the middle states. If we add the proportion of potatoes to that of the grain, and suppose four bushels of the former equal to one of the latter, then the difference between the western states and New England will be as 5 to 1, and between the former and the middle states as 2½ to 1.

It should further be remarked, that about fifteenth-sixteenths of the grain and potatoes produced in the United States are consumed at home, either directly, or in the form of animal food, and only one-sixteenth is sent abroad in either of these forms. From this large domestic consumption, we may see how greatly the western states are benefited by this greater cheapness of production. It may well be supposed that the gain from this source compensates them for their greater distance from market.

The quantity of food annually consumed in the United States by a family of five persons,* after deducting one-sixteenth of the grain for the amount exported, and one-tenth for seed, is as follows :—

Indian corn,.....	85 bushels
Oats,.....	28 “
Wheat, rye, &c.,.....	25 “
Potatoes,.....	25 “

The average of domestic animals to each family is :—

Horses and mules,.....	1½
Cattle,.....	4
Sheep,.....	5½
Hogs,.....	7

To the articles annually consumed by a family, are to be added poultry, to the value of \$2 25 ; pickled fish, one-third of a barrel ; rice, 12 lbs. ; sugar, 42 lbs. ; besides garden vegetables, products of the orchard, and game.

The same, or nearly the same very liberal consumption which is here indicated, may be expected to continue in the United States so long as its population continues thin, compared with the capacities of the country, and no longer, unless, indeed, the high standard of comfort to the poorest class in this country should prevent the redundancy of numbers, which finds its

* It was not thought necessary to distinguish the families of slaves in this estimate from those of free persons, there being no essential difference between them as consumers of raw produce. If the families of slaves consume somewhat less of animal food, they contain also a greater proportion of children.

check in disease and destitution. This is a problem which the experience of other nations cannot assist us to solve, since the facility of subsistence which exists here, seems never to have existed in any part of the old continent in any stage of society.

In manufacturing industry, the states differ far more than in agriculture. The New England and middle states, containing less than two-fifths of the whole population, possess more than three-fourths (76.3 per cent) of the manufactures. The manufactured products of New England exceed those of its agriculture by nearly a tenth. Those of Massachusetts alone exceed in value those of all the western states together, and are nearly thrice as great as those of the four southern states united. This diversity is to be referred principally to the different densities of population in the states, and in some degree to the slave labor of one-half of them, which, untutored as it is, seems suited only to the greater simplicity of agricultural operations.

The cheapness and abundance of provisions and raw materials (including coal) in the northwestern states, must eventually make them the seats of flourishing manufactures, and even before they have attained that very dense population their fertile soil is destined to support. Even with their present numbers, the census affords evidence of their particular adaptation to this branch of industry. The manufactures of Ohio alone already nearly equal in value those of the four southern states.

The profits of commerce amount to something more than an eleventh of the whole annual product, if they have not been estimated too high at 25 per cent on the capital employed. They constitute more than a tenth of the whole products in the middle, the southwestern, and the northwestern states, about a fourteenth in New England, and a fifteenth in the southern states.

Mining contributes but 4 per cent of the whole national product. Nearly two-thirds of the whole (64.3 per cent) are in the middle states. More than half the remainder is in the northwestern states.

The products of the forest constitute $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the whole. They are furnished by each division of the states nearly in proportion to the population, except by the southwestern states, where they are little more than the half of one per cent of the products of that division.

The products of the fisheries, the lowest in the scale as to direct gain, barely exceed 1 per cent of the whole, and more than three-fourths of them (78.6 per cent) are contributed by the New England states. From this branch of industry the southwestern states derive nothing, and the northwestern next to nothing. It is of far greater importance in a national view, as affording an excellent nursery for seamen, than as a source of gain, except to the New England states, where it yields 5 per cent of their whole annual product.

On comparing the individual states, we find that in agriculture, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, are far before the rest in the value of their products. In manufactures, New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania take the lead. The profits of commerce are greatest in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Louisiana; but in proportion to population, Louisiana stands foremost. In mining industry, Pennsylvania equals all the other states except New York, which is second, though not the half of Pennsylvania. Virginia is the third, though not the half of New York. In the products of the forest, the order of precedence is New York,

Maine, and North Carolina. In the fisheries, the product of Massachusetts is more than that of all the rest of the Union. New York and Maine are the next highest.

If we distribute the whole annual product in 1840—1,063 millions of dollars—among the whole population, we find that the proportion to each inhabitant is greatest in the New England states, where it is \$84; in the middle states, it is \$76; in the southern, \$52; in the southwestern, \$61; and in the northwestern, \$41. The causes of this diversity are to be found yet more in the different densities of population, different degrees of fertility, and different distances from market, than in the existence or absence of slavery, though that also has its influence. It is the difference of distance from market which makes the industry of an individual in the southwestern states 50 per cent greater than in the northwestern. It is the difference of fertility which makes the same industry worth \$79 in Mississippi, and but \$49 in Alabama. The same cause makes the industry of the southwestern states more productive than that of the southern states. It is the greater density of numbers in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and their consequent success in manufactures, which makes industry more productive in those states than it is in New York and Pennsylvania. In the two former, the proportion to an individual is greater than in any other state. In Rhode Island, it is \$110, and in Massachusetts, \$103. The annual product from manufactures in Rhode Island is very nearly four times that derived from her agriculture.

If we distribute the annual product among the free population exclusively, then the proportion to each individual will be greater in the slaveholding than in the free states, for in several of them the proportion will be then more than doubled. Thus, in South Carolina, it will be raised from \$45 to \$101; in Mississippi, from \$79 to \$164; and in Louisiana, from \$99 to \$189; then the highest in the Union.

The whole of the 1,063 millions annually produced, together with the omitted articles, amounting perhaps to between 40 and 50 millions more, are annually consumed, except a very small portion, which adds to the stock of the national wealth. The progressive increase of this wealth will be considered in the next chapter.

ART. III.—USURY AND THE USURY LAWS.

THE human mind emerging from barbarism to civilization—passing from darkness to light—may, not inappositely, be likened to the body in the first of our species, when in progress of transition (according to the theories of certain philosophers) from mud to man. This process of creation should present what would now-a-days be considered a curious spectacle—here a head peering above the oozy pool, there the accession of a pair of masculine shoulders; at a modest distance, a female, extricated to the waist, and so far, of full-formed beauty—*formosa superne*; but ending, *turpiter desinans*, in a mass of shapeless slime, which Prometheus, that prince of potters, had not yet moulded into form, baked into “living flesh.” But this would not be more curious in reality than what we witness daily, when we see around us even the most enlightened minds and sound judg-

ments clogged by prejudices of palpable absurdity, immersed to the middle in the chaos of error.

The incongruity is, however, in the one case as in the other, natural, and perhaps necessary. Instead, then, of treating this order of things with idle astonishment or ignorant invective, the friends of truth and man will never approach it but with the warmth of charitable remonstrance, and the light of reason guided by experience. These should be the ruling principles, especially of the press—the press, which is the Prometheus of the modern mind.

On this much maligned subject of prejudice, let us be indulged in a few observations. It is important in itself, nor irrelevant to the occasion, and we are solicitous to disclaim, once for all, any sympathy with the vulgar cant on the one hand, against prejudices, monopoly, &c., and on the other, against a latitude of levelling, to the imputation of which the purposes of this paper may with some expose us. As in attacking a prejudice of (we believe) the most palpable kind we not only declare our opinion that prejudice in the abstract is excusable, but admit that it is salutary, and even reasonable. We dare not judge the wisdom of Providence, who must have ordained a principle so deeply rooted in the nature and condition of man.

Nay, further, we contend that there never has been a single prejudice, whether in the form of an opinion or of an institution, (not excepting that which we go to combat, though the absurdest of all,) that had not originally its reason and use; and that, if subsequently they have become abuses and absurdities, it is only by a change of the circumstances. By the word "prejudice," in the sense in question, we understand all judgments not proceeding immediately from reflection or reasoning. As thus interpreted, is it not the source of all that is steady and uniform in human institutions? the conservatism of instinct surer than that of reason? the drag-chain that retards the dizzying whirl of the car of innovation down the "easy descent" of destruction? This is no mere theory. In fact, what else than prejudice constitutes nine-tenths of the practical wisdom of nine-tenths of mankind. And is it not rational to adhere to what has been explored by the experience, and recommended by the example of our predecessors, rather than swallow the unknown nostrums of peddling reformers, or popularity-seeking politicians? The presumption is always against novelty, and in favor of establishment.

"Yes," reply our march-of-mind gentlemen, "if the nostrum be unknown, or be prescribed by a known quack. But here is the inconsistency of the people, that while they see the abuse, know and possess the remedy, they want resolution to apply our prescriptions." For us, we must think it rather an error in the reformers. Where the people, as under this government, knowingly possess this remedy, history shows that they have been neither slow nor scrupulous in using it. The truth is, they do not "see" the abuse as alleged, or not with the precise, pressing, powerful evidence requisite to move a multitude. And if they admit the arguments, or more generally, assertions of newspapers and magazines, it is that they have nothing positive to oppose. This merely passive assent (which the vanity of the declaimers construes into *conviction*) will, in the mass of mankind, be the effect of the latest, not of the strongest impulsion. For them, the scale of probability has few graduations. Nor are they to blame, though we can less easily excuse the same defects in their legisla-

tors, who should be representatives of the *interests*, not of the ignorance of their constituents. The minds capable of this intellectual equilibrium are as few as the men who can walk on a tense wire, or, perhaps, who can compete in dancing on a needle-point with the angels of the scholastic problem.

The reformer, then, who is sincere, and would be successful, must observe two requisites: First, he should clearly show (nor tire of showing) that the abuse he combats is an oppressive one, having no other ground (if such be the fact) than some obsolete or absurd prejudice. Second, and that no inconvenience, or none not amply compensated by the proposed improvement, can result from its immediate extirpation.

From the relics of the venerable past we select, for this occasion, the subject of usury, with some hope of attracting to it the attention of our citizens, and through them the action of the present legislature. Surely, laws the most mischievous, sustained only by prejudices the absurdest perhaps that barbarism has bequeathed us, could not exist a day, did the people clearly comprehend their true character and consequences. To present a systematic view of their "merits"—what has and may be said of most plausible for, as well as of most positive against them—is then our design; and be it the apology of a formal disquisition in so trite a topic declamation. But declamation is not demonstration. For the rest, in choosing the latter more humble but less beaten track, we profess not so much to produce new lights, as to new-dispose the old.

In observance of our own rule, we proceed to examine:—

1. The right or the expediency of laws against usury, or of legislative interposition to dictate the terms upon which individuals may hire or sell their money. And,
2. Whether there are any reasons why the laws of this description on our statute-book should not be utterly and instantly abolished, and a "free trade" allowed in money, as safely *at least*, and as beneficially as in any other subject of commerce.

A writer of the present day may, it is presumed, disregard the old question, as to the licitness of all interest on money. The moral, or rather theological champions of the negative, have been silenced by the common sense and common practice of the civilized world. A few of such fanatics are, however, still to be found, even in this country—men who govern their kitchens more strictly than their conduct, in accordance with their quaint notions of the Bible. Not more, we believe, than half a dozen years ago, a book on this subject was published in New York by a Roman Catholic clergyman named O'Calaghan. Though the author was the latest, we hope the last of those worthies—*ultimus Romanorum*—his book is worthy of the tenth century for ignorance no less of scriptural exegesis, than of commercial jurisprudence.

Besides, the law prohibiting usury supposes the compatibility of *legal* interest with morality. It is usury then, not interest, that our laws denounce as crime, our theology as sin, our public opinion as infamy!

Now what is usury? what interest? What, if there be any, is the difference between them? Interest is a premium for the use of a sum of money. Usury is *really* the same thing. Of course, we have failed to find the difference whereon the venerated authorities alluded to erect their terrible tribunals. The term *usury*, indeed, may be defined, *the stip-*

ulation of an interest higher than the law permits. But this definition is, in regard to the *thing*, purely arbitrary, as we shall soon have occasion to show; that is, it is no definition at all.

What right, then, has the law to limit the rate of interest in direct violation of the most sacred principles of individual liberty and universal justice? That no man of mature age, sound mind, contracting freely and intelligently, ought to be hindered, even from considerations for his interest, to make what terms he judges suitable in his pecuniary transactions; this is an axiom which will not be contested. That contracts ought to be executed, and that our constitution declares them inviolable, is equally certain. Yet our laws against usury ride roughshod over both. It is not asserted that these rules are not liable, like most, to exception. But it is for those who claim the exemption to prove their title; a duty which we desire the advocates, if there should be any, of these laws to bear in mind. Meanwhile, our object being to instruct, not to dispute, we proceed to consider the chief reasons that have been alleged, or that we can imagine, in their justification.

The most prevalent appears to be, THAT USURY OUGHT TO BE PROHIBITED. Why ought it to be prohibited? Because, says the argument, it is an evil. Why is it an evil? Because, replies the definition, it is prohibited by the law. Such are the vicious circle and the verbal sophism upon which rest our legal prohibition, and popular prejudice against usury!

To show more clearly the absurdity of a law that undertakes to constitute and punish a crime which it cannot determine, we may imagine another definition of usury, viz: *the stipulation of a higher rate of interest than that established by the general usage of the state or community.* This is the only usury that could have existed before the interposition of the law; as, previous to this usage, there could have been none at all.

Now the law, before making usury or any other act criminal, must determine positively in what the crime consists. To determine this, it must fix the highest rate of interest permissible. Since money has, no more than other merchandise, an absolute natural value, how can this be fixed other than upon the basis of general usage? But, independently of this usage, usury, we have seen, has *morally* no existence. It would be even inconceivable, and any definition the law could devise be purely arbitrary.

Custom then—blind custom—is the only basis for legislation on this subject. And what a basis! It is different in different countries at the same time, at different times in the same country, and even, as with ourselves, in different communities of the same country at the same time. These variations of custom are indicated by the correspondent alterations of the legal interest. With the Romans, down to Justinian, this was as high as 12 per cent. In England, down to Henry VIII., it continued at 10 per cent. Subsequently it was reduced by statute successively to 8, 6, and 5 per cent. In Hindostan, where there is, we believe, no legislative regulation, it varies from 8 to 10 per cent. At Constantinople it rises to 30 per cent. In these United States, the diversity of the legal interest is characteristically great, and ranges between 5 and 10 per cent. Now, which of all these rates has been the most equitable? and who can tell, except the parties concerned? Certainly none. For equity has no relation whatsoever to *amount*, but depends on the reciprocal advantage

and assent of the contracting parties. Custom itself had no other origin than this consent, and yet it is on this authority that the law assumes to coerce other parties who are entitled to the same right. My neighbors, in the exercise of their liberty, have agreed upon a certain rate, and this is assigned as a reason why I shall be deprived of the like exercise of mine! Some persons, a century ago, judged it convenient to lend at 7 per cent, therefore it is criminal in me to consult my convenience! In view of a promising investment, it would be to my advantage to borrow at 10 per cent, which I am willing to engage. No, say our legislators, you must not at that rate. Why? Because it does not suit your neighbor to give so much. We solemnly ask, if a lunatic would avow or act upon such a reason?

Again, if the reason applies to money, why not to all merchandise? To loan money is simply to exchange a present for a future value. In the few instances wherein the legislator has meddled for the purpose of regulating prices, we have to commend his intentions rather than his judgment or his success. How can an interference, denounced as mischievously absurd in regard to trade in general, be held necessary in this particular species of trade? In any other, a man may get 50 per cent if he can; it is reckoned a "fair transaction," and he even lauded for a "smart business man." But let him accept (in New York) over 7 per cent for his money, and he not only forfeits principal and interest, incurs the charge and punishment of felony, but is also branded with the odious appellation of "usurer;" while if, with the same money, he builds a house, and lets it at a profit on the investment of 20 per cent, it is all perfectly fair! Talk after this of the absurdities of barbarous ages, and of the intelligence of this!

Having despatched this merely verbal argument for the usury laws, we come to one that goes to the substance of the question, but which will, we think, be found to be no less fallacious.

LAWS AGAINST USURY, IT IS SAID, ARE EXPEDIENT, IN THAT THEY PREVENT PRODIGALITY.

This is a consideration indeed, not of so much apparent weight in our young republic, as in the countries of large fortunes, aristocratic minors, and accommodating Jews. The amendment, however, of our usury laws, (made in 1837,) which, adding to the previous sanction of forfeiture the penalty of fine and imprisonment, was predicated in the supposed efficacy of these laws to repress the extravagance of borrowing that prevailed at that commercial crisis. This home fact induces us to go into detail on this point, which we should else have deemed unnecessary.

We are not here concerned with the question, Whether prodigality be a proper subject of legislative restriction?—whether the legislator, though it be his province to hinder men from hurting each other, is charged with the supererogatory office of hindering a man of age and discretion from hurting himself?—whether a third party can be allowed to understand the interest of the prodigal as well as he does himself?—whether the actual inconvenience from inability to satisfy his wants must necessarily be less than the future consequences of his extravagance? Much may, we conceive, be said on both sides of these articles. But granting that the law ought to interpose for the repression of prodigality, we deny that laws against usury have any such effect, or even tendency.

No man, prodigal or not, who has money will borrow. It is only with

the needy prodigal, then, that we and the laws in question have to do. If he have good security to offer, why may he not borrow on the current terms? In such a case, what do these laws avail him? If his securities be not satisfactory, and he cannot find one of those monsters, a usurer, in consequence of this law, will he stop here? No, surely; for if he would, he were not a *prodigal*. He will sell his possession or titles at a much greater disadvantage. This is the way in which the law would protect against himself the prodigal who has means, by driving him to the ruinous alternative of a forced sale, which, in effect, is a sacrifice.

As to those who have no security to offer, no property to pledge, they will find it no less difficult to borrow at a low than at a high interest. If a friend lend, he will not charge, if anything, more than the current rate; and a stranger will lend on no condition. Where, then, is the protection?

Other considerations also prove the inefficacy of these laws. The spendthrift or the speculator will elude them while credit is to be had, and procure the commodities which he desires, by submitting to terms proportional to the risk. Merchandise can (we all know) be more easily procured than money. Why? Because the profit upon the former is, at the least, three or four times greater than the legal interest on the latter; and the merchant can therefore risk proportionally more in selling his merchandise than his money. The person who can procure the one may the other, and he is not made the less, but the more a spendthrift by this facility.

We might further note, if there was any end of noting its evils, the unequal treatment by this law of the merchant and the money-dealer. Here, as in all cases, the laws of man, when they thwart those of nature, only magnify or multiply the evil they were intended to remove or prevent. A law has no medium of indifference, but is either a good or an evil. Every law being a restraint upon liberty, is essentially an evil, and can be justified but by an overbalance of good. A law, then, not only when it has a bad effect, but when it has *no* effect, is necessarily unjust and oppressive.

The third reason alleged in justification of laws against usury, and which is perhaps the most plausible as well as popular, is this:—

THE NECESSITY OF PROTECTING THE POOR FROM EXTORTION, AND THE SIMPLE FROM FRAUD.

An imperfect or indistinct conception of the *nature* of money, we regard as the cause of most of our financial disputes. The value of money (or strictly of any object of value) is not an absolute quality, but consists solely in a capability of satisfying human wants or wishes. Its degrees are but modifications of this relation. What is called the current price of an article is not its actual, but its average value, resulting from the ratio between the whole of the individual offers, and the whole of the demands in the market. This ratio, this market price, is ever varying with the circumstances of the parties to each particular exchange. It consists, then, in opinion—in the preference given by each to the article received above the value given. This preference, and this alone, explains the possibility of *both* the parties *gaining* by a sale or barter. In this point of view the consideration for the parties is simple and subjective. Accordingly, in these mercantile transactions they are left free to make their own terms, as best knowing their own circumstances and opinions.

Is there anything peculiar in pecuniary transactions that would lead us to suppose the legislator to be a better judge therein of these circumstances and opinions than the parties themselves? Quite the contrary; the ele-

ments of consideration in this case are not only less obvious and appreciable, but far more numerous. In every money transaction there are these considerations : on the part of the lender, the privation of his capital, and the risk of the loan ; on the part of the borrower, a want to satisfy, and a loss to prevent or a profit to gain, with the indefinite degrees of each, and the modifying combinations of all. These are still, in a measure, reducible to rule. But the degrees of the borrower's *embarrassment* or expectation are not only indefinite, but generally unknown to all but himself. Yet the law that fixes a rate of interest proceeds upon their uniformity, and supposes the legislator to know them better than the party who suffers them.

Of what advantage, then, to the indigent are those laws that pretend to protect them from the extortion of usurers? Of course, no man will, supposing him of sane mind, borrow at a higher interest than he can obtain money at. But the needy, whose security is deficient, must compensate for the deficiency by a higher premium. To forbid them this resource, is the sort of protection this law gives the indigent, which is much as if it should cut off their heads to spare them the expense of hats. But while it thus precludes the needy from all relief, it yields protection, as usual, to those who do not need ; it depresses the rate of interest, by excluding the demands of the poor from the market.

As to the protection of the simple against fraud : is there a degree of folly, short of idiocy or imbecility, (which are otherwise provided for,) that can render a man less capable of judging of his own circumstances, and, consequently, of the value (to him) of the loan he seeks, than the law ?

But suppose the law a better judge ; why not extend its beneficence to his other mercantile dealings, where he is much more exposed to imposition ? To borrow money must be, especially with simpletons, a rare circumstance ; the current rate in a charge of interest is a fact commonly known to even women and children, and the quality is guaranteed by the national certificate. In merchandise, on the contrary, the bargains are frequent, the articles numerous, the prices fluctuating, the differences of quality in each (for example, the article of meat, against the legislative interference in which we have lately raised such clamor) are indefinite, and often imperceptible. Yet while it is universally held an absurdity and an outrage for the law to pretend to shield him, in the one case, from the daily and multiplied dangers of fraud, it is permitted to interfere its injurious and insulting protection in the other, where there are few, if any ! But we have dwelt, we fear, superfluously on this subject.

We have, it is hoped, sufficiently demonstrated that the laws against usury have not a single ground, in right or expediency, to justify them. We now proceed briefly to show, that they are not only null as to their proposed objects, but are nefarious in their practical effects ; that they not only fail (as we have seen) to effect any of the good pretended, but virtually permit or create all the evils they were designed to prohibit.

Imagine the cruelty and distress of a law that should deprive even those who had the best security, of the liberty of borrowing. Such is the treatment suffered by that large portion of the community, who could make their securities satisfactory by augmenting the interest, but who are prevented by this law. This preclusion is based only on the misfortune of having a deficient security, and instead of aiding the embarrassed, does but aggravate his distress, by taking from him his sole resource.

Another consequence is the preposterous alternative which it permits, of a forced sale, far more ruinous than the most exorbitant interest. This just and benevolent law prohibits a man to borrow on the security of his property at 10 or 8 per cent, but permits (*compels* is the word) that same property to be sold (suppose under execution) probably at 30, perhaps 50 per cent; with the additional feature of wisdom and beneficence, that in the case of sale, the party must pay at once, in the midst of his distress; while in that of borrowing, he has months, perhaps years to pay it, when he may be prosperous, or will be prepared.

This, however, affects only those who own property or available values. Persons who have no property to sell, no security to offer, can help themselves only by infraction of the law, and inducing capitalists to brave its penalties. Thus, then, this law, designed to keep down the rate of interest, operates directly the contrary. Nor does it elevate the rate merely by restricting the competition as above observed, but also by adding to the risk of insufficient security that of incurring the legal penalties (in this state) of forfeiture and felony! against both of which the lender will of course take measures to be proportionably indemnified.

The last, nor the least, of the pernicious consequences of this law which we shall notice, is its demoralizing effects. Does it not furnish the money-lender a pretext for extortion, give him an interest in the embarrassment of his neighbors? To the creditor, does it not offer a bribe for perfidy, set a bounty on repudiation? Does it not accustom both to extend their common hatred and habitual infraction of this law to law in general? Does it not, in restraining the liberty of stipulation, outrage private right in nullifying the stipulation when made? does it not prejudice public faith? Professedly declaring the nullity of contracts, does it not trample upon the constitution that solemnly declares their inviolability, and make war upon society of which the faith of contract is the fundamental principle?

To justify the existence of a law is one thing—to *account for* it another. In regard to usury laws, we have demonstrated the first task to be impossible, after which, the second might be deemed a matter more of curiosity than of necessity or use. Holding, however, the opinion of popular conviction expressed at the opening of this paper, we cannot leave a single peg for prejudice to hang even a doubt upon, in favor of a law that is a clog upon our commercial enterprise, and a disgrace to our national intelligence. The majority of men cannot easily divest themselves of a reverence for authority. The question will haunt them, "How is it that mankind for ages should have continued so pernicious an error, or ever adopted so palpable an absurdity as you pretend this law to be? Are you wiser than all the past, and most of the present legislators?" Then, with a shake of the head, or a shrug of the shoulders, they will suppose that there *must* be something behind. In order, then, to ensure complete conviction, we will show the origin of these laws to have been as frivolous, as their foundation has been proved to be false. To refer an error to its source, is, says Lord Coke, to refute it.

According to some authors, the prejudice against usury, and consequently usurers, originated in the Christian principle (or rather a principle of the early Christians) of self-denial. According to this, people were to contravene their inclinations—to do nothing that might conduce to their temporal advantage. To make money is to violate this injunction, since

money procures the objects of gratification. But to loan, is to make money, at least in intention. Therefore it was unlawful. Common sense gradually prevailed as to the other modes of money-making; but this *Jewish* one (of lending) the *Christian* repugnance was invincible.

When, in course of time, this, with most other questions, was thrown into the crucible of scholastic disputation, the anti-usury party fell upon a passage of great support to their sinking cause. Aristotle, whose authority was, in those days, scarce inferior to the Bible, had, it appeared, declared, "that money was naturally barren." From this diction the theological logicians hastened to conclude, that to make it *generate* interest was, therefore, illegitimate; we can only infer from it, that it would be *impossible*. To try to make sterility produce may indeed be folly, but it is not necessarily sin. But the main argument against interest was the alleged prohibition by scripture. We have above imputed ignorance, as well of scripture as of commerce, to the theological writers upon this subject. To justify this charge, let us be indulged in a short examination of two of the principal passages, one from each Testament.

The first is the well known text from St. Luke: *Mutuum date, nihil inde sperantes*—Lend to the needy without requiring interest. Here, clearly, is but a precept of charity. The construction that makes it an injunction of justice, shocks the reason and the meaning of the context. Even these interpreters themselves will not go to the length of saying, that justice *obliges* a man to lend his money. They admit, then, that the first clause of the text (*mutuum date*) contains a precept of charity, not a rule of justice. And will it be held that the loan itself is not imperative, and that the accessory, the condition, is so? Christ will thus have been represented as saying to *all* men, "You are free to lend your money or not; but if you do loan it, you must take care to derive from it no interest. Though a merchant should want it for an investment that would ensure large profit, you must either not lend at all, or lend gratuitously. True, by the loan, you may enable him to make 50 per cent; yet if you stipulate 10 for yourself, which you might have made yourself by the capital while it was away, you commit a grievous sin?" This is what the fanatics discovered in the passage. But what Christ has really said to his *disciples* is this: "As men, as Christians, you are all brethren, all friends. As such, treat each other; assist each other in your necessities; let your purses be open to one another, and sell not the aid which you mutually owe by exacting interest for a loan which charity makes a duty." What places this position beyond doubt is, that the text in question is found in the same chapter, and in connexion with those maxims of superior sanctity, called, we believe, evangelical counsels; such as "Do good to those who hate you;" "When buffeted on one cheek, turn the other," &c. But did a man of common sense ever understand these as obligations of justice?

The passage from the Old Testament is explained similarly: "Thou shalt lend at interest to thy brother neither money, nor fruit, nor anything else, but to the foreigner." Can the divine law have permitted the Jews to violate the law of nature? Can God be supposed to have authorized an injustice? Such, however, are the impious absurdities into which these fanatics are driven to fall.

But these sophisms can have prevailed only with Jews and Christians, whereas the prejudice against usury is found, we believe, in all parts of the world, certainly in many where neither of these creeds were known.

There must then have been some other and deeper cause for its existence and duration.

The fact is, theologians and jurists found the prejudice in existence, and instead of investigating its cause, sought for reasons to sustain the popular, or charitable side; they discovered a thousand bad ones, only because one good one was not to be found. The true cause is the construction of society, and the nature of men. Ancient communities (and *primitively*, all communities) may be distinguished into two classes—those who owned labor, (which, though the only productive agency, yet can produce nothing without instruments wherewith to operate,) and those who had exclusive possession of these instruments, whether land or capital. The people having no other means of acquiring these, nor, of course, of subsistence, would be necessitated to submit to any terms which the greedy proprietors might subscribe. The labor and life of each were held as scarce an equivalent for a living, and let us excuse them if they became slaves where liberty would have been starvation. Hence the institution of slavery, which, like the prejudice against interest, has profanely been ascribed to divine origination.

In the times of which we speak, people borrowed not for the purpose of trade, but the support of existence, and of course were seldom able to repay. With this risk the rate of interest rose, the inability was augmented. It is not in human nature not to hate the creditor who extorts his debt in this condition, even though without interest. But in this case no one would avow it; it would be felt an atrocious injustice and ingratitude to make a benefit the occasion of hurting a benefactor. But if he could point his hatred against the enormous interest which the creditor, taking advantage of his necessities, extorted, he would awaken the sympathies of every heart, and detestation of the usurer is a necessary consequence. This hatred would be general, the borrowers being the great majority, the lenders few. These enormous interests, and the atrocious laws (of which the rich were the sole makers) made to enforce payment, were the radical grievances of the people in all the states of antiquity. This it was that occasioned the withdrawal of the Roman plebeians to the Mons Sacer. It has been prolific of disorder and discontent up to the present day, and will probably continue to do so until (we are serious) the kingdom of Fourierism shall come. There is, however, a notable revolution in the parties, at least in this country; now, it is the people who are the plundered, and the aristocracy who clamor for bankrupt laws.

It would be instructive, but it would be beyond our present limits, to trace the causes that have progressively meliorated this hard condition of the working class, and to note the corresponding reduction of the rates of interest, a fact clearly showing that usury had its foundation in *political inequality*, as interest, we incline to think, has in *social*. A word in explanation.

Usury or interest has a two-fold character—insurance and hire. The effect of the development of credit is to reduce indefinitely the risk, and, of consequence, the premium of the lenders, that of the general distribution of wealth, to diminish the necessities and the numbers of the borrowers. Both are natural tendencies of untrammelled trade. But the *risk* and the *inconvenience* of a loan annihilated, where is the right to receive interest? For, *naturally*, no man has a right to the superfluity that another wants.

Of these meliorative causes, there are two which we, however, cannot omit to mention. The first (in time if not in efficacy) was Christianity, with its softening and consoling influences, its spirit of equality, its commiseration for the unfortunate, its love of mankind. And if the ministers of a religion which was the first to take up the cause of the poor, and to place them at least in a *spiritual* (which was a step towards a political) equality with their tyrants—if these ministers have misapplied its precepts in the instances above reprehended, let these failings be regarded indulgently, for they lean to virtue's side.

Finally, came Commerce, which, if not the mother, has been certainly the nurse of modern liberty; and, by the development of credit, and the distribution of capital among the industrial classes, has relaxed the iron grasp of the usurer. The means of action were thus afforded to the spirit of independence, or *human dignity*, which Christianity had inspired and taught. The chains alike of the lord and the usurer gradually dropped off. The political influence of the people soon followed and reciprocated the favors of that commerce, whereby, chiefly, it was brought into being. Such are the causes that so remarkably reduced the rates of interest throughout modern Europe—the one, by opening the political, the other, by neutralizing the moneyed monopolies of aristocracy. Yet, up to this day, we sometimes hear this change attributed to “the influx of the precious metals from the new world,” as if the value of these metals *as a medium of exchange*, bore any necessary relation to quantity! This was a concomitant, not a cause. Still, this glorious march of life and liberty is far from its destination, in this, as in other directions. A capital impediment on their course is this bugbear of usury, whose nursery terrors still impose on us the detriment and disgrace of a system of laws whose tyranny is tolerable but through the impotence of their prohibitions, whose atrocity is extenuated but by the ignorance of their makers.

We have now, we trust, fulfilled our undertaking. We have demonstrated that laws against usury can have no ground in either justice or expediency. This was our first proposition. But as we have gone farther, and shown that such laws must always be, on the contrary, founded in iniquity and impolicy, and that *ours*, in particular, do incessantly work both, we may spare our readers for the present any consideration of the second position, which was, “that our laws of this description ought to be immediately and entirely abolished.” At all events, the task of proof is devolved upon those who would sustain them. And humbly as we may think of our legislators at Albany, we are unwilling to insult them by anticipating such perversity.

ART. IV.—LETTER TO COTTON MANUFACTURERS.

[HENRY LEE, Esq., a distinguished merchant of Boston, has favored us with the following manuscript letter, the twenty-fourth of a series addressed “To the Cotton Manufacturers of Massachusetts,” now in press, and shortly to be published in pamphlet form. We bespeak for the work, on its appearance, the candid perusal of all who take any interest in our commercial resources, or in the production or manufacture of cotton, one of the most important staples of the nation. Mr. Lee's views are the result of

a long and careful investigation of the whole subject, and the conclusions at which he arrives, based as they are upon experience and the most unquestionable and authentic data, are every way worthy of serious consideration. The present letter relates to the quantity of American cotton exported from Great Britain to Asia, in the form of manufactures, beyond the quantity of East India cotton consumed in that country; the increased home demand for cotton in 1816, consequent upon the exclusion of East India cotton goods from home consumption; and he ascribes the unsteady, fluctuating and party legislation of Congress, since 1816, in reference to what are termed the "protected interests," one cause of their unthriftiness. The present low prices of American cotton, he maintains, will cause a large and rapid decrease of importations of East India cottons into Great Britain, and that the existing low prices of cotton—based as they are upon a sound currency—favorable to the permanent interests of the cotton producing states.]

At the conclusion of a preceding letter it was stated that some facts would be produced, to show the advantageous bearing upon the value of our great staple, cotton, of the export trade carried on by Great Britain in cotton fabrics with her East India subjects and her other colonies beyond the Cape of Good Hope and with China. It was there asserted, that of the raw material used in the manufacture of cotton goods in Great Britain, the quantity imported from India was less than the quantity of raw material worked up in the goods sent from England to the countries above enumerated. Now, as nearly the whole of the raw cotton used in England, independent of the India cotton, is of American product, it follows—if we can show that the weight of cotton goods sent from England to those countries exceeds the weight of the raw material used by the British manufacturers—that the Asiatics are, to that extent, consumers of our great staple. The British manufacturers, our competitors in one branch of business, are thus instrumental in aiding the cotton planters of this country by extending the consumption of their leading product. The amount of the raw article thus disposed of, is now very inconsiderable in proportion to our crop, because importations of cotton still continue to be made from India. Still, even now, the quantity thus got rid of is of some importance, especially when the growth of cotton has so far outrun its consumption.

When, however, the importations of cotton from India shall have greatly decreased, which we have assumed will soon be the case if the present prices are not enhanced, then the quantity of the raw commodity used in fabrics sent from England to Asia—beyond the quantity of the raw article received from India—will be of some considerable magnitude. Indeed, if the exportations of cotton fabrics from England to Asia continue to progress in the ratio which may reasonably be expected, there will, in a few years, be as much American cotton consumed in Asia, as is now used in the manufactures of this country. In this view of the matter, the point under consideration is an interesting one to this country, and especially to that section of it which depends mainly for its support on the cultivation of cotton.

So important has it been considered to get rid of the interference of India cotton with our own, that the expulsion of India made goods from the markets of this country, and a substitution of the home made article, manufactured of home-grown cotton, has always been held up by the au-

thors and the advocates of the protecting policy as one of its greatest benefits. In the debates upon the first protecting act, passed in 1816, it was one of the points insisted upon by the parties concerned in establishing the system, in order to gain the influence and the votes in its favor of Mr. Lowndes, Mr. Barbour, Mr. Crawford, Mr. Calhoun, and other southern members of Congress. It probably had some considerable effect in obtaining from those gentlemen,* and a majority of their colleagues from the cotton states, the support which they gave to that act, and to the principle on which that act was founded, though subsequently carried to an extreme in the act of 1828, which gave, as we think, just dissatisfaction to those gentlemen and the sections they represented, and which it is, we believe, generally now admitted, even in the manufacturing states, produced more evil than good to the interests it was intended to sustain.

This substitution of American grown cotton for East India cotton, arising out of the home manufacture of heavy goods, was thus alluded to by Mr. Edward Everett, in one of his most persuasive speeches in favor of the protecting system:—"As far as our domestic cottons take the place of India goods, their manufacture is a clear addition to the demand for American cotton."

Again, from an address to the people of the United States, put forth in 1831, by a convention held at New York, and comprising delegates in favor of the protecting system, selected from every order of manufacturers, we extract the following, from many other remarks, upon this subject:—"The return of peace made it necessary for the national legislature to take off the taxes that had been imposed to defray the war expenses. In this reduction of duties the cotton planting interest urged, with great force and propriety, the necessity of retaining such a duty as would exclude from the American market all fabrics made from the cotton of the East Indies." Again: "Nothing was more generally acknowledged than the duty of the government to protect the cotton grower against such a competition; and this argument was addressed to the nation by the cotton growing states," &c.

The question now is as to the extent of the benefit gained by the cotton cultivators of the United States, by the exclusion of India cotton fabrics,

* "I know something of the motives which influenced South Carolina in this measure—(the tariff of 1816.) A highly esteemed and intimate friend, now no more, who passed a great part of that session of Congress at Washington, and who was greatly influential in bringing differing views and conflicting interests to unite in this measure, explained to me, on his return, the views under which a majority of the delegation of South Carolina were induced to vote for that bill. South Carolina was then, as now, a cotton growing state; cotton was her great staple. The power loom had been brought into complete and successful operation in this country. The whole consumption of the country in the article of coarse cottons, was, nevertheless, at that time, supplied by the Indian manufacture from Bengal. South Carolina was assured, and led to believe, that, under the protection of this minimum, imposing a specific duty of 6½ cents per square yard on these inferior cottons, the cotton of our own production might be successfully manufactured under the influence of this powerful instrument, in our own country, and thus made to supercede and shut out, the cottons then in use, the product both of foreign manufacture and of a foreign soil."—[Extract from Mr. Nathan Appleton's speech in Congress, January, 1832.]

Independently of the confidence due to any statement of facts coming from this gentleman, we have had a confirmation of the truth of what he asserts in respect to some of the motives which induced the representatives from the cotton growing states to support the tariff of 1816—from the source of information to which Mr. Appleton has referred, and on which he has so firmly relied.

and a replacement of those we had formerly consumed by goods made of American cotton. We have before us a statement of the quantity of East India cotton goods imported for consumption in the United States at the period when that branch of commerce was in its most flourishing condition. It commences in 1800, and ends in 1812, after which the trade was interrupted by a war with England. The quantity in that period averaged 11,168 bales per annum, of which were retained for consumption 8,376 bales. They weighed from 200 lbs. to 400 lbs. per bale, and may have required an average of 325 lbs. per bale of the raw material for their manufacture—equal in all to 2,722,200 lbs.

The quantity of cotton used in the fabrication of East India goods, as above stated, and for which a substitute was to be found of American growth, appears, at this moment, to be too insignificant to have furnished the ground of the argument addressed to the representatives of the cotton states. To such a suggestion we would reply, that from a supposed want of the facts in the case, usual to most of our public men, and especially those who belong to the national legislature, the extent of the India importations of cotton goods, which it was the object of the manufacturers to prevent, was no doubt greatly exaggerated in their minds, either from their own ignorance of facts, or from overestimates of those whose interest it was to exclude importations of cotton cloths.

Secondly, it should be considered that our crop of cotton was then insignificant in quantity, compared with its present extent. The average exportations of cotton to all parts of the world in 1813 and 1814—when we first commenced extending the cotton manufacturing—was 18,449,511 lbs. The war interfered with it to a great extent, but taking the four years preceding the cessation of the war with Great Britain, the average of our exportations of cotton amounted only to 31,961,159 lbs. The average of the entire importations of cotton into Great Britain in the same years, 1813 and 1814, was but 55,555,000 lbs.

The quantity of cotton consumed in the United States in 1813 and 1814, we cannot ascertain—nor is there, we believe, any mode of doing it with exactness. In a "*Report on the Production and Manufacture of Cotton*," by a committee of the New York Convention, before alluded to, we find the following passage:—"We have no data whereby to estimate, with precision, the quantity of cotton consumed at home previous to the tariff of 1816. It will be a large allowance if we compute it at one-sixth the cotton crop of the United States. This would give about 11,000,000 lbs." This document is signed by Mr. P. T. Jackson, who may be considered good authority. The facts, we believe, were collected and arranged by another gentlemen, whose investigations into such matters have usually been much relied upon for their fulness and accuracy—and justly so; as we conceive.

If we admit the estimate of Mr. Jackson to be an accurate one—(and it probably did not vary much from the truth, if it varied at all from it, to be of any importance in the matter under discussion)—it is not surprising that the members of Congress should have considered 2,722,200 lbs. of cotton—which is considerably less than is now consumed in some of our first class of factories—as being of such vital importance to the home growers of that staple, as to induce the representatives from the region of its growth to assist in the creation of a protective tariff. The American Congress, constituted as it is almost entirely of one profession, and the

most part of the time nearly or quite destitute of members of the mercantile and manufacturing vocations, very often fall into as great errors upon matters of fact as well as in respect to fundamental principles connected with commerce, navigation and manufactures, as they generally have done in their discussions upon the questions of currency, banking and finance. The ignorance and nonsense, not to say immorality evinced in most of the speeches and reports, coming from members of Congress and members of the Cabinet for several successive administrations, afford a discouraging prospect to those hopefully constituted persons, who, after what has occurred of late years, still continue to confide in the prudence, disinterestedness, integrity, knowledge, and wisdom of that assembly.

Congress, taking the character of that branch of the government from its proceedings of some of the past years, can hardly be considered as a national assembly, in a just and favorable sense of that term. They have matters of much more interest to themselves, than settling the great questions relating to the country on principles conducive to the general good. Nor, indeed, can it be inferred, from the collective character of that body and their doings, that it will refrain from sacrificing the peace, welfare and happiness of their constituents, when, by so doing, they can promote their party, political, and personal purposes. "Almost everything in Congress (says one of its most respectable members in a letter before the public) is done *with reference to party*, and not unfrequently with reference to the favorite presidential candidate and his interests. When a question or a measure comes up, the inquiry is—*not will it benefit the country, but will it add strength and influence to the party? and will it strengthen our favorite candidate?*"

This opinion of the character of our Congress, from one of its most respectable members, is, we suppose, in accordance with the opinions and feelings of every intelligent, independent, and reflecting observer of past and passing events. It is for that reason, in connexion with some others, that the manufacturers, as well as persons of all other callings, should refrain, as far as possible, from connecting their interests with the general legislation of the country; for whatever be the real merits of the case, it will be found, if we can judge from past experience, that the members of Congress will make the rights and interests of the persons relying upon them, subservient to their own political views and interests, and between the violent, selfish and unprincipled struggles for party ascendancy and personal aggrandizement, which never end but to be immediately recommenced with increased bitterness and violence, the applicants for Congressional relief or Congressional favor, will sooner or later find themselves, and their cause, as far as it depends on political or party support, in a worse predicament than if it had rested solely for its support on the intelligence, industry, skill, perseverance and economy of those engaged in its pursuit.

Of the correctness of the charge touching this vice of party immorality and of party ignorance, no class ought to be more sensible than the cotton and woollen manufacturers, whose business has been so frequently injured by party legislation and political patronage. Had the first act passed for their protection, which had for its support the opinions and feelings of the non-manufacturing section, and which gave more beneficial protection than has since been generally enjoyed, never been altered, there can hardly be a doubt, that the manufacturers of this state and of New Eng-

land, generally, would have been in a much better condition than they now are.

The manufacturers have already suffered severely from unstable legislation. The tariff has been altered seven times since 1816, and in most instances the changes have been so great as to derange and to disturb all the leading interests of the country, and the interests of the manufacturers more, perhaps, than any others. Nor is the matter, to judge from present appearances, in such a position as to prevent its continuing to be treated as a party question at the ensuing session of Congress, and during the approaching party scramble for a new division of the honors and emoluments derivable from the administration of the national government; a contest in which the feelings, wishes, and interests of the great mass of the nation, are but in a slight degree consulted or cared for. It is true that the right of voting for every officer of the government is universal in most parts of the country; but it is equally true, if not equally notorious, that the electors generally have no power in the matter beyond the privilege of selecting from the various lists of candidates, made up in great measure, by the incumbents of offices, or by those who are seeking the places of office incumbents; of selecting from this army of functionaries, and of claimants of public pay and public patronage, not such, as in the estimation of the most enlightened, discerning and independent portion of the electors, are considered to be best fitted to rule over the country, but such individuals as are deemed to possess the largest fund of *popularity*—of that species of popularity which, in this country, is far, in a majority of instances, from implying the possession of a corresponding degree of political or personal worth, of those intellectual and moral endowments, of that firmness and integrity of principle, and of those disinterested and elevated thoughts, views and feelings which are necessary to qualify persons for the government of so populous and extensive a country. To qualify men for the due administration of a central government over twenty-six confederate nations—of nations, some of which, to all appearances, are intellectually, politically and morally incapacitated for the fulfilment of the duties and obligations which belong to citizens living under institutions based, as ours are, on the assumption that there is a sufficiency of intelligence, discernment, independence, wisdom and virtue in a majority of the people, to place the governing power in the hands of the wisest and best men of the country—an assumption which, as regards the qualifications, characters and conduct of the majority of persons chosen to administer the federal government, and the state governments, is far from having been maintained in the later stages of our national existence.

To revert to the proposition advanced at the commencement of this article, namely, that a larger amount of raw cotton of American growth was sent from England to places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, in the form of cotton fabrics and twist, than the weight of East India cotton used up by the manufacturers of Great Britain. To prove the correctness of what has been asserted, we will refer to the facts in the case, and they come from the most authentic sources.

The average quantity of East India cotton spun in

Great Britain in the last ten years is.....	34,797,628	lbs.
Deduct for loss in spinning, 11 per cent,.....	3,827,391	“
	<hr/>	
	30,969,237	“

If we confine the period to the last three or four years, the quantity of East India cotton consumed in Great Britain would considerably exceed the average of the past ten years.

But, on the other hand, if we go still further back—say the ten preceding years—the quantity of East India cotton annually consumed in Great Britain, is not over 15,500,000 lbs. In some of the still earlier years since the general peace of Europe, and when the prices of cotton were not forced up artificially high by the effects of a redundant currency in England and in this country, and in consequence of a speculative demand and the withdrawing of large quantities from market in order to sustain prices—at such periods the importations of East India cotton have been very small, and in some years the quantity spun into yarn and thread in Great Britain has been reduced as low as 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 lbs., and in one year to 3,907,323 lbs. To this low point we may again soon see the consumption of East India cotton reduced, in Great Britain, if the present prices of American cotton are considered as likely to be permanent ones by the cultivators of cotton in India, and by the importers of it into England.

In taking, then, the weight of the spun cotton of Indian growth at 30,969,237 lbs., we consider that we shall more than counterbalance the effect of taking the quantity of cotton goods and twist exported beyond the Cape of Good Hope for so late a period as 1841 and 1842. For the preceding years we have no documents that will furnish the weight of the cotton fabrics sent to Asia. On reference to the statement furnished me by the gentleman alluded to in the previous letter—and which we consider as good authority—it appears, that the average weight of the cloth and twist sent from Great Britain in 1841 and 1842, to places beyond the Cape, but principally to British India, amounted to 53,578,000 lbs.

If the facts that have been adduced are correct—and if they deviate at all from the truth the variation must be too unimportant in degree to bear upon the point under discussion—then we have established a truth of a very gratifying character, by showing that through the instrumentality of the British merchants and manufacturers, there have been thrown into Asiatic consumption 22,608,763 lbs. of cotton beyond the quantity of East India cotton consumed in Great Britain. This is more than eight times the quantity of the raw material used in the fabrication of the cotton goods imported from India prior to the enactment of the tariff act of 1816; a measure to which the representatives from the cotton growing states gave a strong support, because of the importance, in their estimation, of forcing upon the consumption of the people of the United States goods made of home grown cotton in lieu of goods made of a foreign material.

But it may be said, and truly, that so small a quantity as 22,608,763 lbs. of cotton, out of a crop which may, in its present extent of cultivation, be averaged at 750,000,000 or 800,000,000 lbs., is of but little importance to the cotton planters. This, however, is not the point of view in which this comparative statement is to be regarded. It has been a question in Europe, and India, and this country, as to how far the East India cotton was likely to interfere with the cotton of this country; and great pains have been taken, by writers in our papers and periodicals, to convince the people of this country of the importance of excluding British made cotton goods, of which we now import but a small proportion of what we consume, in order to increase the consumption of the home

grown cotton. In the speeches of even the most intelligent advocates of prohibitory duties, it has been contended that one cause of the superior cheapness of British low quality cotton goods was in the large quantity of India cotton used in their fabrication. An examination into this matter shows, then, first, that the quantity of East India cotton used in the manufacture of goods has not, for the past ten years, exceeded 10 per cent of the whole quantity of cotton spun into yarn. Secondly, that in consequence of the superior cheapness of raw cotton, other than the produce of India, the Asiatics consume a much larger quantity of foreign cotton than the quantity of India cotton used in Great Britain.

There is, however, another aspect to this inquiry, which is worthy of still more consideration. We have only stated the quantity of India cotton actually spun in Great Britain in the past ten years. It is, however, the entire importation into England, part of which is re-shipped to the continent, which we are to consider as interfering with our producers. For three or four years past, under the notion prevalent in England and in India, that our planters were so dissatisfied with the prices of their past crops—though from 25 to 33½ per cent, and occasionally nearly double what they now are—that they would curtail cultivation; and thus the high prices of that period would be maintained, and the field of competition be safely entered by the planters and merchants of India, for the supplying the British manufacturer.

Under the sanguine expectations entertained in Great Britain and in India, on the part of planters and merchants, of being able to enter successfully into competition with the American cotton, their exportations to England were extended from 105,324 bales in 1838, to 275,770 bales in 1841—falling off in 1842 to 245,839 bales. At the conclusion of this year we shall probably see a reduction to one-third the latter quantity, and perhaps to a still lower point. We will, however, take the average importations of 1840, 1841, 1842, amounting to 246,131 bales of 363 lbs., equal to 89,345,553 lbs. This, then, is the full extent of the interference of East India cotton for the past three years, with the consumption in Europe of American grown cotton.

Now the position we have assumed in respect to East India cotton is, that under existing low prices of American cotton, in the cotton consuming countries of Europe, the product of the former country cannot stand the competition with the American cotton. We do not suppose that there will be an entire cessation of imports of this article from India into England, but we are confident that a continuance of the present low prices of American cotton will, in the course of three years, reduce the importations from India to so low an amount as to prevent its having any bearing on the prices of the cotton of this country.

In looking back to a history of the cotton trade between India and England, we find, that in several years, the importations into Great Britain were 22,357 bales, 35,013, 19,263, and in one of the years they went down to the low figures of 1,419 bales; although the prices of East India cottons ranged, in these years, from 33½ to 200 per cent higher than the last quotations for corresponding descriptions.

Such an annihilation, however, of the cotton importing trade from India to England, can only be expected to happen, according to our apprehension, in the event of the present prices of our crops being maintained on their existing low level, and that such shall be the opinion entertained in

England and in India, so as to discourage all further attempts to share with us the business of supplying the European consumption.

This is the position we are attempting to maintain, namely, our ability to undersell India and all other cotton producing countries in the markets of Europe, and to some extent in Asia. In that position, every one who rejoices in the prosperity of the plantation states, and consequently in the prosperity of the whole nation, would be glad to see our cotton planters placed, and when so placed, that they may not be thrown out of their advantageous position, either by the mischievous and immoral workings of a fluctuating, disordered, and dishonestly managed currency, or by those still greater destroyers of the prosperity, happiness and virtue of a nation, a war with Great Britain, or any other nation, or even the apprehension of such a calamitous event.

H. L.

ART. V.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER I.

THE DOCTRINE OF LIEN WITH REFERENCE TO THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

THE doctrine of lien, as applied to maritime affairs, is a subject of great importance in a commercial country. We propose to examine this subject in respect to contracts made immediately interesting to the general merchant, and which forms a lien upon vessels. Those persons known in law as material men, have a lien upon ships or vessels for building, repairing, and furnishing supplies to vessels by the general maritime law. In England and the United States, this lien applies only to foreign vessels, unless the state or local laws have extended the remedy to domestic vessels. Wherever a vessel is found in the United States belonging to another state or territory, she is deemed a foreign vessel as respects the right of lien against her. Some of the Atlantic states have passed local laws, giving a lien upon their own domestic vessels for building, repairing, and supplying them with necessaries for a voyage. The Revised Statutes of the state of New York provide that, whenever a debt amounting to fifty dollars or upwards shall be contracted by the master, owner, agent, or consignee of any ship or vessel within said state, for the purpose or on account of any work done, or materials or articles furnished for or towards the building, repairing, fitting, furnishing, or equipping such ship or vessel, or for such provisions and stores furnished within the state, as may be fit and proper for the use of such vessel at the time when the same shall be furnished, and also on account of the wharfage and the expenses of keeping such vessel in port, including the expense incurred in employing persons to watch her—such debt shall be a lien upon such ship or vessel, her tackle, apparel and furniture, and shall be preferred to all other liens thereon except mariners' wages. When the ship or vessel shall depart from the port at which she was when such debt was contracted, to some other port within the state, every such debt ceases to be a lien at the expiration of twelve days after the day of such departure. And in all cases such lien shall cease immediately after the vessel shall have left the state.*

* 2 Revised Statutes, 405.

The word departure has received a judicial interpretation by some of the courts in the state. Where a vessel or steamboat, navigating the Hudson river, contracted a debt at the port of New York for a shipcarpenter's bill, and then left for Albany, made one trip only and came back to New York, where she was laid up, it was held that the statute began to run when the vessel left the port of New York, and that after twelve days from the time she departed for Albany the lien had ceased. That the vessel could not be pursued to recover the amount of such debt against her, but that resort must be had to the owner to collect the demand.

This is upon the principle that the statute is to receive a strict construction, which is the general rule where a statute is passed in derogation of the common law. Under this statute it has been held that a debt contracted by the master for wood furnished a steamboat to supply her fires, furnished a lien upon the vessel under the state laws; and the lien against ships and vessels have been extended to cases of collision. Whenever any ship or vessel shall have been run down or run foul of by any other vessel through the negligence or wilful misconduct of those navigating such other ship or vessel, and shall thereby have sustained damage to the extent of fifty dollars and upwards, the owner of the ship or vessel, so sustaining damage, shall have a lien upon the ship or vessel causing the damage, her tackle, apparel and furniture, to the extent of such damage. This lien provided for shall cease, unless a warrant of arrest shall issue against the offending vessel within twenty days after the damage shall be done.*

The Louisiana civil code has declared that the following debts are privileged, and are a lien upon the price of ships or other vessels, and in the order in which they are placed—

1. Legal and other charges incurred to obtain the sale of a ship or other vessel, and the distribution of the price.

2. Debts for pilotage, wharfage, and anchorage.

3. The expense of keeping the vessel from the time of her entrance into port until sale, including the wages of persons employed to watch her.

4. The rent of stores in which the rigging and apparel are deposited.

5. The maintenance of the ship and her tackle and apparatus since her return into port from her last voyage.

6. The wages of the captain and crew employed on the last voyage.

7. Sums lent to the captain for the necessities of the ship during the last voyage, and reimbursement of the price of merchandize sold by him for the same purpose.

8. Sums due to sellers, those who have furnished materials, and workmen employed on the construction, if the vessel has never made a voyage, and those due to creditors for supplies, labor, repairing, victuals, armament and equipment previous to the departure of the ship, if she has already made a voyage.

9. Money lent on bottomry for refitting, victualling, arming and equipping the vessel before her departure.

10. The premiums due for insurance made on the vessel, tackle, and apparel, and on the armament and equipment of the ship.

11. The amount of damage due to freighters for the failure in delivering goods which they have shipped, or for the reimbursement of damage sustained by the goods through the fault of the captain or crew.

* Act passed April 26th, 1831.

The creditors above named come in together and must all suffer a rateable diminution if the fund be insufficient, and this lien may be pursued against the vessel in possession of a purchaser who has obtained the vessel by a private sale without fraud or notice. But when the sale is judicial, and by virtue of a decree of any court, the lien can only be followed against the fund in court. And where a private sale has been made of a vessel, the creditors lose their lien when a voyage has been made in the name and at the risk of the purchaser without any claim interposed. And where a vessel is sold while on a voyage, the lien becomes extinct when the vessel shall have returned to the port of departure, and been allowed to depart on another voyage and no claim made.

By the general maritime law, every contract of the master for repairs and supplies in ports, an hypothecation of the ship—this is the law in the United States in regard to foreign ships, and in regard to ships belonging to a state other than that in which the contract is made—a lien is created on the ship, her tackle, apparel, and furniture, by such contracts. The Louisiana code follows the civil law, which is the law of almost every commercial country except England and the United States. It is the law of Holland, Germany, Scotland, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Mexico, and South American States, as well as of the Dutch and French settlements in America and the Indies. The civil law is a law of equity, and is founded upon the clearest principles of reason. It gives to every one who has bestowed their work, labor, money, or care upon the property of another, a lien upon that property until their just claims were satisfied. It is called the Roman law—the system was gradually matured during a space of fourteen hundred years at Rome, and governed the great Roman empire for this period of time. It was codified by Justinian, and it has been said that the Roman people, in ancient times, conquered no less by the justice and equity of their laws, than by the power and valor of their arms. Every man who had repaired or fitted out a ship, or lent money to be employed in those services, had, by the laws of Rome, and still possesses in those nations which have adopted the civil law as the basis of their jurisprudence, a privilege or right of payment in preference to other creditors upon the value of the ship itself, without any instrument of hypothecation, or any express contract or agreement subjecting the ship to such a claim. This privilege exists in France, not only while the ship remains in the possession of the owner, but even after a sale to a third person, for some period of time, which is said to be one year; but such is not to be the law of England, as laid down by Sir Joseph Jekyl, the Master of the Rolls in the Court of Equity. If a ship be in the river Thames, and money be laid out there either in repairing, fitting out, new rigging, or upon the apparel of the ship, this is no charge upon the ship; but the person thus employed, or who finds these necessaries, must resort to the owner thereof for payment, and in such a case, in a suit in the Court of Admiralty, to condemn the ship for non-payment of the money, the courts of law will grant a prohibition, and therefore, if the owner, after money thus laid out, mortgages the ship, though it be to one who has notice that the money was laid out and not paid, yet such mortgagee is well entitled, without being liable for any of the money thus laid out for the benefit of the ship, and the ship is no more liable for this money than a carpenter, laying out money on the building of a house, has a lien upon the house in respect thereof, though, by the law of Holland he has;

but this not being the law of England, such carpenter must resort to those who employed him, or to the owner of the house for his money. But it is true that if at sea, where no treaty can be made with the owner, the master employs any person to do the work on the ship, or to new rig or repair the same, this, for necessity and encouragement of trade, is a lien upon the ship, and in such case the master, by the maritime law, is allowed to hypothecate the ship.

We cannot discern the reason, in the nature of things, why the mechanic, who builds a house in London, should not have the same priority of right as when he does the same work in Amsterdam. But the law of England is otherwise. A spirit of personal liability pervades the common law for all contracts. The common law of England was introduced into North America by the emigration of our ancestors, and material men are declared to have no lien on a vessel for supplies, if the vessel be a domestic one; if she be a foreign one, the law is otherwise. By the general maritime law of nations, every contract of the master within the scope of his authority binds the vessel, and gives the creditor a lien upon it for his security. The civil and common law both make the owners of vessels responsible for all the obligations of the master, whether owing upon contract or by default; but this remedy is only against the person of the defendants. By the general maritime law of Europe, the owners of a vessel are not responsible for the obligations of a master, arising from a tort beyond the value of the vessel and freight, and, by abandoning the vessel, they are discharged. This law arose in the usages of the middle ages, and has been adopted as a part of the statute law of the State of Maine. By the common law of England and of this country, except so far as it has been altered by the statute law, the owners are held responsible for the acts of the master, without distinction or limitation; and this rule appears to be different from that which gives a right against the vessel, as such right will naturally be limited to the value of the ship and cargo where the lien attaches. But it is laid down that the master's power does not extend beyond the ship, and merchandize, and cargo of which he is the administrator: he cannot bind the other property of the owners, unless they have given him a special authority for this purpose. So Emerigon expounds the law to be in France.

A learned judge lays down the law to be, that material men, by the common law in England, have no lien for supplies furnished a ship, whether she be a foreign or domestic vessel, and so is the law in the admiralty courts at the present day. But by the civil law they have such a lien in both cases. In the United States they have it only in cases of foreign ships, or ships belonging to one of the states furnished in another. In England, an admiralty judge has declared that in most countries governed by the civil law, repairs and necessaries form a lien on the ship itself. This was held to be the law in the maritime courts in England in ancient times; but after a long contest between the maritime courts and the common law courts, this right of lien was overthrown in the reign of Charles II.

On the 4th of February, 1632, at Westminster, in London, in the reign of Charles I., all the judges of his majesty's common law courts, and the judges of the admiralty court, together with the king's attorney general, attended the king in council, to settle the jurisdiction of the admiralty court; and one resolution was agreed to by the judges of the courts of the common law, which was this: That if a suit be brought in the court of

admiralty for building, amending, saving, or necessary victualling of a ship, against the ship itself, and not against the party by name, but such as for his interest makes himself a party, no prohibition against the admiralty jurisdiction was to be granted, though this be done within the realm, and yet we find that in the reign of Charles II., the House of Lords in England, in a case upon an appeal, overruled the resolution of the common law judges and the king's attorney general as above stated, and the courts of common law proceeded to issue their prohibitions upon the admiralty court to stay proceedings to enforce the claims of material men for supplies furnished a vessel found in England, or for any claims of the master.

The Supreme Court of the United States held that where repairs have been made, or necessities furnished to a foreign ship, or to a ship in a port of a state to which she did not belong, that the maritime law following the civil law, gives the party a lien on the ship itself for his security, and he may well maintain a suit in *rem* in the admiralty to enforce his right. But in respect to repairs and necessities in the port or state to which the ship belongs, the case is governed altogether by the municipal law of that state, and no lien is implied unless it is recognized by that law, and accordingly the court denied it in that case, because the common law, which was the law of Maryland when the repairs were made, did not give it for repairs on a domestic ship. The doctrine of this case was afterwards fully admitted on this point in the *St. Jago de Cuba*.*

The local laws in the United States have given the lien against domestic ships in but few of the states; we believe that the lien exists in but three: Louisiana, Pennsylvania, and New York, though perhaps it may, in some respects, be created in some other states. The attachment law which exists in the New England states, seems to have rendered the lien upon domestic ships in a measure unnecessary. The common law of England is so interwoven with the laws of other states, that the legislatures seem unwilling to depart from it. By the law of England, a shipwright who has taken a ship into his possession to repair it, is not bound to part with the possession until he is paid for the repairs, any more than a tailor, a smith, or other artificer is in regard to the object of his particular trade, unless there be a special agreement to give credit for a certain period, on such an usage in the trade as is equivalent to a special agreement. But whenever the shipwright has once parted with the possession of it, or entered upon it without taking possession, and a tradesman has provided rigging, sails, provisions, or other necessities for a ship, they are not preferred to other creditors, nor have any particular claim or lien upon the ship itself for the recovery of these demands. The same doctrine is held in the American courts, where a vessel is in a home port, unless the state law or local law has given a lien. But there is an exception to this rule where a vessel is in a home port, and is falsely represented as a foreign vessel, yet she may be subjected to the liens of material men when such representations have been made by the master, the owners or agents, to innocent persons who furnish money and materials without fraud and without notice of the character of the vessel. The law in such a case steps in and declares that the supplies and money, or other things furnished the vessel were supplied upon the order of the ship.

A. N.

* 9 Wheaton's reports, 499, 416.

ART. VI.—THE SALEM EAST INDIA MARINE SOCIETY.

THE East India Marine Society of Salem, comprised of individuals who have navigated the seas beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn, as masters or supercargoes of vessels belonging to that city, was founded in the year 1799, and in 1801 obtained from the legislature of Massachusetts an act of incorporation. The principal objects of the institution are to assist the widows and children of deceased members who may need it from the funds of the society, to collect such facts as are calculated to further the improvement and security of navigation, and to form a museum of natural and artificial curiosities, especially such as are to be found beyond the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn, which last object is in great measure obtained by the donations of members, as well as others friendly to the institution.

The place of its organization in the city of Salem seems peculiarly appropriate. Long a permanent depot of commerce with the East, there are few points along this part of our coast which more strikingly exhibit the distinguishing traits of the maritime population of New England industry, hardihood, thrift, energy, forecast and perseverance. Although the eastern commerce from this port has been somewhat diminished of late years, it having been transferred in good measure to the more central harbors of Boston and New York, we may still perceive in its extensive docks, running far into the city, new and elegant shipping, its spacious grounds, its broad and well-shaded streets bordered by long lines of substantial mansions, and the apparent thrift of its bustling population, now numbering about twenty thousand, the evidences of a solid prosperity which are understood to be altogether the offspring of commerce. But although the trade with the east from this port has become recently diminished, it appears from authentic returns, that forty-five ships and barks, forty-seven brigs, four schooners in the foreign trade, thirteen whaling ships and barks, besides a tonnage of forty-one thousand three hundred and ninety-four, employed in the coasting trade and fisheries now sail from its harbor. From its maritime position and commercial character it would naturally be expected that a large proportion of the people have a connection more or less intimate with the sea, and who could without great inconvenience contribute to the interests of the society. By consequence, the institution is constituted of some of the most experienced and respectable individuals of the place; men of science, as well as merely practical knowledge. The opportunity which they must enjoy for the observation of different people and institutions, and the collection of curious articles in the various countries which they visit during their voyages is manifest, and there is probably no depository where such articles can be more safely lodged than in the East India Marine Hall.

The admission to the hall of the museum is gratuitous, and on entrance one is surprised at the variety of the curious and interesting works of nature and of art that has been here accumulated. The apartment of the museum is a single room, but large and commodious, and its sides are lined with cases of glass containing the articles exhibited in classified order, while the walls are adorned at intervals with paintings and statues, as well as numerous implements of war and peace used by demi-civilized nations abroad. They are constituted mainly of miscellaneous articles of

quadrupeds, birds, shells, coins, paper bills, books and journals of the voyages presented to the society by the various navigators from that port.

The first object which meets the eye on passing the door, is a group of eastern figures as large as life, either standing or crouched before it. Among them is a Persian merchant with his rich silk shawl, and all the articles composing his ordinary dress; a religious devotee upon his knees, a snake juggler and a scrivener, each in their accustomed costumes. Standing around the apartment in different postures, are merchants of the East in their appropriate garbs, and which impress the mind not less by their dress than by their peculiar countenances. But the most interesting objects in that part of the collection—interesting from the fact of our new relations with the Chinese empire—are the various subjects of that country which are eminently life-like, among whom, the mandarin, in blue silk robe, stiff with gold embroidery, appears the most conspicuous. In the cases which border the room are various smaller figures of the same nation, employed in different occupations which are equally interesting with the larger forms.

The models of various ships which from time to time have plied from the port of Salem, are conspicuous objects in the hall, surrounded by parts of the skeletons of sea animals, and those of the land; the whale, the mammoth, the rhinoceros, and others of smaller size enclosed in glass cases or in bottles. Among other interesting articles are two ivory balls, so carved, that there appear twelve or fourteen enclosed in the outer one, which is formed of one entire piece of the same material. But the most interesting part of the collection is a carved box of ancient workmanship, presented to the East India Marine Society by Elias Hasket Derby, and given to him by a gentleman of Westphalia, then travelling in our own country, who procured it in Italy, where it was executed, as is supposed, by a monk as early as the fourteenth century. The globe is of boxwood, and measures two inches and a sixteenth of an inch in diameter. The upper half contains a carved representation of the celestial region, comprising fifty-eight whole length figures, while the lower is designed to exhibit the resurrection, day of judgment, and purgatory; and here there are twenty-eight whole length, nineteen half length figures, and five heads; in all, fifty-two. In all there are one hundred and ten figures, which, seen through a magnifying glass, exhibit striking expressions. With the box is a pamphlet containing a description of this very extraordinary article. The collection of birds, although not as extensive as in many other museums of our own country, is still interesting.

The cabinet of shells is of some value, and indeed the opportunities enjoyed by the navigators from that port, to collect specimens of this character, were favorable, and they appear to have improved them to great advantage. They are here arranged in scientific order, and are classified according to their genera and species. Nor is the collection of coin less interesting than the other parts of the exhibition. Some of those coins were purchased, while others were granted as donations to the society, and the date of a few extend back to the year 2015 B. C. Among them are the currency of Rome, Spain, France, Portugal, Austria, Russia, Holland, Java, Ceylon, Denmark, England, and the early colonial currency of our own country. Added to these, are contained in the collection numerous bills showing the paper currency of foreign countries, as also the continental paper currency of our own.

A most useful part of the institution is the list of the journals of the voyages presented to the society by its members. Under the fourteenth article of its laws, every member bound to sea is entitled to receive a blank journal from the secretary, in which he is required to enter the occurrences of the voyage, and particularly his observations of the variations of the compass, bearings and distances of capes and headlands, of the latitude and longitude of ports, islands, rocks, and shoals, and of soundings, tides, and currents, and, on his return, to deliver it to the inspector of the journals for the use of the society. In conformity to this rule, a mass of journals has been accumulated, which is calculated to throw some light upon the region navigated by the mariners. We have, in those journals, carefully prepared accounts of the numerous voyages made by the navigators from the port of Salem to the East, extending back as far as the year 1798, which furnish important matter for future reference, besides sailing directions for many places and coasts; the modes of transacting business in several of the native ports of the East Indies, with an account of the weights, coins, exports and imports, together with some of the most interesting commercial circumstances connected with those places.

The various objects arranged around the hall could scarcely be enumerated within the compass of a volume. Affording matter of study to the man of science, and amusement to the mere traveller, they extend to every department of research, animal, mineral, and vegetable; as well as to works of art—civilised and barbarous—the large as well as minute. The upper shelves of the hall are adorned with the busts of distinguished individuals, among which stand out most conspicuously those of our own Washington and the Adams; and above all, looks down from the canvass the placid countenance of that truly great man, Nathaniel Bowditch, a citizen of Salem and a member of the society. It is a fitting place for the presence of such a man, amid the trophies of the commerce to which he was a most distinguished benefactor. It may not, perhaps, be inappropriate to conclude this brief sketch of a valuable institution by the recommendation to the establishment of similar societies in our more prominent sea-port towns. Numerous opportunities are presented to the mariners of our country, in their successive voyages, to collect materials for similar cabinets, and, by the diffusion of a right spirit among their members, they may be made to subserve important objects, tending to increase the means of intelligence and to improve the condition of those who navigate the ocean.

It has been supposed by those who have long observed the course of things, says an intelligent writer, that to take forty lads, divide them, all things considered, into two equal companies, place half of them in the professions and merchandise, the other half in agricultural pursuits, the result will be, after a lapse of years, the latter will have the greatest aggregate wealth diffused among the whole; while perhaps a fourth of the former may make large acquisitions, and the families of the other three-fourths may be found in rather straitened circumstances. It is the opinion of those who have long held situations favorable to such observations as to enable them to come to correct conclusions on this subject, that only one in four of the trading classes, perhaps from causes beyond their control, escape insolvency, or are successful in the professions.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

ACTION OF REPLEVIN TO RECOVER GOODS.

Supreme Court of New York, before John Cushman, Circuit Judge. Benjamin Loder and others *vs.* Amos Adams, sheriff of the city and county of Albany.

This was an action of replevin, brought by the plaintiffs, to recover a quantity of dry goods which the defendant had levied on by virtue of an execution issued upon a judgment in favor of Rufus Watson, *vs.* N. B. B. White, for \$5,000.

The facts proved on the part of the plaintiffs on the trial, were substantially as follows, to wit. The plaintiffs were merchants in the city of New York, engaged in the wholesale dry good business, and, during the months of October and November last, sold to N. B. B. White, a retail merchant in Albany, the goods in question. It appeared that White, in the year 1839, was in business in Albany with S. V. R. Watson and William Watson, two sons of Rufus Watson, the plaintiff in the execution, and that they dissolved in the month of February 1841, White taking the stock in trade, and assuming the payment of all the debts of the firm, and among the rest a debt due Rufus Watson for the sum of \$5,000, for which he gave five notes of \$1,000 each, dated 1st February, 1841, each payable in one year from date, with interest. He also gave other notes with indorsers for the same sum, payable in five equal annual payments. It appeared that the stock in trade taken by White was not worth much, if anything, more than the debts which he assumed to pay.

It also appeared, that while White was in business with the Watsons he had been in the habit of purchasing goods in New York on credit, of several houses, and, among the rest, the plaintiffs, and continued to purchase of the same houses after the dissolution, referring to his former partners for an account of his circumstances, and that he did not disclose to the persons with whom he was dealing on credit the fact of his having become indebted to so large an amount, or the manner in which his payments were to be made.

It further appeared that White continued his purchases and met his engagements till the 3d December, 1842, his credit remaining good and unsuspected, no facts having been disclosed to the merchants in New York to excite their suspicions. It was proved that on the 20th August, 1842, White having failed to meet the notes he had given to Watson, a suit was commenced against him by Rufus Watson on all of the five \$1,000 notes, in the Supreme Court; that soon after the suit was commenced, White called on J. V. R. Watson, a son of Rufus Watson, to make some arrangements about it, and was told by him that if \$1,000 was paid to his father, he thought no further proceedings would be taken in the suit, and that, accordingly, White paid in the course of the fall about \$1,300 on the drafts of Rufus Watson, and supposed, as he swore, that nothing further would be done in the matter.

It was proved that on the 30th September, 1842, judgment was entered up in the suit against White for the sum of about \$5,300, being the principal and interest due on the five notes. That subsequently White continued to make purchases for credit of the merchants in New York to the amount of several thousand dollars, without disclosing to them or any of them *the fact of his having been sued by Watson, or of a judgment being*

perfected against him, or of his being embarrassed in his circumstances, or of his having failed to meet his engagements, or of having notes overdue.

It did not appear that he had made any false statements as to his situation, no inquiries having been made that called for any disclosure of his circumstances, as those dealing with him appeared to have great confidence in his integrity, and nothing had come to their knowledge to excite suspicion. White continued to make his purchases in the city of New York on credit up to the 26th November, when he made his last purchases, which included a part of the goods in question in this cause. He testified that before he purchased the goods he intended to pay for them, and expected to be able to pay for them, and did not know that a judgment had been entered against him.

It was proved that in a few days after his last purchases arrived in Albany, an execution was issued by Watson on his \$5,000 judgment, and all the goods in White's store levied upon under it, and the store shut up.

The plaintiffs being apprised of the above facts, sent up to Albany and had a suit in replevin commenced, to take back what goods they could find in the store in the sheriff's custody, that they had sold to White.

The foregoing facts having been proved upon the trial, it was contended by the plaintiffs' counsel that the sale of the goods to White was void, upon the ground that at the time he made the purchase he was *guilty of a fraudulent suppression of the truth in relation to his pecuniary affairs*. That the suppression of a fact material to be considered on the question of credit about to be given, is as fraudulent, and vitiates the contract as fully, as would the assertion of a falsehood. That the fraudulent suppression of the truth is, to all intents and purposes, tantamount to a fraudulent assertion of a falsehood. That if a man obtains a credit by concealing a fact, which credit he has reason to believe he could not obtain if the fact was honestly disclosed, this contract is as much vitiated and void as though it was obtained by the assertion of a fact which the party knew to be false—and that to apply that principle to this cause, the court should instruct the jury, that if they believed that White, at the time he purchased the goods in question, did not disclose to the plaintiffs the facts of his having five \$1,000 notes overdue, and that a suit had been commenced on them, and probably a judgment obtained, and if they further believed that he could not have obtained the credit had he honestly disclosed to the plaintiffs these facts, then he was guilty of a fraudulent suppression of the truth, and the contract of sale was void, and plaintiffs entitled to their verdict.

On the part of the defence it was contended that the contract was not void, unless the jury should find, in addition to the above facts, that White *intended* at the time of the purchase to cheat the plaintiffs out of the price of the goods. The counsel for the plaintiffs on the contrary contended, that it was the duty of the jury to find the intent from the facts; and that a man must be presumed to intend the natural consequence of his acts; and if, in this case, the jury should be of the opinion that the natural and probable consequence of the course pursued by White in the purchase of the goods in question, would be to defraud the plaintiffs, it was their duty to find such *intent*, notwithstanding White had sworn he had a different intent.

Upon both the above points the court decided with the counsel for the plaintiffs, and so charged the jury, who retired, and, after a deliberation of a few minutes, returned a verdict for the plaintiffs for whole amount of their claim.

The plaintiffs' counsel offered to prove in the course of the trial, that during the fall of 1842 S. V. R. Watson strongly recommended White to the plaintiffs and several other houses, as every way worthy of credit, and advised them to trust him to any amount he wanted to purchase, and that such recommendation was made after Watson was aware that his father had obtained the \$5,000 judgment against White, but this testimony was opposed by defendant's counsel, and ruled out by the court.

PARTNERS.—ACTION TO RECOVER BALANCE ON GOODS.

Supreme Court of New York. Before Judge KENT, July 18, 1843.

Ross W. Wood, Alexander H. Grant, and Benjamin B. Grant, of the firm of Wood, Grant and Co., *vs.* William T. Dennis, Seneca P. Dennis, and James C. Wood, of the firm of William T. Dennis and Co.

This was an action to recover the balance due plaintiffs on goods sold to William T. Dennis and Co. It appeared that William T. Dennis and Co. were doing business at Scipioville, about ten miles from Auburn.

For the plaintiffs it was contended that all the above defendants composed said firm. It also appeared that Dennis and Wood, two of said defendants, were doing business at Auburn, which firm was composed of Seneca P. Dennis and James C. Wood.

For the defendant Wood it was contended that William T. Dennis and Co. was a distinct and separate firm from Dennis and Wood, and that William T. Dennis only composed the firm of William T. Dennis and Co. It also appeared that defendant Wood had forbidden William T. Dennis to use his (Wood's) name in obtaining credit for the purpose of purchasing goods.

There was much testimony taken on both sides. It was shown for the plaintiff, that the firm of Dennis and Wood, at Auburn, furnished the stock with which William T. Dennis and Co. transacted business at Scipioville, and shared in the profits of the goods furnished by the firm at Auburn.

The judge charged the jury, that if the firm at Auburn furnished goods to do business with at Scipioville, and shared in the profits, they became partners, notwithstanding they might have forbidden the defendant, William T. Dennis, from using their names in purchasing goods. That the whole question was one for the jury to determine. The jury found for the plaintiff \$396 51.

LANDLORD AND TENANT.—ACTION TO RECOVER RENT.

In Circuit Court before Judge KENT. *W. H. Lowerre vs. Walson Van Benthuyzen.*

This was an action to recover rent. In 1839 the plaintiff let to defendant the second, third, and fourth stories of the house No. 18 New Street, for five years, for a printing office, for the New York American, Charles King being security for the rent. In 1841 the plaintiff let the cellar and first floor of the house to Godfrey and Robinson, with liberty to erect on the premises a two-horse power high-pressure engine boiler, for the purpose of driving a cotton machine on the first floor. The defendant objected to such a use being made of the premises, as it would vitiate his insurance, and endanger the health and perhaps lives of his workmen, and put his property in jeopardy. The plaintiff, however, permitted Godfrey and Robinson to continue the steam engine on the premises, and defendant in consequence moved out of the house. This suit was instituted to recover the rent accruing since the defendant left the premises, and the defence set up was, that by the plaintiff's letting part of the premises for purposes which rendered it hazardous for the defendant to continue his business in it, the plaintiff had annulled and rendered void the defendant's obligation to pay the rent. It appeared that after the defendant had moved out of the premises, they were set on fire from the cotton factory, and also, while he occupied them, his workmen were sometimes compelled to stop work, in consequence of the smoke, and were frequently in fear of fire or an explosion from the machine. There was, however, a good deal of confictory evidence as to the real amount of danger or inconvenience caused to the occupiers of the other parts of the premises. Verdict for defendant.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

A DECIDED improvement in the state of business, generally, is manifest in this market. The number of mercantile visitors now in New York is large for the season of the year, and their demand for goods is better than for a long time. The terms are mostly cash, but the city dealers evince a disposition to be more liberal in their terms than perhaps for some years. For many seasons back, they have been in the habit of demanding cash or acceptances for goods; but now they are disposed to sell on the individual credit of the merchant. This feeling is induced towards the south, particularly, from a conviction that the demand will be good from that quarter, and also that the prospects of the great staple, cotton, for the coming year, are such as to give warrant for the general ability to pay for those goods, of which the want must be large after the long stagnation which has existed in trade. This is particularly the case in Alabama. The crop of that state has, for the past year, been larger than ever before, as has also the aggregate crop for the whole Union; notwithstanding which, the prices in England, at the latest date, show a disposition to advance. The stock import, and consumption of cotton in England, was as follows, for the five months ending June 1, and for the six months ending July 1, 1843:—

STOCK EXPORT, AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN GREAT BRITAIN, FOR SIX MONTHS OF 1842 AND 1843.

	To June 1.	July 1.
Stock, June 1,.....	564,534	564,534
Import,	1,030,223	1,248,272
Total,.....	1,594,757	1,812,806
Stock remaining,.....	986,063	1,052,031
Disposed of,.....	608,694	760,775
Export, viz.....	45,763	58,318
Sold to spinners,.....	562,931	702,457
Average weekly consumption, 1843,.....	26,086	27,166
“ “ “ 1842,.....	23,240	23,373
Increase,.....	2,846	3,794

This increased consumption is that which is presented only by the returns of the brokers of Liverpool, through whose hands the bales here enumerated have passed. A much larger amount of cotton than ever before, has passed directly into the hands of the manufacturers. This is not brought into consideration in the above figures; but of the bills drawn against the proceeds, a large proportion have been on manufacturers, and not on brokers. The manufacturers have consumed a larger quantity of cotton by introducing it, in consequence of its cheapness, into such articles as were formerly woven from long-stapled, coarse wool. This absorbs an enormous weight of cotton, and the consumption is proportionately larger, perhaps to the extent of 250,000 bales, without increasing the quantities of those fabrics usually produced from cotton. That this is generally the case, is corroborated by the fact that, notwithstanding the unusual abundance of money in the Liverpool banks, the sums advanced by them on cotton bills is less than in the corresponding months of 1839.

The progress of the export cotton trade of Great Britain, and its connection with the United States, is seen in the following official table:—

TOTAL EXPORTS OF COTTON GOODS FROM GREAT BRITAIN—QUANTITY EXPORTED TO THE UNITED STATES—RAW COTTON IMPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Cotton Goods exported from Great Britain.		Exported to United States.		Cotton imported from U. States.
	Yards.	Value.	Yards.	Value.	Pounds.
1831,.....	421,385,303	\$12,163,513	68,577,893	\$2,518,824	219,334,628
1832,.....	461,045,503	11,500,630	31,508,744	1,049,375	219,756,753
1833,.....	496,352,096	12,451,060	45,141,989	1,388,957	237,506,758
1834,.....	555,705,809	14,127,352	45,630,862	1,394,057	269,203,075
1835,.....	557,515,701	15,181,431	74,962,925	2,302,991	284,455,812
1836,.....	637,667,627	17,183,167	62,042,139	2,115,061	289,615,692
1837,.....	531,373,663	12,727,989	17,481,855	594,822	320,651,716
1838,.....	690,077,622	15,554,773	38,493,113	1,206,364	431,437,888
1839,.....	731,450,120	16,378,445	37,236,052	1,144,749	311,597,798
1840,.....	790,631,997	16,302,220	32,073,004	898,469	487,856,501
1841,.....	751,125,624	14,985,810	12,120,320	1,607,521	358,240,964
1842,.....	557,980,000	12,810,710	387,276	587,340,000
1843, 6 mos.,	398,613,000	8,448,000	145,230	305,105,736

This table gives the constantly increasing cotton trade of Britain, exclusive of yarns and threads. The largest markets for her goods are her colonial ones, and particularly the East Indies; and the business is impelled with all the immense capital of England operating upon her experienced skill. Nothing short of her extensive facilities could find vent for the enormous quantity of the raw material produced. The combined operation of great production here, with immense manufacturing facilities there, has reduced the price of goods nearly one-half, while the proportion taken by the United States is constantly diminishing. The manufactures of the United States consume about 120,000,000 lbs. of cotton, which will make near 360,009,000 yards; which, with an import of 40,000,000 yards, gives a consumption of about 400,000,000 yards of cotton, which is nearly equal to that of Great Britain. The value of the crop of cotton depends altogether upon the export of England to her colonies, because in that direction only can the surplus be worked off. Those markets now promise better than ever.

This being the state of the case at the close of a season when the production has been 2,300,000 bales, or 600,000 bales in excess of the previous year, it becomes pretty evident that, with the prospects of the growing crop, which is, at this early season, estimated at 1,600,000 bales only, the price will rise, and afford the planters a great profit on the production, which has been made at less expense than perhaps ever before. The outlay for supplies is also in some degree less, in consequence of the course adopted by many planters, in raising corn and other articles themselves, instead of confining their attention exclusively to cotton. All these circumstances tend to place at the command of the south a greater sum of money for the coming year, applicable to the purchase of goods, than ever before. This will give a more healthy and profitable trade than has hitherto been enjoyed; but the aggregate extent is not likely to be so large as in some former years, when the competition of the banks left scarcely any limit to the means of purchasing on credit. The demand for goods now is limited to the actual means of the consumers. In some former years, there was no definable limit to that demand. The banks, by the liberality of the facilities they granted, induced numbers of people to become buyers and sellers of goods, and greatly stimulated trade, at the same time the production of articles in the interchange of which that trade consisted, was neglected. The banks in most sections are now so far crippled in their means, as to be unable more than to afford the facilities demanded by actual trade; while on the Atlantic border, where an actual interchange of commodities takes place, a large business requires but a limited assistance from the banks. The following is a table of the leading features of the banks in several of the states, in January and August, 1843:—

LEADING ITEMS OF BANKS IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE COUNTRY.

	January, 1843.		August 1st.	
	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>
Banks of South Carolina,.....	\$6,585,045	\$817,081	\$6,170,910	\$1,172,689
Bank of Tennessee,.....	2,156,701	483,451	2,401,735	568,329
Bank of Missouri,.....	1,146,077	452,537	1,071,893	985,720
Banks of New Orleans,.....	34,628,623	4,596,787	31,695,439	5,858,857
Bank of Kentucky,.....	2,636,728	810,024	2,786,090	995,196
Banks of Ohio,.....	3,892,533	524,096	4,053,952	688,543
Banks of New Hampshire,....	3,547,833	184,874	3,173,825	164,126
Banks of Maine,.....	4,405,660	175,301	3,916,613	158,591
Banks of Virginia,.....	12,648,609	2,181,141	13,491,703	2,168,105
Banks of New York,.....	52,537,724	8,388,559	58,593,081	14,091,779
	\$124,205,533	\$18,614,051	\$127,355,191	\$26,752,635
	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>
Banks of South Carolina,.....	\$2,916,271	\$1,844,867	\$2,019,313	\$1,653,823
Bank of Tennessee,.....	712,080	187,527	939,027	250,938
Bank of Missouri,.....	471,560	509,029	739,300	779,728
Banks of New Orleans,.....	1,216,237	3,420,232	1,248,652	3,965,243
Bank of Kentucky,.....	1,586,595	356,742	1,687,664	512,205
Banks of Ohio,.....	1,350,143	748,679	1,993,420	551,601
Banks of New Hampshire,....	1,010,328	597,879	916,147	365,574
Banks of Maine,.....	1,106,361	542,017	1,147,625	633,098
Banks of Virginia,.....	5,393,612	1,854,807	5,272,033	2,707,809
Banks of New York,.....	11,860,900	18,723,030	14,521,343	24,679,230
	\$27,624,087	\$28,784,809	\$20,484,524	\$36,099,249

In Alabama, which state has been a great customer of New York, the banking system has perished. In that state, there were three banks and four branches, with a capital of \$14,379,225, and loans of over \$26,000,000. The state bank and branches, based upon the stock of the state issued for its capital, have been put in liquidation. The bills issued by these banks have formed, for a long time, the currency of the state, although depreciated from 16 to 40 per cent. They have been receivable for state dues, and for debts due the banks; and, since the latter have been put in liquidation, a large amount of the bills have been returned and destroyed. An effort is now making to restore a sound currency, and to reject the Alabama bank bills as a circulating medium. The Bank of Mobile is making preparations to issue its own bills, and receive none but specie-paying bills in payment of debts, and on deposit. In view of this arrangement, goods have been sold to Mobile merchants on their own bills, payable at the Bank of Mobile, rather than, as heretofore, for acceptances. The amount of business done on cash principles, centering in New York, reduces the means of employing the large amount of capital applicable to banking in this city, which has not been diminished, in a manner to correspond with the immense curtailment which banking has undergone in the interior. The traders who now visit the city for purposes of business, bring an unusually large amount of cash with them; so much so, that the cash means of the merchants are rather increased than diminished by the progress of business. This is the proceeds of industrial products, and accumulates in the institutions, rather than withdraws that already there. In order to trace the progress of business at the great commercial centre of the Union, New York city, we have compiled, from the late returns made to the comptroller, the following table of the leading features of the city banks:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK CITY.

LOANS.	July, 1841.	January, 1842.	July, 1842.	January, 1843.	August, 1843.
Bank of America,....	\$1,168,636	\$2,029,002	\$1,890,106	\$3,058,149	\$3,646,443
Mechanics' Bank,....	2,381,221	1,960,504	1,843,397	1,909,425	2,619,781
Merchants' Bank,....	2,012,300	1,713,659	1,811,000	1,960,923	3,786,240
Union Bank,.....	2,888,189	1,804,721	2,127,001	1,929,283	2,456,310

LOANS—(Continued.)

	July, 1841.	January, 1842.	July, 1842.	January, 1843.	August, 1843.
National Bank,.....	\$1,254,699	\$1,162,768	\$1,237,351	\$1,026,963	\$1,096,437
City Bank,.....	1,221,387	1,060,369	1,109,982	1,106,268	1,235,115
Leather Manf. Bank,	1,076,557	963,555	1,076,133	1,003,607	1,092,360
B'k of State of N. Y.	2,561,984	2,509,936	2,710,940	2,900,508	2,076,038
Phoenix Bank,.....	1,387,991	1,262,247	1,397,380	1,171,387	1,563,663
Bank of New York,.	2,561,984	2,509,936	2,710,960	1,425,802	1,230,043
Bank of Commerce,.	4,104,882	2,539,164	4,476,139	2,777,997	2,848,265
Mech. Banking Ass.,	442,224	486,334	490,178	359,298	415,617
Butch. and Drov. B'k,	1,087,498	969,351	1,006,560	938,660	994,243
Seventh Ward Bank,	833,118	677,498	733,311	713,202	782,440
Tradesmen's Bank,..	767,216	681,001	722,667	716,940	727,669
Mech. and Trad. B'k,	402,324	317,058	376,902	322,223	418,306
Greenwich Bank,....	373,176	290,452	215,528	209,524	205,463
Am. Exchange Bank,	1,160,637	1,008,164	1,374,382	1,458,904	2,349,175
Merchants' Exc. Bk.,	1,129,841	1,043,971	1,125,332	1,148,966	1,538,633

Total,.....	\$30,975,266	\$25,957,855	\$29,709,537	\$26,593,811	\$31,970,000
Fulton Bank,.....	754,118	886,886	1,136,298
North River Bank,...	860,879	734,739	992,084
Chemical Bank,.....	890,928	833,810	941,254
Manhattan Bank,....	1,316,955	1,130,902	1,085,137

Total,.....	\$3,822,880	\$3,586,337	\$4,154,873
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SPECIE.

Bank of America,....	992,992	428,922	862,103	944,582	2,048,261
Mechanics' Bank,....	346,266	418,282	380,519	353,534	671,615
Merchants' Bank,....	975,900	350,014	649,400	596,687	1,992,410
Union Bank,.....	526,514	288,918	420,377	473,385	593,649
National Bank,.....	251,725	143,855	181,207	256,699	756,764
City Bank,.....	372,971	186,271	247,558	218,418	314,904
Leather Manf. Bank,	185,938	148,573	179,294	132,774	268,914
B'k of State of N. Y.	332,897	271,183	244,653	786,110	1,191,367
Phoenix Bank,.....	396,702	193,188	232,255	325,619	338,896
Bank of New York,.	496,442	324,923	389,181	421,353	1,451,460
Bank of Commerce,.	430,786	275,193	597,037	1,109,823	1,530,656
Mech. Banking Ass.,	39,507	73,827	42,913	66,805	47,953
Butch. and Drov. B'k,	114,062	94,780	130,988	133,114	144,275
Seventh Ward Bank,	47,624	46,148	64,975	55,402	76,842
Tradesmen's Bank,..	67,478	71,392	88,183	64,227	96,954
Mech. and Trad. B'k,	36,263	32,873	38,745	54,986	39,209
Greenwich Bank,....	51,510	32,358	33,418	33,551	37,107
Am. Exchange Bank,	263,112	165,648	174,294	276,490	274,188
Merchants' Exc. B'k,	202,725	173,385	148,648	108,374	124,125

Total,.....	\$6,294,456	\$3,401,888	\$5,280,032	\$6,408,710	\$11,955,495
Fulton Bank,.....	100,720	200,549	220,205
North River Bank,...	72,402	79,517	89,370
Chemical Bank,.....	91,311	102,739	97,849
Manhattan Bank,....	239,240	488,003	603,025

Total,.....	\$503,673	\$870,808	\$1,010,449
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CIRCULATION.

Bank of America,....	265,630	380,804	295,596	321,365	344,310
Mechanics' Bank,....	356,434	360,585	296,755	289,368	259,825
Merchants' Bank,....	332,800	258,854	239,500	241,942	335,283
Union Bank,.....	472,782	350,749	346,787	341,356	407,056
National Bank,.....	180,554	166,643	165,694	181,689	223,347
City Bank,.....	201,023	219,136	169,059	187,644	213,806
Leather Manf. Bank,	194,246	214,863	186,698	187,211	328,668
B'k of State of N. Y.	256,489	262,469	336,033	210,101	338,648
Phoenix Bank,.....	138,975	242,623	183,562	253,060	375,908
Bank of New York,.	456,578	505,346	455,991	448,238	450,129

CIRCULATION—(Continued.)

	July, 1842.	January, 1843.	July, 1842.	January, 1843.	August, 1843.
Bank of Commerce, .	\$190,830	\$174,085	\$201,306	\$204,150	\$249,175
Mech. Banking Ass.,	101,387	92,786	67,419	87,574	164,655
Butch. and Drov. B'k,	211,302	256,475	191,161	197,913	274,633
Seventh Ward Bank,	134,367	105,094	114,693	120,141	176,016
Tradesmen's Bank, .	132,312	127,568	104,139	107,411	139,787
Mech. and Trad. B'k,	123,799	101,279	99,515	101,027	110,950
Greenwich Bank, . . .	98,822	76,877	49,461	44,360	63,262
Am. Exchange Bank,	136,316	94,503	104,996	113,024	175,587
Merchants' Exc. B'k,	143,043	159,330	130,010	150,064	156,479
Total,	\$4,265,205	\$3,382,721	\$3,743,835	\$3,058,794	\$3,978,219
Fulton Bank,		217,656		194,459	269,446
North River Bank, . . .		175,795		111,905	184,847
Chemical Bank,		246,437		249,010	276,126
Manhattan Bank,		223,163		286,594	106,512
Total,		\$863,051		\$841,968	\$836,931
DEPOSITES.					
Bank of America,		1,036,219		1,451,620	4,259,271
Mechanics' Bank,		834,952		841,122	1,230,300
Merchants' Bank,		1,336,314		1,268,960	2,868,933
Union Bank,		676,021		928,512	1,304,863
National Bank,		517,101		512,987	854,984
City Bank,		395,397		565,732	778,015
Leather Manf. Bank,		422,036		668,901	598,790
B'k of State of N. Y.		760,749		1,432,227	1,160,079
Phoenix Bank,		678,000		437,000	761,114
Bank of New York, . . .		960,496		1,373,639	2,070,902
Bank of Commerce, . . .		2,119,742		2,119,742	1,608,073
Mech. Banking Ass., . . .		113,150		177,798	238,755
Butch. and Drov. B'k,		350,744		404,663	623,752
Seventh Ward Bank,		140,701		196,289	302,762
Tradesmen's Bank, . . .		335,029		368,557	506,530
Mech. and Trad. B'k,		172,968		194,452	261,496
Greenwich Bank,		62,517		86,877	144,564
Am. Exchange Bank,		354,693		523,767	754,058
Merchants' Exc. B'k,		314,835		348,920	521,044
Total,		\$10,327,947		\$13,667,166	\$20,764,929
Fulton Bank,		347,262		380,172	662,060
North River Bank,		307,794		377,396	581,100
Chemical Bank,		441,303		456,695	673,473
Manhattan Bank,		532,051		549,879	872,836
Total,		\$1,628,410		\$1,764,132	\$2,689,469

The aggregates of all these twenty-two banks are as follows:—

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
July, 1841,	\$30,975,266	\$6,294,456	\$4,265,205
Jan., 1842,	29,780,735	3,905,561	4,245,772	\$11,956,357
July, 1842,	29,709,537	5,280,032	3,743,835
Jan., 1843,	29,579,088	7,279,560	4,631,353	15,452,541
Aug., 1843,	36,514,332	12,965,944	5,308,525	23,475,641

These returns give a great accumulation of money; or, in other words, a great absence of demand for it in those channels where it is wont to find employment through the instrumentality of banking institutions. The alternations in the amount of specie on hand marks the progress of business, perhaps, more clearly than any other feature. The returns for July are at that season of the year when a turn in the exchanges of the United States take place. It is at that period of the year that the supplies of bills drawn against the great staple exports of the country usually become exhausted, and an export

of specie takes place in proportion to the balance due abroad for goods imported. In the year 1841, this was the case; and in July the rate of bills rose to a point which caused a demand for specie for export; and from that period up to the middle of November, near \$7,000,000 was exported. At that time, the new crop began to come forward freely, and specie found its way back again to the vaults of the banks, to some extent, prior to January, 1842; at which time, however, the amount held by the banks was far less than in the previous July. In July, 1842, the amount had somewhat increased; and since that period the influx has been large. Near \$14,000,000, it appears, now remain in the vaults. The deposits of the banks have swollen somewhat in proportion to this accumulation of specie. The loans of the banks have also increased, but by no means in comparison with the means at their command. The amount of capital actually lying idle, consists in the specie lying in bank above the ordinary deposits, and may be estimated at about \$8,000,000, and is worth, on the best paper, 3 to 4 per cent per annum. This will apparently find employment by being distributed in the interior of the country as a circulating medium, which is much wanted. It would seem, from the above returns of the New York banks, that but little of the money which has been imported at this port and Boston, has found its way into circulation; while, at New Orleans, it is apparent that a large amount has been distributed. The following is a table of the leading features of the banks of New Orleans, for each month since September, 1842. In our number for October, 1842, we gave a table of the same features since 1830—we have added the amount of specie arrived at New Orleans from September 1, 1842, to the close of each month.

BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS, AND RECEIPTS OF SPECIE AT THAT PORT FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1842, TO THE CLOSE OF EACH MONTH.

	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>	<i>Receipts of Specie.</i>
					FROM SEPT. 1.
1842.					
October,.....	\$48,101,210	\$1,504,661	\$1,679,039	\$2,171,859
November,.....	38,281,665	3,805,763	1,197,890	3,774,099
December,.....	30,632,929	3,744,020	1,057,755	3,661,391
1843.					
January,.....	34,628,623	4,586,737	1,216,237	3,420,232
February,.....	37,903,518	4,708,810	1,507,410	4,100,449	\$5,257,726
March,.....	31,987,280	4,164,783	1,272,083	4,016,619	5,740,176
April,.....	4,717,647	1,317,596	7,264,322
June,.....	32,762,313	6,301,415	1,854,000	4,648,520	9,347,644
July,.....	32,443,990	6,104,086	1,690,350	4,161,135	10,100,858
August,.....	31,695,439	5,858,857	1,248,652	3,965,243	10,395,130

In November, last year, when the cotton crop began freely to come forward, the banks resumed their payments in specie. Several of them, however, were unable to maintain that position, and subsequently stopped. In December, there were eight paying specie. Two more resumed in January, and again stopped in March; since which time, the remaining six have continued their payments. The loans of the sound banks have not increased during the year, neither has their circulation. In the season during which this great change has taken place in the banks, the sales of produce at New Orleans have been larger than ever before; and, moving on a specie basis, prices sunk very low in April and March last, but have since recovered themselves under an effective demand. Exchanges from all points have, during all that time, been in favor of New Orleans; and, as appears from the table, over \$10,390,000 have been received there from the north, from Europe, and from Mexico. Of this amount, \$4,300,000 has gone into the vaults of the banks, and the remainder, \$6,000,000, into general circulation, forming a sound currency. This amount of specie is equal to the highest active circulation ever furnished by the banks of New Orleans, and is the effective cause of the rising prices of

produce. A large portion of this specie left New York for the purchase of cotton, and is an actual remuneration for industrial labor. Its effect is different from bank paper, because it remains in the hands of those to whom it belongs, and is not loaned to speculators who are preying upon the community. The business which grows out of such a state of affairs does not create a demand for money at the purchasing point. It increases the amount of money there. Formerly, when the fall business set in, the Atlantic banks experienced a demand for money, because the notes of country dealers were offered for discount after endorsement. The business of this fall has thus evinced the fact that dealers, instead of giving notes for goods, pay the money; and the city merchants find their cash means increased, instead of diminished, by the progress of trade. The specie which has been drawn from Europe and New York into the interior, for the purchase of produce, finds its way back to the commercial centre in the purchase of goods, sustaining a regular and healthy circulation. The effect which this change in the currency, and manner of doing business in the United States, has upon the import trade of the country, is apparent, to a fearful extent, in an official table laid before Parliament by Mr. Gladstone, showing the export of British produce to the United States for seven years, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE TO THE UNITED STATES.

	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Cotton goods,.....	\$1,476,267	\$1,467,082	\$1,123,439	\$1,515,933	\$487,276
Hardware,.....	661,704	849,660	334,065	584,400	298,881
Iron and steel,.....	634,395	801,198	355,534	626,532	394,854
Linen goods,.....	944,589	1,268,823	976,267	1,232,267	463,645
Silk ".....	348,506	410,093	274,159	306,757	81,243
Woollen ".....	1,887,177	2,178,645	1,077,828	1,549,926	892,335
Other articles,.....	1,634,122	1,863,723	1,140,757	716,867	909,573
Total,.....	\$7,505,760	\$8,839,204	\$5,223,029	\$7,098,642	\$3,528,807

The year 1842 was, for nine months, one of average lower tariff in the United States than for twenty previous years. At the same time, prices were lower in England. The important reduction which has here taken place in imports is evidently rather the result of a radical change in the banking system of the United States, and consequently of the means of buying on credit, than of any commercial regulation. The fact is evident, that an expansive paper currency has a far more powerful influence upon the foreign trade than any other cause of commercial fluctuations.

The New York legislature, at its last session, passed a law abolishing the office of bank commissioners, and substituting quarterly reports of all the banks, to be published under the direction of the comptroller. The first quarterly report of all the banks in the state is as follows, as compared with the returns made in January, 1843:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK—JANUARY, 1843, AND AUGUST, 1843.

	January.	August.
Loans and discounts,.....	\$53,007,207
“ “ to Directors,.. }	\$52,348,467	4,155,775
“ “ to Brokers,.... }		1,430,099
Real estate,.....	3,568,725	4,063,595
Bonds and mortgages,..... }	12,446,083	3,644,870
Stocks and promissory notes,..... }		12,330,987
Due from directors other than loans,.....	39,788
“ brokers “ “	212,219
Bank fund,.....	770,372	527,756
Loss and expense,.....	948,738	554,613
Overdrafts,.....	87,328	98,639
Specie,.....	8,477,076	14,091,779
Cash items,.....	2,273,131	2,734,417

BANKS OF NEW YORK—Continued.

	January.	August.
Bills of banks suspended,..... }	4,888,987	4,936,292
Due from banks,.....	7,700,044	231,517
	\$93,508,951	11,728,808
Capital,.....	\$43,950,137	\$43,019,571
Profits,.....	4,129,699	4,011,923
Circulation, (old issue,)..... }	12,031,871	7,912,680
“ registered,..... }		6,608,663
Due the state,.....		531,762
Canal fund,.....	1,495,888	741,382
Depositors,.....	19,100,415	24,679,230
Individuals,.....	213,411	316,453
Banks,.....	12,072,679	21,340,748
Treasurer United States,.....		4,033,385
Other items,.....	401,441	570,276
Total,.....	\$93,508,951	\$113,765,579

There is a discrepancy in these totals. It is chiefly in the return of the Bank of Utica.

The leading features of these banks present a great fluctuation, and for a series of years have been as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

	Capital.	Loans.	Stocks.	Specie.	Balance due Banks.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January,							
1831,....	\$27,555,264	\$57,689,704	\$395,809	\$2,657,503	\$4,310,936	\$17,820,408	\$19,119,338
1886,....	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,083,685
1837,....	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,....	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,....	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,....	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,....	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,....	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,....	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,....	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,520,843	24,679,230

In 1839, the largest accumulation took place in the vaults of the banks. It was then 50 per cent higher than ever before, and is now 50 per cent higher than even then. A great increase of capital is evinced in the figures for 1840, the free banks being then included. Nearly all the specie is contained in the city banks, and has been accumulating there since July, 1842, when the import of specie from abroad commenced.

The gradual increase of the stock investments is a marked feature in these returns, and amounts to nearly 30 per cent of the bank capital. At the same time, a large balance appears due to other banks. A large proportion of this is due by the city banks to those of other cities, particularly Philadelphia and Baltimore. There is also, in addition to the ordinary deposits of the banks, a sum due the United States government, as follows:—

American Exchange Bank to United States,.....	\$265,102
Bank of America “ “ “	2,632,935
Merchants' Bank “ “ “	1,135,347
	\$4,033,385

Of this amount, there is due one of the banks, for Treasury notes, \$1,650,214, leaving a deposit by the government of \$2,383,171. These have been engraved already, and it is designed to issue Treasury notes bearing no interest, and payable on demand, in the city of New York. These notes, to the extent of \$5,000,000, are designed to be based upon the above specie deposit, and to circulate as a currency. There is as yet, however, some hesitancy as to the legality of the movement.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF COMMISSION ADOPTED BY THE NEW YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Recommended for general adoption, and allowed by the New York Chamber of Commerce, when no agreement exists to the contrary.

ON FOREIGN BUSINESS.

	Per cent.
Sale of merchandise	5
Sale or purchase of stocks.....	1
Sale or purchase of specie.....	½
Purchase and shipment of merchandise with funds in hand; on the aggregate amount of costs and charges	2½
Drawing or endorsing bills in all cases	2½
Vessels—selling or purchasing	2½
Freight—procuring.....	5
Collecting freight or general average	2½
Outfits or disbursements, with funds in hand.....	2½
Effecting marine insurance, in all cases, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent., on the amount insured.....	½
Effecting marine insurance, in all cases, when the premium exceeds 10 per cent., on the amount of premium.....	5
Collecting dividends on stock	½
Collecting delayed or litigated accounts.....	5
Adjusting and collecting insurance losses	2½
Receiving and paying monies, from which no other commission is derived	1
Remittances in bills, in all cases.....	½
Landing and reshipping goods from vessels in distress—on the value	2½
Receiving and forwarding goods entered at the custom house—on the value	1½
And on responsibilities incurred	2½

ON INLAND BUSINESS.

Sale of merchandise.....	2½
Purchase and shipment of merchandise, or accepting for purchases, without funds or property in hand.....	2½
Sale or purchase of stock.....	1
Sale or purchase of specie.....	½
Sale or purchase of bills of exchange, without endorsing.....	½
Sale or purchase of bank notes, or drafts, not current.....	½
Selling and endorsing bills of exchange.....	2½
Vessels—selling or purchasing.....	2½
Chartering to proceed to other ports to load	2½
Procuring or collecting freight.....	2½
Outfits or disbursements.....	2½
Collecting general average.....	2½
Effecting marine insurance, in all cases, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent on the amount insured.....	½
Effecting marine insurance, in all cases, when the premium exceeds 10 per cent on the amount of premium	5
Adjusting and collecting insurance losses	2½
Collecting dividends on stocks	½
Collecting bills, and paying over the amount, or receiving and paying monies from which no other commission is derived	1
Receiving and forwarding goods—on the value	½
The same when entered for duty or debenture.....	1
Remittances in all cases, in bills.....	½

The above commissions to be exclusive of the guaranty of debts for sales on credit, storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred. The risk of loss by fire,

unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietor of the goods. When bills are remitted for collection, and are returned under protest, for non-acceptance or non-payment, the same commission to be charged as though they were duly honored. On consignments of merchandise, withdrawn or reshipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF THE MEXICAN GOVERNMENT.

Two decrees of the Mexican Government, establishing new duties on the import and export of certain merchandise, have been received at the Department of State, Washington, (June 3, 1843,) and the following translations of the principal articles are now published for the benefit of our merchants :

Decree of April 6, 1843.

1. A duty of six per cent *ad valorem* shall be paid on all logwood exported from the ports of Carmen and Tobasco; all other dispositions reducing such duty being hereby rescinded.

2. The same duty shall be paid on all exports of the same article from the other ports of Yucatan, as soon as those ports have been again brought under obedience to the government.

3. The duties established by the first article shall be paid from and after four months from the date of the publication of this decree in the capital of Mexico.

Decree of April 7, 1843.

1. During the war now carried on by Mexico against the rebels in Texas, and the dissidents in Yucatan, the import duties, as fixed by the tariff of April 30th, 1843, shall be increased twenty per cent.

2. The white, yellow, and dyed cotton cloths and calicoes, to which the decree of the 2d of December, 1842, relates, shall only pay the amount of duty therein established on them, for the benefit of the mines and manufacturers, the collection of such duty beginning at the time fixed by the subsequent decree of December, 1842.

3. The increase to which the first article relates shall go into effect four months after the publication of this decree in the capital of the republic, with regard to cargoes arriving in the ports on the Mexican Gulf, and six months after the said publication for those entering the ports of the Pacific and the California Gulf.

CUSTOM HOUSE REGULATIONS IN SPANISH PORTS.

A letter from Malaga, of May 29, to a mercantile house in New York, says,—“ We have new Custom House regulations, which must cause considerable inconvenience in foreign commerce—the 1st article, which is the following, should be made public :—

Shippers of goods in foreign countries shall present to the Spanish Consul duplicate notes (without alterations) of the goods to be shipped by them, expressing the names of the vessel and master, their nation, port of destination, kind of bales, boxes, barrels and other packages, their marks and numbers; kind, quality, and quantity of the merchandise contained in each, in Castilian weight and measure, the consignees, whether the goods are of the same country, and the manufacture or place of origin—and, if foreign, to what nation or manufacture they belong—concluding with a declaration that the statement in this note exhibits the true contents of the packages, and that they do not contain anything else—it being understood that there must be as many notes as there are owners or consignees.

All these notes of the shippers are to be sealed up by the consul, to be delivered by the captain to the visit boat, on arrival at the port of destination.

Art. 7. After this register is sealed and delivered to the captain, no reclamation will be allowed to those interested in the cargo, though he has a right to have the notes confronted with the register or manifest formed from them by the consul. Before closing this register, notice shall be given (at the Spanish consulate) of the day on which he can receive the same.

Art. 10. The packet delivered by the captain shall immediately be examined by the administrator of the custom house, to see if there be any signs of its having been opened; and, in case it has, the captain for this alone shall be fined \$100.

Art. 12. Where there is no Spanish consul, shippers must send their notes to the nearest one, from whom masters are to receive their registers—it being understood that the goods will not be admitted unless these regulations shall be complied with.

Art. 14. There are excepted, cargoes of lumber, staves, codfish, hides, and coals, which may be known positively to come in search of a market and to order of their captains, but they are nevertheless to present the cooket clearance or document which may prove they come from the country of the production, and that there the goods have been embarked of which the cargo consists, of which the quantity must be *detailed* therein.

Art. 22. The master, on admission to pratique, shall present his log-book to the commandant of carabinieri, for *his* examination of it—who shall note thereon if the leaves it contains are in good condition, if any new ones have been added to or stuck in, &c. If no log-book is kept, the roll of the vessel is to be presented. If the master refuse, the fine is \$50, and the vessel will not be cleared until the master comply, &c.

DRAWBACK ON MERCHANDISE PRIOR TO THE TARIFF OF 1842.

J. C. Spencer, Secretary of the Treasury, has addressed a letter dated at the Department at Washington, July 31, 1843, embracing the Attorney General's construction of the 15th section of the act of 1842, in which it will be seen he fully concurs:—

“SIR:—Your letter of the 20th inst. calling the attention of the Department to the construction given to the 15th section of the tariff act of 1842, respecting the deduction of two and a half per centum from the drawback to which goods, wares, and merchandise imported before the passage of that act were entitled, has received immediate consideration. As this was the first time the question had been presented for my opinion, it became necessary to examine very carefully all the laws heretofore passed on the subject. Having done so, the conviction of my mind was very strong that the construction of the act heretofore made was erroneous. But being unwilling to reverse the decision of a predecessor without the strongest and clearest evidence of mistake, I deemed it my duty to take the opinion of the Attorney General of the United States. That officer has examined the subject very fully, and with great ability, and is of opinion that the terms of the 15th section of the act of 1842, ‘are free from ambiguity, and do not authorize the deduction by the collectors of the two and a half per centum on the amount of drawbacks allowed upon goods, wares, and merchandise imported before the 30th of August, 1842,’ and that such goods on re-exportation, are entitled to the benefit of drawback as provided for by the acts of Congress in force at the time of the passage of the tariff act of 1842.

“Concurring entirely in this opinion, you will govern yourself accordingly, and will immediately refund to all persons who have paid the two and a half per cent or any other sum, upon the amount of drawback to which goods imported before August 30, 1842, were entitled, the full amount so paid.

“The course to be pursued in regard to refunding in these cases, is to be in accordance with the provisions of the 2d section of the civil and diplomatic appropriation act of the 3d March, 1839, and the regulation of the Department on the subject.”

ANCHORAGE DUES IN BRAZIL PORTS.

Art. 1. The anchorage dues fixed by law of 22d October, 1836, are now substituted by a tax of 3\$R. per ton, payable, one half on entering and one half on sailing, by all merchant vessels on foreign trading, with the following restrictions :—

Ships arriving in ballast, and going away the same, will pay the old anchorage ; if taking cargoes, they will pay half the present dues.

Ships entering to get fresh provisions, or in "*Franquia*," to try the market, but do not discharge, pay only the old anchorage. If they merely discharge part of cargo, pay only half of present dues.

Ships entering under average or in distress, pay nothing if they do not discharge—or only discharge the necessary for repairing.

Ships carrying colonists, subject to some modifications.

Ships entering three times in one year, only pay anchorage dues the first two voyages.

The Government is authorised to modify the impost, as soon as the treaty with Great Britain expires, as may seem most suitable for the encouragement of the national shipping trade to foreign ports, or to the whale fisheries. The anchorage dues on foreign shipping may not be increased.

Signed, VIANNA, Minister of Marine.

Rio, June 26, 1843.

REGULATION OF TRADE WITH CANADA.

H. Jessop, Collector of Customs at Quebec, issued on the 29th of July, 1843, the following notice relative to goods imported from the United States by land or inland navigation :—Notice.—All goods imported from the United States by land or inland navigation, upon which duty has been paid, must be accompanied by a document under the hand of the proper officer at the port where the vessel or goods last arrived and departed from, showing that the duties have been duly paid thereon. All goods so imported and entered to be warehoused at this port, under the provisions of the act 3 and 4, William IV, cap. 59, sec. 38, must be accompanied by a document under the hand of the proper officer at the frontier port, showing that bond has been given for the due "arrival and warehousing of such goods." And until a reasonable time shall have elapsed after the coming into force of the act 5 and 6 Victoria, cap. 59, from and after the 5th July, 1843, all flour, salted pork, beef, &c., so imported, must be accompanied with documentary proof that the said flour had been actually and bona fide imported previous to the above date.

REDUCTION OF DUTY ON FLOUR AT CARTHAGENA.

FOREIGN AND NATIONAL VESSELS EXEMPT FROM TONNAGE DUTY.

Information has been received at the Department of State, (Washington, August 8th, 1843,) from Ramm Leon Sanchez, Esq., United States Consul at Carthagena, New Grenada, that, by a law of the Congress of New Grenada, bearing date the 24th of April last, sanctioned by the Executive on the 1st of May last, granting certain exemptions to the city of Carthagena, it is provided, that from the 1st day of September, 1843, to the 31st of August, 1853, all the wheat flour imported for the express consumption of the city shall be free of importation and alcabala duty, which is equivalent to (\$4 84) four dollars and eighty-four cents per barrel less than that article pays at present, which is \$8 20 per barrel.

The same law provides that all vessels, foreign and national, coming direct to the port of Carthagena after the said 1st of September, 1843, and for the same period above stated, shall be exempt from paying tonnage duty, entry, and anchorage. All other port charges will be exacted as heretofore.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

BUOYS BEFORE THE INLETS OF VRIESLAND.

THE following are the particulars respecting the buoys placed before the inlets of Friesland, (Vriesche Zeegarten,) as notified by the Directors General of Marine. The inlets of Friesland are now all provided with buoys—the northeast inlet with five buoys, as follows:—

1. A Red buoy, placed outermost at the depth of eighty-five palms water, the Engelman's shoal (Plaat) w. s. w., both capes on Schiermonnikoog in one another s. w.

2. A Black buoy, placed opposite the easterly point of the reef in forty-five palms of water, at the marks—Liversens, the length of a handspike between the Downs; the small cape of Schiermonnikoog s. by w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; the large cape on Engelman's shoal s. w. by $\frac{1}{2}$ w.

3. A Black buoy, also opposite the reef, in thirty-six palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. E. by s.; the great cape on the Engelman's shoal s. w. by w., the steeple of Ternait being then in a triangle with the capes on the Engelman's shoal, the large cape in the middle.

4. A White buoy, being the first white buoy from outwards against the flats of the firm strand of Schiermonnikoog, in thirty-six palms water, at the marks—the steeple of Holwert San a triangle with the capes on the Engelman's shoal; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. w. by s.; the large cape on Engelman's shoal w. s. w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; this buoy being then s. s. E. of the outermost black buoy.

5. A White buoy, also against the flats of the firm strand of Schiermonnikoog, in thirty-three to thirty-six palms water, at the marks—the steeple of Holwert within, and at the largest cape on Engelman's shoal; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. E. by s., the steeple of Anjum bearing then s. s. w. outward the Downs; this buoy being situated s. E. by E. from the second black buoy.

At the northwest inlet, formerly called the Middle Gaatje, are placed eight buoys, as follows:—

1. A Chequered Red buoy outermost, in one hundred palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. by E.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

2. A Black buoy, being the first black buoy, counted from outward, in eighty palms water, at the following mark—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

3. The second Black buoy in forty palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog E. by s. $\frac{1}{2}$ s.; this buoy bearing then E. s. E. from the outermost black buoy.

4. A third Black buoy in forty-five palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. s. w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog E. by s. $\frac{1}{2}$ s.; this buoy bearing E. s. E. from the second black buoy.

5. A fourth Black buoy in ninety palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. w. $\frac{1}{4}$ s., this buoy being situated s. s. E. of the third black buoy.

6. A White buoy, being the first outward buoy, situate at eighty palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. E.

7. A second White buoy in forty palms water, at the marks—the small cape on Engelman's shoal s. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog E. by s. $\frac{1}{2}$ s.

8. A third White buoy in fifty-five palms water—the small cape on Engelman's shoal bearing s. s. w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w.; the small cape on Schiermonnikoog s. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

All the bearings are by compass, and the depth of water calculated at usual low water mark. It is also observed that the great cape of Schiermonnikoog now bears s. w. $\frac{1}{2}$ w. of the steeple of Schiermonnikoog.

ROMAN ROCK, ALGOA BAY.

Emanuel Harrison, master of the steamer Phœnix, of Cape Town, dated off Algoa bay, April 19, 1843, gives notice that a buoy has been laid down on the inner edge of this rock in six fathoms water, the buoy bearing from the rock w. $\frac{1}{2}$ n. about fifty fathoms, and floats seven feet above the water, with a cross having the words "Roman Rock" painted thereon.

SHOAL BETWEEN THE ISLANDS OF TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO.

A late Bermuda paper contains the following letter from Andrew Drew, commander of Her Majesty's sloop of war *Wasp*, bearing date Demerara, May 4, 1843; addressed to Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Adam, K. C. B., &c. :—

"Sir,—I beg leave to bring to your notice the position of a shoal which is laid down in the general chart for the West Indies, about midway between the islands of Tobago and Trinidad, which is stated to have not less than six fathoms water upon it, and is thought to be an isolated rock; whereas, on our passage from Trinidad we had an opportunity of exploring it, and found it to be a continuous reef, extending from Browne's Point in the southern part of the island of Tobago, about nine or ten miles in a s. s. w. direction, with not more than fifteen fathoms water on any part of it, but the greater part being from five to eight fathoms, the deepest water close in with the island, and upon one point of it we found only twenty-seven feet, Browne's Point bearing n. n. e. about seven or eight miles, and from the uneven nature of the bottom, which was plainly visible, I have reason to suppose there may be less water than twenty-seven feet. It appears to me to be a coral reef growing up, and which, in time, may become extremely dangerous for vessels of a larger draught of water navigating the channel between Tobago and Trinidad."

 NEW CHANNEL INTO BERMUDA HARBOR—THE ADVANTAGES OF TIMLIN'S NARROWS.

The yacht *Dolphin*, drawing twelve feet of water, recently passed through this newly opened passage. In consequence of the prevailing state of the tides, she could not have gone out at either of the other passages on that or the two following days, as the depth of water in the Salt Kettle and head of the Line channels was barely twelve feet, while there were sixteen feet in Timlin's. The depth of the water is not the only advantage which this new passage to Hamilton harbor possesses—winds, contrary in the others, becoming free in this; and its southern boundary is so correctly defined by the point of land adjoining it, that it may be passed in a starlight night without any apprehension. The passage is also so short that captains of vessels may, by a little inspection of the channel, carry their vessels through at any time of the day when a pilot cannot be readily obtained, and anchor them in the evening near Port's island, or in the Great sound, and be prepared to go to sea at an early hour the next day.

 IMPROVEMENT IN NAVIGATION.

It is stated in the *Georgetown (D. C.) Advocate*, that Lieutenant M. F. Maury, of the United States Navy, and present superintendent of the Hydrographical Office, has presented a paper to the National Institute recommending that all merchant ships be provided with "charts of sailing directions," on which shall be daily registered all observable facts relating to winds, currents, and other phenomena of importance and interest, for the foundation of a true theory of the winds. The substitution of "great circle sailing" for the usual method of "rumb sailing," particularly by steamers, is also recommended; and there can be no doubt of its being the course to which navigators at all times, in open sea, should make the object of their approximation, and this simply because the great circle is to the sphere what a straight line is to a plane-surface.

 BEACONS IN THE FINLAND AND RIGA GULFS.

St. Petersburg, May 19, 1843.—The Hydrographic Marine Department has given notice that, in the course of this summer, 1843, beacons will be placed as follows:—1. In the Finland gulf, from Fiorko to Aspo; and, 2. in Riga gulf, between the light-towers of Zierich and Domesnas, on which, in order to distinguish them from the usual beacons, above the flags (of blue, yellow, and other colors) a broom will be fixed.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

TRADE BETWEEN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

It appears from a return laid before Parliament, that the exports of British goods to the United States of America, in the year 1842, were less in value by the sum of nearly twelve hundred thousand pounds than they were in any previous year since 1833, and that they were less by more than one-half than the average annual exports than the nine preceding years; the average yearly exports from 1833 to 1842 (both years inclusive) being of the value of £7,880,000, whilst those of 1842 were not of more value than £3,528,807. This alarming decline in the largest branch of the foreign trade of the country, says the *Liverpool Times*, is not confined to a few or even to several articles, but extends to all, with the single exception of tin and tinned plates, as will be seen from the following fluctuations which have taken place during the period referred to:—

The value of the apparel and haberdashery exported from England to the United States in 1833 was £127,911; in 1836, £254,269; and in 1842, £81,893. The value of the brass and copper manufactures in 1833 was £158,456; in 1836, £270,028; and in 1842, £89,952. The value of the cotton manufactures and cotton yarn in 1833 was £1,733,074; in 1835, £2,729,430; and in 1842, £487,276. The value of the earthenware in 1833 was £221,661; in 1836, £495,512; and in 1842, £168,873. The value of the hardware and cutlery in 1833 was £711,305; in 1836, £1,318,412; and in 1842, £298,881. The value of the iron and steel, wrought and unwrought, in 1833 was £415,515; in 1836, £913,387; and in 1842, £394,854. The value of the linen manufactures, including linen yarn, in 1833 was £832,612; in 1836, £1,688,012; and in 1842, £463,463. The value of the silk manufactures in 1833 was £251,278; in 1836, £537,040; and in 1842, £81,243. The value of the tin and tinned plates in 1833 was \$141,259; in 1836, \$246,378; and in 1842, £144,451. The value of the woollen manufactures in 1833 was £2,289,883; in 1836, £3,199,998; and in 1842, £892,335; and the value of the other British and Irish goods in 1833 was £699,772; in 1836, £1,025,389; and in 1842, £422,404. The total value of the British exports to America in 1833 was £7,579,699; in 1836, £12,425,605; and in 1842, £3,528,807.

The imports from the United States into England show a very different result. The import of bark has increased between 1833 and 1842 from 18,459 cwts. to 27,648 cwts.; that of salted beef from 899 cwts. to 7,024 cwts.; that of butter from 1 cwt. to 3,769 cwts.; that of cheese from 9 cwts. to 14,097 cwts.; that of wheat from nothing to 16,111 qrs.; that of wheaten flour from 35,659 cwts. to 381,066 cwts.; that of hams from 72 cwts. to 1,433 cwts.; that of lard from nothing to 26,555 cwts.; that of pork from 1,352 cwts. to 13,408 cwts.; that of rice from 24,113 qrs. to 40,450 qrs.; that of clover seed from 350 cwts. to 22,632 cwts.; that of tobacco from 20,748,317 lbs. to 38,618,012 lbs.; that of cotton wool from 237,506,758 lbs. to 414,030,779 lbs.; that of turpentine from 322,486 cwts. to 408,330 cwts.; and that of sheep's wool from 334,678 lbs. to 561,028 lbs.

By the same return made to the House of Commons, it appeared that the quantity of cheese imported into Great Britain during the year 1842 was—from Europe, 165,614 cwts.; from the United States, 14,098 cwts.; from British possessions, 46 cwts.; total, 179,748 cwts.

With regard to shipping, the American tonnage (entered) has increased from 229,869 tons to 319,524; and the British tonnage from 114,200 to 195,745 tons.

"After making every allowance for the more than usual embarrassment of trade in the United States," says the *Times*, "in 1842 the first part of the above return cannot be

regarded as being otherwise than most unfavourable to the prospects of English industry, while the second shows that the balance of trade is turning against this country in a manner which renders it doubtful whether we shall not shortly have to pay for American cotton in specie instead of goods. Nothing but a very great revival of the demand for English manufactures can save us from this evil; and, without a reform of the American tariff, there is very little hope of any revival at all equal to the necessities of the case, but we must consent to make liberal concessions if we wish or hope to receive them."

COMMERCE OF ENGLAND.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Some light is thrown upon the condition of the country by a return on "Trade and Navigation," just presented to parliament. Under the first head, "Imports into the United Kingdom," we have an account of the imports of the principal articles of foreign and colonial merchandise, of the consumption of such articles, and of the duties received thereon, in the year ending the 5th of January, 1843, compared with the imports, consumption, and receipts of the preceding year.

The quantities of wheat entered for home consumption in 1842 and 1843, are nearly the same: in the former year the quantity was 2,300,898 quarters; in the latter year it increased to 2,667,944 quarters. But, while there was only this small increase in the quantity of wheat entered, there appears this remarkable difference in the amount of duty received: in 1842, the duty paid upon 2,300,898 quarters of wheat was £389,865; in 1843, the duty paid upon 2,667,944 quarters was £1,112,453. A nearly similar variation is observable in other species of grain.

In sugar, there has been a material decrease. The quantity entered for home consumption, in 1842, was 2,065,985 cwt.; in 1843, it had fallen to 3,876,465 cwt.; causing a deficiency to the revenue upon this article of between £200,000 and £300,000.

The most important part of this return is the following table of the relative amount of exports of British and Irish produce and manufacture, in the years 1842 and 1843:—

Articles.	1842. Declared value.	1843. Declared value.
Coals and Culm,	£675,287	£735,574
Cotton Manufactures,	16,232,510	13,910,084
" Yarn,	7,266,968	7,752,676
Earthenware,	600,759	554,221
Glass,	421,936	310,061
Hardware and Cutlery,	1,623,961	1,392,888
Linen Manufactures,	3,347,555	2,360,152
" Yarn,	972,466	1,023,978
Metals, viz:—Iron and Steel,	2,877,278	2,453,892
Copper and Brass,	1,523,744	1,821,754
Lead,	242,334	357,377
Tin, in bars, &c.,	86,574	199,911
Tin Plates,	368,700	348,236
Salt,	175,615	206,639
Silk Manufactures,	788,894	589,644
Sugar, refined,	548,336	439,335
Wool, sheep or lambs',	555,620	510,965
Woollen Yarn,	552,148	573,521
" Manufactures,	5,748,673	5,199,243
Total of the foregoing articles,	£44,609,358	£40,736,151

The depressing effect upon the shipping interest of this state of trade, is also illustrated in this return. It appears that, in 1842, the number of ships entered inwards was 21,858, and the amount of tonnage 3,982,129; while, in 1843, the number of ships was 19,675, and the tonnage 3,655,606.

EXPORT TRADE OF THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

A late London paper gives an official statement of the whole amount of exports from the British West India colonies, on an average of three years prior to the establishment of freedom, and since that event has taken place.

Quantity of produce imported into Great Britain from the year 1831 to 1841, both inclusive.

Years.	Population.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Rum.	Coffee.	Cocoa.
	<i>Slaves.</i>	<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1831,.....	800,000	4,103,800	323,306	7,844,157	20,030,802	1,491,947
1832,.....		3,773,450	553,663	4,713,809	24,673,920	618,215
1833,.....		3,646,205	686,794	5,109,975	19,008,375	2,025,656
	<i>Apprentices.</i>					
1834,.....	769,000	3,843,976	650,366	5,112,400	22,081,490	1,360,325
1835,.....		3,524,209	507,495	5,453,117	14,855,470	439,447
1836,.....		3,601,791	526,535	4,868,158	18,903,426	1,612,304
1837,.....		3,306,775	575,657	4,418,349	15,577,888	1,847,145
	<i>Freemen.</i>					
1838,.....	750,000	3,520,676	638,007	4,641,210	17,588,655	2,149,637
1839,.....		2,824,372	474,307	4,021,820	11,485,675	959,641
1840,.....		2,214,764	424,141	3,780,979	12,797,739	2,374,301
1841,.....		2,151,217	430,221	2,770,161	9,927,689	2,020,298

"For the year ending the 5th January, 1843, the exports of sugar from the British West Indies to Great Britain was 2,473,715 cwt., being an increase on the preceding year of 328,215 cwt.

"Owing to the increased price of sugar, occasioned by the temporary diminution of supply—and it would be easy to give reasons for the belief that it is only temporary—a rise in the price of sugar took place; in consequence of which, the sum received by the planters for this article, since emancipation, has not been less than for the larger crops, obtained by forced labor, during slavery. The exports to the British West Indies from the mother country, which, during the latter years of slavery, amounted to £2,500,000, have since reached £3,500,000 and £4,000,000, a circumstance of no small importance to the British manufacturer."

COMMERCE OF THE LAKES.

The increase of the export and import trade of the great western lakes is astonishing. It has from nothing run up, within a few years, to the annual value of *seventy-five millions* of dollars. How few among us, even of the most sanguine and intelligent, says the Buffalo Commercial Advertiser, have kept pace with the astonishingly rapid improvements that surround them, and fully appreciate the force of the startling truth that, the value of the present commerce of our vast inland seas is but a fraction, if any, short of being *four times* the amount of the export and import trade in 1775, of the 3,000,000 inhabitants then living in the thirteen revolting colonies?

According to Pitkin, the foreign trade of those colonies for the six years preceding 1775 was, on an average:

Exports,	£1,752,142	\$7,779,510
Imports,	2,732,036	12,130,239
Total,.....	£4,484,178	\$19,909,749

The official records at Washington, as recently stated by Colonel J. J. Abert, of the United States Bureau of Topographical Engineers, show that the trade of our great lakes was, in 1841—

Exports,	\$32,342,581
Imports,	33,483,441
Total,.....	\$65,826,022

Notwithstanding the *over* trading which marked the year 1836, the aggregate of the export and import trade on the lakes that year was only \$16,461,354. Subtract the latter from the amount of the lake trade of 1841, and the difference will be \$49,364,668—an increase of *fifty millions* in five years! By this ratio, the commerce of the lakes during the present year should exceed \$85,000,000.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

NEW JERSEY STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

This company (successors of the Boston and New York Transportation) was chartered by the Legislature of New Jersey, in 1839, with a capital of \$500,000. Its capital is principally owned in New York. The following gentlemen comprise the present Board of Directors, viz: Charles Oving Handy, President; Elisha Townsend, Moses H. Grinnell, Moses B. Ives, and Richard S. Williams.

No steamboat association in the country has provided better accommodations, or have been more liberal in securing to the traveller between the two commercial cities, New York and Boston, greater safety or more comfort.

The boats belonging to this line, the MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE ISLAND, MOHEGAN, and NARRAGANSETT, are all comparatively new, built in the most substantial manner, and after approved models. The Massachusetts, commanded by Joseph J. Comstock, a gentlemanly and efficient officer, built by Brown & Bell, was rebuilt, and considerably enlarged and increased in her speed and accommodations during the last winter. Her present dimensions are—length on deck, two hundred and eighty-two feet, thirty-two feet beam, with twelve feet depth of hold, and is capable of carrying over one thousand tons. She has two beam engines, made by James P. Allaire, each forty-four inch cylinder, nine feet stroke, with powerful engines, equal with twenty-five inches steam to eight hundred horse-power. The model is at once symmetrical and beautiful, and is considered as fine a specimen of naval architecture as has yet been produced. Her frame is of the best timber, and most thoroughly fastened, at the same time combining all the strength of an Atlantic packet ship, with a grace and buoyancy that entitle her to a high rank among the fastest of the New York steamers, having performed the distance from New York to Stonington, (one hundred and twenty-five miles,) in six hours and fifty-five minutes. The arrangement of her cabins and decks, and the accommodations for passengers, are, throughout, of the most excellent and ample description; designed to promote a safety and convenience commensurate with the speed and the size of the boat. The ladies' cabin, on the main deck, (seventy-five feet long,) is furnished with a proper regard for the taste and comfort of those who, from time to time, are its occupants. Her main cabin extends, without interruption, the entire length of the boat; and, when viewed from the extreme end, presents a most beautiful *coup d'œil*—appearing rather an immense and magnificent hall on the land, than the cabin of a steamer. She has a suite of commodious state-rooms on the upper deck, and large state-rooms for families on the guards, which, with her cabins, contain three hundred and sixteen permanent berths, and can furnish comfortable sleeping accommodation for over five hundred passengers.

There is on the promenade deck an elegant saloon for ladies and gentlemen, with large windows on the sides, affording a fine view of surrounding objects whenever the weather is unpleasant without. The cost of the Massachusetts was \$150,000.

The Rhode Island, in command of Seth Thayer, one of the earliest steam-navigators on the Sound, and a most careful, attentive, and faithful officer, was built by Brown & Bell. She is two hundred and eleven feet long, with twenty-seven feet beam, and ten feet depth of hold, measuring six hundred tons. Her engine is of great power and beauty of finish, built by Allaire; six-inch cylinder, and eleven feet stroke, with twenty-five inches of steam, equal to eight hundred horse-power. Her cabins are neat and commodious, containing two hundred permanent berths, and can accommodate about four hundred passengers. A suite of state-rooms, handsomely furnished and decorated, have recently been added to the upper deck. The Rhode Island cost \$100,000.

The *Mohegan*, Captain Charles A. Woolsey, a quiet and courteous officer, was built by William H. Brown, in 1839. She is one hundred and eighty-six feet long, has twenty-five feet beam, and nine feet depth of hold—measures four hundred tons burthen, and has Lighthall's horizontal, vertical-beam engines, made by T. F. Secor & Co.; a forty-three-inch cylinder, and eleven feet stroke.

Although not so large as the other steamers of this line, she is of great strength, and beauty of model, and particularly distinguished for her admirable qualities as a *sea-boat*, having been in the Sound on the memorable night when the "President" is supposed to have been lost, and also in a very furious gale during the last winter; in both instances being the only steamer in the Sound, and exhibiting all the staunchness and buoyancy of the finest sea-vessel, amid the commotion of wind and wave that rendered her navigation not a little difficult and hazardous. Her cabins are very neatly and comfortably arranged, with about two hundred permanent berths, and accommodations for three hundred passengers. The *Mohegan* cost \$70,000.

The *Narragansett*, now undergoing some important improvements, was built by William H. Brown—is two hundred and twelve feet in length, twenty-seven feet beam, with twenty-seven feet four inches depth of hold; measures six hundred tons; horizontal engine, fifty-six-inch cylinder, eleven and a half feet stroke, with twenty-five pound steam, equal to seven hundred horse-power. She has a fine model, and is distinguished for her speed. Her cabins contain two hundred permanent berths; and, altogether, she can accommodate four hundred passengers. Cost of the *Narragansett*, \$100,000.

NORWICH AND WORCESTER STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD LINE

BETWEEN NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

The New York and Norwich line of steamboats, connecting with the Norwich and Worcester railroad to Boston, comprises the steamboats *WORCESTER*, *CLEOPATRA*, and *NEW HAVEN*. The *Worcester*, a new and beautiful boat, commanded by J. H. Vanderbilt, is two hundred and thirty feet long, with twenty-nine feet beam, and ten feet hold, measuring six hundred tons burthen. She is fitted with commodious state-rooms, well ventilated, and has ample accommodations for four hundred passengers. She is, we believe, the fastest boat running east of New York. Captain V., although but thirty-eight years of age, is the oldest steam navigator out of New York, having been connected with that branch of navigation for the last eighteen or twenty years. In addition to his time-learned experience, he is thoroughly acquainted with the steam engine, and, indeed, with every part of a steamboat from stem to stern.

The *Cleopatra*, J. K. Dustan, master, is two hundred and eighty feet long, with twenty-four feet beam, and ten feet hold. She is fitted in a superior style, with state-rooms and accommodations for four hundred passengers; in speed, nearly equalling that of the *Worcester*. The *New Haven*, a substantial and excellent sea-boat, with comfortable accommodations for passengers, is two hundred and thirty feet long, twenty-four feet beam, and nine and a half feet hold. She is admirably adapted for a winter boat, and is mainly used for that purpose. The *Worcester* and *Cleopatra* now form the daily line to Boston, one of which leaves pier No. 1 North River, every evening, Sundays excepted, at 5 o'clock P.M., via. the Norwich and Worcester railroad, without change of cars, the road being a continuous one, with a double track recently completed from Worcester to Boston, thus avoiding the possibility of a collision. The Norwich railroad company are extending their road, and will complete it early in November, six miles down the Thames, along its eastern bank, to a point which is unobstructed by ice during the entire winter, and equally accessible at all times of tide. This, it is estimated, will shorten the time on this route nearly an hour, and secure a regular and early arrival. The boats be-

longing to this line enter the Thames at the harbor of New London, which is one of the most accessible and safe on the whole coast. A light-boat is anchored at the mouth of the harbor, thus enabling the steamers in foggy weather to enter it without difficulty or danger. We have never travelled over a more pleasant railroad track, (excepting the Utica and Schenectady) than that of the Norwich and Worcester. From Norwich to Boston it passes through a succession of pleasant farming and manufacturing villages, with as rural and picturesque scenery as we seldom meet with on our railroad routes. The conductors of the steamboat train, Messrs. Ham & Cook, are courteous and attentive and do all in their power to render the passage pleasant and agreeable to the traveller.

It is not perhaps generally known to the travelling public, that the "Express," a small, but fast and convenient steamer, leaves Norwich every morning after the arrival of one of the boats of this line, for Sag Harbor, returning in season on the same evening to take the boat for New York, or the cars for Boston.

THE STEAMBOAT KNICKERBOCKER.

This beautiful steamer, belonging to the "People's Line," a description of which was given in the August number of this Magazine, made her first trip from New York to Albany on Friday, the 18th ultimo. The passage was performed as follows:—

	Hours.	Minutes.
Left State Prison Dock, New York,.....	2	05
Passed Yonkers,..... 18 miles,	2	55
“ Caldwell's,..... 44 “	4	11
“ West Point,..... 52 “	4	35
“ Newburgh,..... 60 “	5	03
“ Poughkeepsie,..... 78 “	5	49
“ Catskill,..... 115 “	7	43
“ Hudson,..... 120 “	7	57
“ Albany,..... 150 “	9	55

Deducting detentions, as stopping for the steamboats Troy and Columbia, in expectation of receiving the Mayor, and other guests from Albany, and for repairing the blower-engine, seventeen minutes, her running time, from dock to dock, was but seven hours and thirty-three minutes. Altogether, she forms one of the finest models of naval architecture we have seen, and in speed she is probably unsurpassed. The taste, comfort, and ease of the traveller, seem to have engrossed the attention of all concerned in her construction. Her commander, A. P. St. John, is one of the most gentlemanly and efficient officers on the Hudson river; and his chief assistants in the management of the boat, Messrs. Ackers and Haughton, are not wanting in the qualifications requisite to the discharge of their varied duties.

MERCHANDISE TRANSPORTATION ON THE BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

It is stated in the Boston Daily Advertiser, conducted by Nathan Hale, who is the President of the Boston and Worcester Railroad Company, that the quantity of merchandise which was transported on that railroad during the six months ending on the 31st of May last, was 32,723 tons, 6 cwt.; of which 19,231 tons, 10 cwt., consisted of merchandise transported upwards from Boston, and 13,491 tons, 16 cwt., of merchandise brought to Boston. Of this amount, 9,841 tons consisted of merchandise transported on the Boston and Worcester railroad alone; of which 7,971 tons, 19 cwt., consisted of merchandise conveyed upwards from Boston—20,143 tons, 19 cwt., were conveyed to or from the Western railroad, and 2,738 tons, 7 cwt., conveyed to or from the Norwich and Worcester railroad. The amount of merchandise downward, from the Western railroad

to Boston, the greater part of which was brought from Albany, was 10,792 tons, 17 cwt., in which were included 16,911 barrels of flour. Of the quantity transported to or from the Norwich railroad, about one-half consisted of merchandise conveyed directly to or from New York. In the downward transportation from the Western road, there was an increase, compared with the corresponding period of last year, of about 6,000 tons. The upward transportation to that road was of about the same amount as in the former period, viz: 9,351 tons, 2 cwt. The whole transportation in the six months ending May 31, 1842, was 26,612 tons, 15 cwt. Increase in the six months of the present year, 6,110 tons, 11 cwt. In the number of passengers on the road in the last six months, there was a slight diminution compared with those of the same period of the preceding year.

THE GREAT BRITAIN STEAMSHIP.

This magnificent vessel, which was launched recently at Bristol, is composed entirely of iron, and is the largest ever built since the days of Noah. There are no paddle-wheels or boxes, the Archimedean screws being used. Her burthen is three thousand six hundred tons, being two thousand tons more than that of the Great Western. She will be propelled by engines of one thousand horse-power combined. The following are her dimensions:—Length from figure-head to taffrail, three hundred and thirty-two feet; length of keel, two hundred and eighty-nine feet; extreme width, fifty feet six inches. She has four decks—the upper deck is flush, and is three hundred and eight feet long. The second deck consists of two promenade saloons, the aft one, or first, one hundred and ten feet six inches by twenty-two feet, and the forward, or second class, sixty-seven feet by twenty-one feet nine inches. The third deck consists of the dining saloons, the grand saloon measuring ninety-six feet six inches, and the second class sixty-one feet by twenty-one feet eight inches. The whole of the saloons are eight feet three inches high, and surrounded by sleeping-berths, of which there are twenty-six with single beds, and one hundred and thirteen containing two, giving two hundred and sixty-two berths. This large number is exclusive of the accommodation which could be prepared on the numerous sofas. The fourth deck is appropriated for the reception of cargo, of which one thousand two hundred tons will be carried, in addition to one thousand tons of coal. The fore-castle is intended for the officers' and sailors' mess-rooms and sleeping-berths, with the sail-rooms underneath. The engine and boilers occupy a space of eighty feet in the middle portion of the vessel. The engine-room and the cooking establishment are situated in this part of the ship. There are three boilers—these are heated by twenty-four fires, and will contain two hundred tons of water. There are four engines, of two hundred and fifty horse-power each, the cylinders of which are seven feet four inches in diameter. She is fitted with six masts, the highest of which is seventy-four feet above deck. The quantity of canvass carried will be about one thousand seven hundred square yards. She is fitted with the patent wire rigging. The hull is divided into four water-tight compartments, and the quantity of coal consumed will be about sixty tons per day. Upwards of one thousand five hundred tons of iron have been used in her construction, and that of the engine and boilers. The draught of water, when laden, will be sixteen feet, and the displacement about three thousand two hundred tons. The plates of the keel are from one inch to three quarters of an inch thick, and the other plates about half an inch thick. She is double-riveted throughout—the ribs are formed of angle iron, six inches by three and a half inches by half an inch at the bottom of the vessel, and seven-sixteenths thick at top. The mean distance of the ribs is fourteen inches from centre to centre. All these ribs will be doubled—the distance is then increased to eighteen and twenty-one inches. The ship is fitted with very powerful pumps, which can throw off seven thousand gallons of water per minute.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.
TRADE BETWEEN BRAZILS AND THE HANSE TOWNS IN 1842.

The following statement of the trade between Brazils and the Hanse Towns, Hamburg and Bremen, for the year 1843, is derived from Brazilian official documents:—

Arrived from Hamburg, in the different ports of the Empire, 66 vessels, measuring 19,192 tons, with 791 men as crews and 124 passengers, of which 31 Hamburgers, 22 Danes, 5 Swedes, 7 Bremen, Lubec and Prussia, 1 English, with cargoes of an official value of \$1,618,217. The exports to Hamburg were effected in 119 vessels, measuring 38,808 tons and 1480 men, of which 65 loaded at Rio Janeiro, 35 at Bahia, 10 at Pernambuco, 9 at Maranham and Rio Grande. Of these, 33 were Hamburgers, 24 English, 23 Danes, 17 Swedes, 10 Bremen, Dutch and Prussian, 3 French, 3 Portuguese, 2 Russian, 2 American, 2 Austrian, 119; with cargoes of an official value of \$7,734,201, showing an export in favor of Brazil of no less than \$6,615,938. This Export consists of 244,349 bags, 155 bbls., Coffee; 22,209 chests, 3,843 bbls., bags, boxes Sugar; 56,934 pieces Hides; 1,171 bales Cotton; 1,146 bags Cocoa; 298,746 Cocoa Nuts; besides Jachranda Wood, Caoutchouc, Roll Tobacco, Balsam Copavai, Sarsaparilla, &c. Arrived from Bremen, 13 ships, 2,677 tons, 125 men, of which 3 American vessels and 13 ships sailed to Bremen, 2,966 tons, 139 men, of which 1 American, value of export \$846,700; import \$80,868.

AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ENTERPRIZE.

The Chamber of Commerce of Morlaix, a port on the north coast of Brittany, in the department of Finisterre, France, have been occupied recently with the fact, alleged to threaten total ruin to the agriculture of that district, that the Americans are introducing into their country butter, equal and even superior to the home manufactured article, salted provisions, beeswax, clover seed, and, in fine, almost all the products of France itself, which they manage to deliver, duties paid, at the principal commercial points, at a cheaper rate than the home producers can furnish them. A representation is proposed to be forwarded to the French Government, with a view to procure the imposition of increased duties on American products. The wine growers are protected by heavy duties on foreign wines, and, although the commercial interests of the wine-growing provinces are opposed to those of the Low Breton country, the Bretons argue, that it is the duty of government to accord to all an impartial exercise of its favors.

BANGOR HAT TRADE.

The Bangor Whig says, there is an establishment in Bangor which manufactures eighteen hundred tarpaulin hats, of excellent quality, a month, and employs in the business about forty persons, many of them females, who are enabled to maintain their children comfortably and give them the benefit of a good education.

FRENCH WHALE FISHERIES.

It was stated recently by one of the French ministers (Guizot,) in the Chamber of Deputies, that the French whale fisheries were declining, "because it had no protection, or friendly ports." The bounty paid by the government to whalemens in 1839 was 966,000 francs; in 1840, 623,000 francs.

TEST OF ADULTERATED SUGAR.

A Mr. Kuhlman, says the New Orleans Bee, an eminent chemist of Lille, has discovered a means of detecting the adulteration of cane or beet root sugar, by an admixture of sugar from potatoes or grapes. The process is so simple as to be within the reach not only of refiners, but of consumers, and is effected by the test of potass. In trying this test, the potato or grape sugar, on being heated in a concentrated solution of potass, turns to a black brown, while that from the cane or beet root undergoes no change of color at all. By this means the minutest quantity of surreptitious ingredients will be discovered.

THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION,

The great tariff league, is increasing in strength and efficacy. Its members have one standard of weights and measures, and an uniform specie currency, in addition to the tariff. The league, through Prussia, has already engaged in foreign negotiations, especially with China and Brazil. It is true the confederation, as such, has no authority to conclude commercial treaties; but an understanding exists with Prussia, and this great power can conclude them. The Germans are sanguine in their hopes of concluding one with Brazil, and as sanguine that it would be mutually advantageous to both countries.

LARD OIL AND STEARINE CANDLES.

The Pittsburgh Chronicle gives a simple way of separating the Elaine (lard oil) from the Stearine, as follows:—

Take one hundred pounds of tallow or lard and boil it for thirty or forty minutes with four gallons of water, to which two pounds of oil of vitriol have been added. Then pour it into a tub and let it cool. When the lard has become hard, after two or three days, it will be found, that the mass is more compact than usually, and is surrounded by a fluid lard. It is then put into a cloth and pressed, when the Elaine (oil) will be separated, and the Stearine remain in the cloth.

CORNSTALK SUGAR.

Mr. S. Baldwin, of Franklin county, Ohio, details his experience in making sugar from cornstalks last season. The expressed juice indicated 9 per cent of saccharine matter by the saccharometer, and one gallon produced more than one pound of sugar, which is more than is usually made from the cane. From want of experience he failed, as most others have done, in making the syrup granulate; but the molasses, which did not granulate, was a most excellent article for family use, of a most delicious flavor, and was found to be very wholesome.

PROFITS OF RAILROADS.

The New England railroads have paid since their completion 6 to 8 per cent; several other roads, 6 and 7 per cent. The Hudson and Mohawk, of fifteen and a half miles, costing about \$1,100,000, paid in 1840, 7 per cent on that enormous outlay. The Utica and Schenectady, and Syracuse and Utica, pay 10 to 12 per cent. The stock of the Utica and Schenectady railroad has never been down to par since operations were commenced, in 1836, and has maintained its stand without fluctuation at a higher rate than any other species of stock, during all our commercial revolutions. Colonel Young, the superintendent of the last mentioned road, is one of the most efficient and intelligent civil engineers in the country. Under his management, it is scarcely possible for a serious accident to occur.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Despatches of Hernando Cortes, the Conqueror of Mexico, addressed to the Emperor Charles V., written during the Conquest, and containing a narrative of its events.* Now first translated into English from the original Spanish, with an Introduction and Notes by GEORGE FOLSOM, one of the Secretaries of the New York Historical Society, etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

It is rather extraordinary that a narrative of toil and adventure, addressed by the celebrated conqueror of Mexico to his sovereign, replete as it is with romantic interest, should hitherto escape the notice of an English translator. Written amidst the scenes described, says the American translator, in a tone of honest sincerity, and with a scrupulous regard to truth, which none have ever attempted to gainsay, these letters after being published separately as they were received in Spain, seem to have been overlooked and forgotten, when in the lapse of time the original editors had disappeared from the public eye. The volume is one of great interest, and furnishes the only authentic and complete history of the conquest of Mexico by Cortes, at the head of a few hundred Spaniards, which forms one of those romantic episodes in historic narrative that give color to the saying that "truth is stranger than fiction." It undoubtedly forms the most important data for the great work of Prescott, which will shortly be published by the Harpers, and all who contemplate the perusal of that work will, we are persuaded, be induced to look into the conqueror's own account of his discoveries and conquests.

2.—*Clements' Customs Guide for 1842 and 1843.* London: Smith & Elder. New York: J. A. Sparks. 1843.

The laws and regulations of the British customs, by their number and the variety of objects to which they apply, affect extensively the operation of the commerce of the United States with England, and an acquaintance with them, as much, at least, as concern the American merchant and shipmaster, appears to us quite indispensable. The volume before us (of about 380 pages) contains copious extracts of the laws, with tables of the duties payable upon goods imported and exported; the customs and excise bounties and drawbacks, the excise duties, tonnage duties, and counteracting duties between England and Ireland, the Russia company dues, and the orphan dues payable upon wine imported into London; as well as the duties payable upon goods imported into the Isle of Man, the British possessions in Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, &c. The volume embraces also a list of the warehousing ports, and the description of goods allowed to be warehoused at each port; constructed tables of all articles allowed to be shipped as stores, and every regulation applicable thereto. In an appendix we are furnished with an alphabetical arrangement of the different articles of merchandise, showing the places of their growth, and production, the countries from whence they are imported, as well as the tares and allowances granted on the same, etc.

3.—*Lectures on Magdalenism: its nature, extent, effects, guilt, causes, and remedy.* By RALPH WARDLAW, D. D. Delivered and published by special request of forty ministers of the gospel, and eleven hundred fellow-Christians. First American, from the second Glasgow edition. New York: J. S. Redfield. 1843.

An excellent little work on a delicate subject, but discussed with great eloquence and in such chaste language as to offend no one. The low wages paid woman for her labor, seems to us the most prolific cause of prostitution; and we have no hope of ever seeing the evil essentially mitigated until an entire revolution is effected and justice is done to her, and her rights more generally acknowledged and respected. We want a few more Matthew Careys, to stir up the sluggish philanthropy (justice?) of the time on this subject.

4.—*Lectures on the Application of Chemistry and Geology to Agriculture.* Part 2. On the Inorganic Elements of Plants. By JAMES F. W. JOHNSTON, M. A., F. R. S., etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

5.—*Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry and Geology.* Part 3. On the Improvement of the Soil by Mechanical Means, and by Manures. By J. F. W. JOHNSTON, etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The application of science to agriculture in England, has produced results that to the uninitiated are truly astonishing. The science of agriculture is the science of all sciences, the art of all arts. The crown stone of commerce, manufactures and the arts; and it is but common justice that art and science should give back somewhat of the manifold benefits they have received of her abundance. The works of Johnston before us have contributed immensely to the progress of enlightened husbandry in England, which is at least thirty years in advance of the agricultural culture of the United States. We therefore hail the republication of these works in this country, as an era in the growth of sound and useful information on a subject so deeply identified with the future progress of the nation, in all that constitutes the physical, and we might say, the moral well-being of our people. These works should be in the hands of every individual who owns or cultivates an acre of land, or who makes the least pretence to the appellation of farmer.

6.—*Productive Farming; or a Familiar Digest of the recent Discourses of Liebig, Johnston, Davy, and other celebrated writers on Vegetable Chemistry; showing how the Results of English Tillage might be greatly augmented.* By J. A. SMITH. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

Liebig, the learned German professor, has effected a complete revolution in the physiology of vegetation, and we are glad to see his discourses presented, as in this little volume, in a style free from difficulty, condensed and separated from such portions of his work as would only bewilder ordinary readers. The great merit of "Productive Farming" is the presentation in a condensed form to the industrious farmer all the more important parts of the ablest writers on the subject, in a form less repulsive, because less learned, and consequently more generally intelligible.

7.—*Celebrated Trials of all Countries, and remarkable cases of Criminal Jurisprudence.* Selected by a Member of the Philadelphia Bar. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1843.

Here is a volume of nearly six hundred closely printed pages, done up in paper covers, printed on miserable paper, (a necessary evil, that must be endured by the lovers of cheap literature,) and embracing a great number of celebrated trials for murder, forgery, poisoning, assassination, treason, piracy, adultery, libel, rebellion, witchcraft, and, in short, all sorts of crimes—crimes that should not even be named in a Christian community—and all for fifty cents; cheap enough in all conscience. The trials have been collected from all the best sources which the public and private libraries of this country afford, embracing also many recent cases furnished exclusively by the London Annual Register. The cases of conviction, sentence, and execution on circumstantial evidence are numerous and interesting, and should be duly heeded by humane judges and juries.

8.—*The Communicant's Companion.* By the Rev. MATTHEW HENRY. With an Introductory Essay by the Rev. JOHN BROWN, of Edinburgh. New York: Robert Carter.

The various denominations of Christians who relish the symbols and forms of religion, to whom Baptism and the Supper are beautiful and speaking words of blessed significance, will find this work adapted to their wants, and a great help to them in the performance of a time-honored custom of the church.

9.—*Birds and Flowers, and other Country things.* By MARY HOWITT. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor.

This volume, written among birds and flowers, will serve to convey to many a heart a relish for the enjoyment of quiet, country pleasures; a love for every being created, and that strong sympathy which must grow in every pure heart for the great human family.

10.—*Annals and Occurrences of New York City and State in the Olden Time.* By JOHN F. WATSON, Esq. New York: Barker & Crane.

We have before us a few pages of a new work bearing the above title, by an author already favorably known to many of our readers as a rare old chronicler of by-gone times, by his interesting antiquarian researches into our early history; to those who, perchance, may never have heard of him or his works, it will be sufficient to state that he has the enviable distinction of being an honorary member of the historical societies of New York and Massachusetts, *degrees*, which, are only conferred upon those whose merit has entitled them to the notice and consideration of such distinguished associations. The work, properly speaking, is an enlargement of what was formerly published under the title of "Olden Time Researches of New York City and State," a small duodecimo volume of about 200 pages, and long since out of print; we have only to add that the forthcoming work will contain four or five times more reading matter, making a large octavo volume of five hundred pages, to be illustrated with thirty entirely new pictorial embellishments, and the whole furnished to subscribers at two dollars per copy, payable on delivery.

The publishers contemplate putting the work to press as soon as a sufficient number of the subscribers can be obtained to warrant them in the undertaking. Subscription lists are now open at their store, No. 158 Pearl street, and also at the rooms of the Mercantile Library Association; we invite all those of our friends who feel an interest in such matters to call and examine the prospectus in detail, and then judge for themselves whether the work is not deserving the patronage of every New Yorker.

11.—*The Naturalist's Library, containing scientific and popular descriptions of Man, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, Reptiles, and Insects.* Compiled from the works of Cuvier, Griffith, Richardson, Geoffroy, Buffon, Goldsmith, Shaw, Montague, Wilson, Lewis and Clark, Audubon, and other writers on Natural History. Arranged according to the classification of Stork. Edited by A. A. GOULD. With four hundred Engravings. 8vo. pp. 880. New York: E. Kearney. 1843.

It is but a few years since the translation of Buffon, under the title of "Goldsmith's Animated Nature," was almost the only work in popular use. Even when its utter want of accuracy and adaptation to the improved state of natural science was generally known and acknowledged, it still continued to be reprinted, and was probably the instrument of disseminating as much error as truth. A successful attempt is made in the present volume to compile, from the several excellent works which have recently appeared in Europe and America, a more complete and comprehensive body of popular and scientific Zoology than has heretofore appeared in any form accessible to common readers. The classification of Stork, based upon that of Cuvier, is adopted in the present volume; and although it embraces scientific names and descriptions, yet these are made to occupy as little compass as possible, and are placed at the foot of the pages in the form of notes, thus rendering the book acceptable to the scientific student and the general reader. Interspersed throughout the volume are lively and entertaining sketches of the habits and instincts of animals, and the compiler has evidently turned over a large number of books of travels in search of their illustrative traits. The great abundance of useful and entertaining matter contained in its pages, will amply repay the reader for the time spent in its perusal.

12.—*The Irish Sketch-Book.* By MR. M. A. TITMARSH, author of the "Yellowplush Correspondence," etc. With numerous engravings on wood, drawn by the author. New York: J. Winchester, New World Press.

A very amusing book, "running over with fun and frolic." The author travels Ireland all over, and describes scenes, characters, and events with a ready and graphic pen. His style is eminently effective, and deep pathos often relieves the quaint and original humor. It belongs to the class of cheap publications. Price, 37½ cents.

13.—*Gunn's Domestic Medicine, or Poor Man's Friend in the hours of affliction, pain, and sickness.* This book points out, in plain language, free from doctors' terms, the diseases of men, women, and children, and the latest and most approved means used in their cure, and is intended expressly for the benefit of families. It also contains descriptions of the medicinal roots and herbs of the United States, and how they are used in the cure of the diseases. Arranged on a new and simple plan, by which the practice of medicine is reduced to principles of common sense. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1843.

Such is the title of a large octavo volume of nine hundred pages, that has, we are informed, gone through eleven editions, and sold to the extent of over one hundred thousand copies. It is recommended by a great number of the regular profession, as containing a comprehensive description of the diseases incident to the United States, the remedies employed; as a valuable assistant to families in any sudden emergency, and in all situations where regular professional attendance cannot be commanded. It is certainly written in a very perspicuous style, divested of most of the technicalities of the profession, and, we should think, a safe book for families who adopt the 'Alopathic, or regular practice. It is printed on a large, clear type, a refreshing circumstance at a time when we are flooded with *cheap* eye-weakeners and sight-destroyers, in the shape of light and trashy pamphlets.

14.—*A Treatise on Food and Diet: with observations on Dietetical Regimen, suited for disordered states of the digestive organs; and an account of the Dietaries of some of the principal metropolitan and other establishments for paupers, lunatics, criminals, children, the sick, etc.* By JONATHAN PEREIRA, M. D., F. R. S. and L. S. of the Royal College of Physicians in London, etc. Edited by CHARLES A. LEE, M. D. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1843.

We have read enough of this work to satisfy us that it will prove interesting to the non-professional reader, as well as the learned practitioner in the healing art. It is designed to meet a desideratum which modern discoveries, the improvements in practical and experimental physiology, and the late achievements in analytical chemistry, have created; and which, since the appearance of Liebig's remarkable works, every one must have felt could not long remain unsupplied. The American editor, Dr. Lee, pronounces Mr. Pereira, the author of the treatise, "one of the most learned, scientific, and practical men of the age; a physician of great experience, and accurate observation; a highly successful writer, unsurpassed in the judicious selection and arrangement of facts, and in the felicity of his illustrations and reasonings."

15.—*The Social Hymn-Book; consisting of Psalms and Hymns for social worship and private devotion.* Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This excellent collection of sacred poetry is designed to "supply the want of a small and cheap hymn-book for vestry-meetings, and for parishes that are unable to procure more expensive collections." It contains, however, three hundred and sixty hymns, embracing many of the choicest and most devotional sacred lyrics in our language. It is, in our judgment, the best collection of its size extant. The compiler, in his selections, has generally evinced a fine poetical taste; and, what is of equal importance, at least in an age when reconciliation is ardently desired by the good of all religious denominations, is its unsectarian character—its truly catholic spirit.

16.—*Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.* By JOHN KITTO, editor of the "Pictorial Bible," etc. Assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. Part 2. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1843.

This work, the first part of which we noticed in a former number of this Magazine, "is being" republished in New York, from the English plates, simultaneously with the London edition. The two parts already published, occupying one hundred and seventy-six closely printed octavo double-columned pages, have not exhausted the first letter of the alphabet. The work is at once copious and learned, and must, we should suppose, become to the theological student an almost indispensable book of reference.

17.—*The Practical Christian ; or the Devout Penitent. A Book of Devotion, containing the whole duty of a Christian on all occasions and necessities. Fitted to the main use of a holy life.* By R. SHERLOCK, late Rector of Warnock. With a life of the author by the Rt. Rev. THOMAS WILSON, D.D., author of the "Sacra Privata," etc. From the seventh English edition. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The admirers of old English church literature are indebted to the American publishers for these beautiful reprints of the choicest productions of the divines of a church distinguished in by-gone days for its piety and learning. Bishop Sherlock was born in 1613, and the first edition of this work was published in 1712, with a memoir by Bishop Wilson. The edition, of which this is a reprint, was published in England, in 1840. It is, we believe, considered by far the most important of all Dr. Sherlock's works ; and, as we have his biographer's testimony to the fact, that he made it the model of his own devotions, "strictly observing himself what he so earnestly recommended to others," its history became at once interesting and instructive. It inculcates the most fervent, but chastened piety, and the purest Christian morality.

18.—*The Poetical Works of Sir Walter Scott ; containing the Lay of the last Minstrel, Marmion, Lady of the Lake, Don Roderick, Rokeby, ballads, lyrics, and songs.* With a Life of the Author. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

Another volume of Appleton's unrivalled "Cabinet Edition of the Poets," embracing, thus far, the complete poetical works of Cowper, Burns, Milton, and Scott. It affords us pleasure to state that the present edition of Scott is, without exception, in every respect the most beautiful that has ever been published in this country, and not a whit behind the uniform London edition. Hazlett has pronounced Scott the most popular of all the poets of the present day, and deservedly so. He describes that which is most easily and generally understood with more veracity and effect than any other writer. His style is clear, flowing, and transparent ; his sentiments, of which his style is an easy and natural medium, are common to him with his readers.

19.—*Lessons on Shells, as given in a Pestalozzian school.* By C. MAYO, Esq. Illustrated by about one hundred types, drawn from Nature. Third American edition, with Notes, by I. COZZENS, Esq., author of "A Geological History of Manhattan or New York Island." 1 vol. 18mo. pp. 218. New York : Charles J. Folsom. 1843.

Few branches of natural history present attractions of so fascinating a character as that which relates to the study of shells, commonly known as conchology. The objects of this science are, of themselves, so beautifully formed, that the eye beholds them with pleasure, and the mind is stimulated without effort to examine their structure and composition. Whoever visits the sea-shore at this season of the year, (and who does not ?) will see these interesting objects scattered beneath his feet ; and having filled his pockets with the most striking, should next look round for some means of understanding their nature and place in the scale of creation. The little book before us is the best guide we know to such inquiries ; it is simple and perspicuous in style, abundant in illustrations, and has enough of science to be useful without being repulsive. It is well calculated for both the young and the old, and cannot fail to interest and amuse all who employ it as a text-book in the science of which it treats.

20.—*The Farmer's Manual ; a Practical Lecture on the Nature and Value of Manures founded from experiments on various crops.* With a brief account of all the most recent discoveries in Agricultural Chemistry. By F. FAULKNER, Esq., author of "British Husbandry." New York : D. Appleton & Co.

This little lecture explains the nature and constitution of manures generally ; points out the means of augmenting the quantity, and preserving the fertilizing power of farm-yard manure, the various services of mineral and other artificial manures, and the causes of their frequent failure. Every intelligent farmer in the country ought to provide himself with a copy.

21.—*Natural History of the Fishes of Massachusetts, embracing a Practical Essay on Angling.* By JEROME V. C. SMITH. Boston: W. D. Ticknor. 1843.

Dr. Smith is well known as the editor of the Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, and an able and popular lecturer on scientific subjects. In the course of several years' residence on a small island in Boston harbor, he became interested in the study of ichthyology. The daily opportunities which the locality afforded of examining a large portion of the species described in the present volume, resulted, three years since, in a catalogue of the fishes of the northern states; but, within a few months past, the manuscript has been revised, and that part of it is now presented which more particularly relates to Massachusetts. Some of the engraved illustrations are beautifully executed, but others are miserable caricatures. No pretensions are made to originality—his object seems to have been rather to collect and preserve such facts as are already known in this department of local natural history. The second part of the volume, devoted to an essay on practical angling, will be interesting to the sportsman.

22.—*The American Agriculturist.* New York: Saxton & Miles. 1843.

This is a handsomely got up monthly of thirty-two octavo pages, edited by A. B. Allen, a gentleman well known for his practical skill in agriculture, both in Europe and in this country. The work treats of the whole range of rural affairs of the United States, north as well as south, and is illustrated by numerous engravings of plants, animals, buildings, implements, &c. It is published at one dollar a year, in advance; three copies for two dollars; or eight copies for five dollars. Farmers, planters, and every class of people interested in agricultural pursuits, ought not to be without this work.

23.—*Change for the American Notes: in Letters from London to New York.* By an American Lady. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

A sensible, well-written series of letters, showing how several British travellers (Dickens, Trollope, Fidler, &c.) have erred in their twaddle in their hasty excursions through portions of this country, presenting at the same time, as far as we are capable of judging, a fair, just, and unexaggerated character of the English as they are. The fair author does not suppose that the work will produce any impression upon our English ancestors; for, when it is told of themselves, they are a people unmoved by the Truth.

24.—*The New York Journal of Medicine, and the collateral Sciences.* Edited by SAMUEL FORRY, M. D. July, 1843. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

The first number of a periodical, devoted to medicine and its kindred sciences. The leading and declared objects of this journal are, to elevate the character and dignity of the American medical profession generally, and especially to form a medium, free from all individual interests and party views, through which the rich results of the experience of the profession in the city of New York may be communicated to the world.

25.—*The Wrongs of Women.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. Milliners and Dress-makers. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1843.

We are glad to find the prolific pen of this popular writer enlisted in the cause of humanity. It is common ground, on which the good and the true of all sects and no sects may work with hearty good will. It is fulfilling the great mission of Christianity—the establishment of peace and good will on earth as in heaven—the harbinger of a higher and better life for the poor, oppressed, despised—for the race. A book on social wrongs, from the author of the present volume, will touch a class of readers that could scarcely be reached in any other way.

26.—*Second Causes; or, Up and be Doing.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1843.

An earnest appeal to "evangelical Christians" to be up and doing. Few writers evince a deeper interest in what they conceive to be the demands of religion, or more earnestly and ably set forth these demands in their writings. Her books are exceedingly popular with the anti-Puseyites of all the "orthodox" denominations.

THE
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BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1843.

ART. I.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

NUMBER I.

THE CHARTERING OF THE LATE BANK OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE fourteenth Congress was the point on which turned the commercial policy of the United States. By it was passed the tariff which served as the model and the argument for future restrictive legislation. By it the late Bank of the United States was chartered. Through it the internal improvements, which were then struggling slowly forward within the first few miles of their course, were pushed onwards till the mountains were crossed, and the east and the west united. Into the mould then formed the elements of the nation were cast, and, to the present day, the features then stamped retain their vividness unabated. What has been the result—whether the tariffs have increased our trade, or the bank has bettered our circulation, or the government improvements have aided our credit, it is not now our object to inquire, limiting the scope of the present and a future article to a brief sketch of the legislation of that Congress by which both tariff, bank, and internal improvements were established.

Congress met on the 4th of December, 1815, and while, by the great body of the people, the relief to be experienced from legislation was rated at the highest pitch, the legislature itself entered into the field with an ardor and enthusiasm unprecedented since the formation of the government. The return of peace had produced a buoyancy in the hearts of the great mass of the population, which is only to be compared with that experienced by a crowd of boys, who, on a bright March morning, throw open the windows of their school-room, and discover that the frost has already begun to loosen its nets from the face of the earth. Men looked northwards, and southwards, and westwards, at the great and fertile tracts which had just been reclaimed from the hazards of border war; and, as the want of the ancient mechanist had been met—as a base had been discovered on which should rest the lever by which a world could be moved, the only

thing remaining was, that the lever itself should be constructed. The capitol was looked up to as the workshop from whence the necessary machinery should issue. By Congress a bank must be chartered, whose influence should counteract the costiveness which had impeded the monetary circulation. To Congress was committed the task of removing, on the one hand, the national debt, and of cancelling, on the other, the existing taxes. Through Congress, not only the desolation which had followed a protracted war was to be remedied, but fresh and permanent springs of prosperity were to be opened. That wise and equal trust in personal industry and personal honesty, by which alone permanent prosperity can be insured, was forgotten, and the people rushed to the legislature for the production of a panacea which should restore the drooping energies of the land and multiply its resources.

The tone and bearing of the new Congress was calculated to promote the popular expectation. The old lines of party demarcation vanished, and each interest, no longer checked by past professions or personal experience, was willing to enter with the fullest enthusiasm into the new plans of national aggrandizement. The old party leaders had retired from the stage, and in their place was found a generation who had known them not. There were but few members of either house who could date their legislative history to the days of the first president, and among them Mr. Rufus King, in the senate, and Mr. Randolph, in the house, were the only men whose parliamentary abilities equalled their parliamentary experience. The demolition of the federal party during Mr. Jefferson's administration, and the war enthusiasm under Mr. Madison, had gone a great way to destroy, in the minds of the statesmen who then rose into action, those restraints which party discipline or hereditary prejudice might have created. When we look over the votes of the thirteenth and fourteenth Congresses, we are surprised to find that the old party land-marks are reversed, and that the nominal federalists are discovered battling against measures once deemed instinct with federalism, while the nominal democrats give their earnest support to plans at which the father of democracy shuddered. There was, in fact, a broad and defined boundary line between the statesmen of the revolutionary war, and those of the war of 1812. Ordinarily, the texture of the legislature preserves an aspect of uniformity from session to session, from the fact that though changes take place, they take place gradually, and that though new members must necessarily arise, they appear, like fresh strands woven into a rope at intervals, so divided as to preserve unbroken the continuity of the series. But, at the time of the late war, the capitol received an instalment of young legislators, all of them about the same age, and most of them endowed with great ability. From New Hampshire appeared Mr. Webster. From New York came Mr. Grosvenor, on the federal side, whose great parts were as readily acknowledged as they have been rapidly forgotten; and, on the democratic side Mr. Erastus Root, who continues, we believe, to play a conspicuous part in the political arena. In the Pennsylvania delegation stood Mr. Sergeant, even at that early period displaying those lofty attainments which have since distinguished him, and Mr. Hopkinson, to whom, in another stage of his long and honorable career,

—jucunda senectus

Cujus erant mores, qualis facundia, mite
Ingenium, —

it was in our power, lately, to pay a brief and unworthy tribute. From North Carolina came Mr. Gaston, who still continues to adorn the bench of his native state with those rare endowments which threw such remarkable brilliancy around his brief congressional career. When, on looking over the roll of the house, we find the names of Mr. Clay, Mr. R. M. Johnson, Mr. Philip, Mr. John Barbour, Mr. St. George Tucker, Mr. Forsyth, Mr. Lowndes, and Mr. Calhoun, we will not wonder that the politicians of the preceding generation, finding that, among the new members, nearly the whole of the power of the house resided, should have retired, with a few exceptions, from the field of debate.

On the election of speaker, Mr. Clay received eighty-seven votes out of one hundred and twenty-two; Mr. Nelson, of Virginia, receiving thirteen, and the rest being scattered. On December 6, a motion was passed that so much of the president's message as referred to a uniform national currency be referred to a select committee; and it was ordered that Mr. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Mr. Macon, of North Carolina, (who soon after was removed to the senate,) Mr. Pleasants, of Virginia, Mr. Hopkinson, of Pennsylvania, Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana, Mr. Tucker, of Virginia, and Mr. Pickering, of Massachusetts, be the said committee. To their charge was committed the following passage from Mr. Madison's message:—

“The arrangements of the finances, with a view to the receipts and expenditures of a permanent peace establishment, will necessarily enter into the deliberations of Congress during the present session. It is true, that the improved condition of the public revenue will not only afford the means of maintaining the faith of the government with its creditors inviolate, and of prosecuting successfully the measures of the most liberal policy, but will also justify an immediate alleviation of the burdens imposed by the necessities of the war. It is, however, essential to every modification of the finances, that the benefits of a uniform national currency should be restored to the community. The absence of the precious metals will, it is believed, be a temporary evil; but, until they can again be rendered the general medium of exchange, it devolves on the wisdom of Congress to provide a substitute, which shall equally engage the confidence and accommodate the wants of the citizens throughout the Union. If the operation of the state banks cannot produce this result, the probable operation of a national bank will merit consideration; and if neither of these expedients be deemed effectual, it may become necessary to ascertain the terms upon which the notes of the government (no longer required as an instrument of credit) shall be issued, upon motives of general policy, as a common medium of circulation.”

Mr. Madison's veto had been the cause of the defeat of the bank bill passed by the preceding Congress; and as that great obstacle was removed by the plain intimation of his message, and as the great majority of both parties had fallen into the opinion that a bank was necessary, it was not long before the committee had intimated to the government that they were in readiness to receive whatever plan the secretary of the treasury might deem advisable. Mr. Dallas, who then held the treasury department, though for a long time opposed to a bank, both on grounds of constitutionality and expediency, had learned with Mr. Madison, on the one hand to surrender his personal interpretation to the construction cast on the constitution by both Congress and the Supreme court, and, on the other hand,

to allow his original conviction of the inutility of government banking to be shaken by the experience of the late war. It cannot be denied that, to a country in the paroxysm of a protracted conflict, the existence of a large auxiliary treasury is highly useful; and with the recollection of the great difficulty with which loans were raised in 1814, and with the expectation that through the encroachments of the Holy Alliance another such outbreak was highly probable, we cannot wonder that Mr. Dallas should have looked forward with anxiety to the creation of an institution which should be ready, at a moment's warning, to place its coffers at the president's command. On December 24, 1815, Mr. Calhoun, as chairman of the bank committee, received from the secretary a letter both long and elaborate, presenting a scheme for a national bank, which was reported without amendment to the house, and from which we draw an abstract:—

TREASURY OUTLINE OF THE UNITED STATES BANK.

I. *The charter of the bank.*

1. To continue twenty-one years.
2. To be exclusive.

II. *The capital of the bank.*

1. To be \$35,000,000 at present.
2. To be augmented by Congress to \$50,000,000, and the additional sum to be distributed among the several states.
3. To be divided into 350,000 shares of \$100 each, on the capital of \$35,000,000; and to be subscribed—

By the United States, one-fifth, or 70,000 shares,.....	\$7,000,000
By corporations and individuals, four-fifths, or 280,000 shares,	28,000,000
	\$35,000,000

4. To be compounded of public debt, and of gold and silver, as to the subscriptions of corporations and individuals, in the proportions—

Of funded debt, three-fourths, equal to.....	\$21,000,000
Of gold and silver, one-fourth, equal to.....	7,000,000
	\$28,000,000

The subscriptions of 6 per cent stock to be at par.

The subscriptions of 3 per cent stock to be at 56 per cent.

The subscriptions of 7 per cent stock to be at 106.51 per cent.

5. The subscriptions in public debt may be discharged at pleasure by the government, at the rate at which it is subscribed.

6. The subscriptions of corporations or individuals to be payable by instalments.

(1.) *Specie, at subscribing—*

On each share, \$5,.....	\$1,400,000
At six months, \$5,.....	1,400,000
At twelve months, \$5,.....	1,400,000
At eighteen months, \$10,.....	2,800,000
	\$7,000,000

(2.) Public debt, at subscribing—

Each share, \$25,.....	\$7,000,000
At six months, \$25,.....	7,000,000
At twelve months, \$25,.....	7,000,000
	<hr/>
Total,.....	\$21,000,000

7. The subscriptions of the United States to be paid in instalments, not extending beyond a period of seven years ; the first instalment to be paid at the time of subscribing, and the payments to be made at the pleasure of the government, either

In gold and silver ; or

In 6 per cent stock, redeemable at the pleasure of the government ; or

In treasury notes, not fundable nor bearing interest, nor payable at a particular time ; but receivable in all payments to the bank, with a right, on the part of the bank, to re-issue the treasury notes so paid, from time to time, until they are discharged by payments to the government.

8. The bank shall be at liberty to sell the stock portion of its capital, to an amount not exceeding — in any one year ; but, if the sales are intended to be effected in the United States, notice thereof shall be given to the secretary of the treasury, that the commissioners of the sinking fund may, if they please, become the purchasers at the market price, not exceeding par.

III. The government of the bank.

1. The bank shall be established at Philadelphia, with power to erect branches, or to employ state banks as branches, elsewhere.

2. There shall be twenty-five directors for the bank at Philadelphia, and thirteen directors for each of the branches, where branches are erected, with the usual description and number of officers.

3. The president of the United States, with the advice and consent of the senate, shall annually appoint five of the directors of the bank at Philadelphia.

4. The qualified stockholders shall annually elect twenty of the directors of the bank at Philadelphia, but a portion of the directors shall be changed at every annual election, upon the principle of rotation.

5. The directors of the bank at Philadelphia shall, annually, at their first meeting after their election, choose one of the five directors appointed by the president and senate of the United States to be president of the bank ; and the president of the bank shall always be re-eligible if re-appointed.

6. The directors of the bank at Philadelphia shall annually appoint thirteen directors for each of the branches, where branches are erected, and shall transmit a list of the persons appointed to the secretary of the treasury.

7. The secretary of the treasury, with the approbation of the president of the United States, shall annually designate, from the list of the branch directors, the person to be the president of the respective branches.

8. None but resident citizens of the United States shall be directors of the bank or its branches.

9. The stockholders may vote for directors in person or by proxy ; but

no stockholder, who is not resident within the United States at the time of election, shall vote by proxy ; nor shall any one person vote as proxy a greater number of votes than he would be entitled to vote in his own right, according to a scale of voting, to be graduated by the number of shares which the voters respectively hold.

10. The bank and its several branches, or the state banks employed as branches, shall furnish the officer at the head of the treasury department with statements of their officers, in such form and at such periods as shall be required.

IV. *The privileges and duties of the bank.*

1. The bank shall enjoy the usual privileges, and be subject to the usual restrictions of a body corporate and politic, instituted for such purposes, and the forgery of its notes shall be made penal.

2. The notes of the bank shall be receivable in all payments to the United States, unless Congress shall hereafter otherwise provide by law.

3. The bank and its branches, and state banks employed as branches, shall give the necessary aid and facility to the treasury for transferring the public funds from place to place, and for making payments to the public creditors, without charging commissions, or claiming allowances on account of differences of exchange, &c.

V. *The organization and operation of the bank.*

1. Subscriptions to be opened with as little delay as possible, and at as few places as shall be deemed just and convenient. The commissioners may be named in the act, or appointed by the president.

2. The bank to be organized, and commence its operations in specie as soon as the sum of \$1,400,000 has been actually received from the subscribers in gold and silver.

3. The bank shall not at any time suspend its specie payments, unless the same shall be previously authorized by Congress, if in session, or by the president of the United States, if Congress be not in session. In the latter case the suspension shall continue six weeks after the meeting of Congress, and no longer, unless authorized by law.

VI. *The bonus for the charter of the bank.*

The subscribers shall pay a premium to the government for its charter. Estimating the profits of the bank from the probable advance in the value of its stock and the result of its business, when in full operation, at 7 per cent, a bonus of \$1,500,000, payable in equal instalments of two, three, and four years after the bank commences its operations, might, under all circumstances, be considered as about 4 per cent upon its capital, and would contribute a reasonable premium.

On Mr. Calhoun, as the chairman of the bank committee, did the duty devolve of presenting the charter to the house, and supporting it after it was presented. Mr. Calhoun, though not much beyond thirty years of age, had been present, and had taken an active part in the house during the two preceding sessions ; and from his great ability, his boldness, his freedom from those points of offence which so often detract from the power of a parliamentary leader, he had been hit upon by the administration as its organ, not only on the bank question, but upon most of the remaining points to which the attention of Congress was directed. We cannot but

regret that so imperfect a record should remain of speeches uttered at a period so critical, by a man whose efforts, under any circumstances, deserve study as much as they provoke admiration. Mr. Calhoun has now withdrawn from congressional life; and as the curtain has dropped finally upon the scene of his great efforts, we feel that it is not unsuitable for us to rest for a moment to contemplate a career which is one of the most remarkable in history. Not endowed with those distinctive characteristics which made one of his great rivals the most eloquent declaimer of his day, and the other its most powerful debater, we question whether, in the sphere which he had laid open to himself—the sphere of political argumentation—he has ever been equalled. Fastening his mind firmly on the point he is to make, and approaching it with an energy which never faints, and with an ability which never wavers, the strict line of demonstration is pursued with a vigor almost painful in its intensity, and which insures, in the mind of the student, submission to the correctness of the reasoning, if not conviction of the truth of the conclusions. It would have been better, if immediate effect was sought for, to have given the traveller resting-places, where he could have stopped occasionally to divert his attention from the strict line of deduction, and to enable him to cheer the orator onwards during the period of mutual relaxation. If Mr. Calhoun's speeches had been framed for the single purpose of parliamentary triumph, we doubt not that the usual little episodes of retort, or of story-telling, by which the attention of his hearers, refreshed by the parenthesis thus created, might have been more completely won, could have been successfully introduced. But it must be remembered, that the neglect of imagery, the freedom from personal controversy, the absence of appeals to the personal tastes or the political prejudices of his hearers, the utter disuse of the engines of ridicule or of sarcasm—it must be remembered, we say, that the freedom from unnecessary digression, and the earnest rigor with which the argument is pursued, tends to heighten in the mind of the student the convictions which the power of the reasoning produces. We are sensible that we have been worked upon by no inferior appeals to our personal tastes of party associations, and that neither our sense of the ridiculous, nor our sense of the sublime have been tampered with, in order that our reason should be betrayed. It must have been impossible to have listened to Mr. Webster's wonderful speeches, during the debate on Mr. Foot's resolutions—it certainly is impossible to study them as reported—without rising with a sense of deep admiration for the splendid qualities which have there been introduced into action. We are carried away by the impetuous eloquence there displayed,—the Mohawk onslaught, as Mr. Randolph called it,—and we feel that same enthusiasm which we feel when we witness the Italian campaigns of Napoleon. We are made partisans at once by the fearlessness of the attack; and as we witness the guns of the enemy turned against himself—as we observe the most fearful odds overcome, and see the weakest points in the whole field chosen almost because they are the weakest, and then made impregnable, we enter into the conflict instinctively, without knowing anything more than that we are enrolled under the standard of the eagle, and we take part in the triumphal procession without feeling clear whether we are celebrating anything more than the personal triumph of the chief. There are many who cannot read Mr. Webster's replies to Mr. Hayne without being thrilled with enthusiasm, and yet who, were they asked what con-

clusions had been left on their mind, would answer, like the grandfather in Southey's poem on the battle of Blenheim—

“ Why, that I cannot tell,” said he ;
But 'twas a famous victory.”

If the feelings of personal sympathy are called less frequently into play by Mr. Calhoun, it cannot be denied that the deficiency thus created is amply compensated by the interest which the argument itself arouses. There is passion, it is true, but it is so well trained and kept under that we observe it, like the steam in a well-regulated engine, rather in the methodical and rapid action of the machinery it influences, than in the wreathes and puffs of vapor which occasionally escape. There are no intervals for us to stop and cheer ; there are no resting-places by which we can get out for refreshment ; but we are carried onward in a line mathematically straight to the place of destination. It is in this very freedom from digressions of all kinds that Mr. Calhoun's title to the admiration of posterity will in a great degree rest ; and we have no doubt that, in future periods, when local illusions and personal retort have lost their effect—when the reader seeks to trace out not so much the private skirmishes of statesmen themselves, as the general character of the measures about which they struggled—the chaste and beautiful argumentation which distinguishes him will place him on a level with the few great minds who have been able to instruct the reason, without stooping to please the fancy.

Mr. Calhoun's speeches, during the first stage of his career, are so wretchedly reported, as to exhibit but few of the characteristics which mark his mind. The metal seems to have been poured into the same mould in which the reporter saw fit to cast the whole of the congressional debates ; and in one instance, at least, after being told by the editors of the *National Intelligencer* that Mr. Clay and Mr. Calhoun delivered speeches which exceeded all the reporter had ever heard, we find, when we turn to the report itself, that asterisks and hyphens must be depended upon to make good the estimate. In a few cases the manuscript appears to have been corrected by the author ; and, in relation to Mr. Randolph, in most cases the oddities and irregularities of that remarkable orator are preserved with a completeness that indicates his own co-operation. In one speech of Mr. Calhoun's—we mean that on the British peace—which seems to be more elaborately reported than those around it, we can observe almost the same train of thought as that which distinguished his admirable speech on the Ashburton treaty, and we cannot but regret that it should have been neglected in the late republication. The speeches on the bank and the tariff, which will fall within our observation, are but mere skeletons on paper of what they must have been when delivered ; comprising, sometimes, what consumed an hour by word of mouth in a few lines of type. Occupying ground at that time unusually high, they maintain it, even in the reported state, with a boldness and strength which command the attention. “ I am far,” said their author in a late letter, “ from repudiating these, my youthful efforts. Their very errors lean to the side of the country. They belong to the times, and grew out of ardent feelings of patriotism. The danger which then threatened the country was from abroad. The overthrow of Napoleon was followed by a combination of the great sovereigns of Europe, called the Holy Alliance. Its object was hostile to popular governments, and it threatened to turn

its power against this continent, in order to suppress the free states which sprang out of the old Spanish possessions. There was then no knowing at what moment we might be involved in a contest, far more terrific than that which had just terminated. It was in this state of things that Congress was called upon to settle the peace establishment, on the termination of the war with England. My attention was intently called to what I believed the point of danger, and I was anxious to put the country in a condition to meet whatever might come. The opinions I expressed in reference to manufactures, internal improvements, and a permanent system of revenue, kept constantly in view my leading object—preparation for defence—as much so as what I then said in reference to the army, the military academy, and the navy, as the speeches themselves show.”

There are three points made by those who pressed the charter of the bank which suggested, at that period, reasoning of great weight. The dangers, in the first place, which would accrue upon the probable outbreak of a second war, were to be anticipated. The government, in the second place, would be enabled, through the instrumentality of a bank, to pay its debts and receive its dues in specie, instead of in notes variously, but in most parts heavily depreciated. By such a process, a general resumption of specie payments would be facilitated. “A national bank of thirty-five millions,” argued Mr. Calhoun, “with the aid of those banks which are at once ready to pay specie, would produce a powerful effect all over the Union. Further, a national bank would enable government to resort to measures which would make it unprofitable to banks to continue the violation of their contracts, and advantageous to return to the observation of them.” “In what manner,” he asked, at a subsequent period, “were the public contracts to be fulfilled? In gold and silver, in which the government had stipulated to pay? No; in paper issued by these institutions; in paper greatly depreciated; in paper depreciated from 5 to 20 per cent below the currency in which the government had contracted to pay.” By means of a bank, it was argued, in the third place, the existing irregularity of taxation would be removed. One section of the Union was, in fact, through the variation of the currency, obliged to pay one-fifth more than another section. Such irregularity could only be overcome by the introduction of a specie currency, and specie could only be put afloat, it was supposed, at that period, by the interposition of a national bank. Such was the opinion of Mr. Madison, who sought in vain among the remaining expedients for a medium by which the circulation of the country could be redeemed. Constitutional scruples, both on the part of the president and Congress, were made to bend to custom and judicial decision; and as it became very clear, from the president’s message, that a bank was the means the executive had selected, the choice of expedients was narrowed to a small compass. The supporters of the administration, almost to a man, found themselves advocates of a bank; while against it were arrayed the federalists, with but few exceptions.

In opposition to the charter Mr. Randolph took a conspicuous part, and his speech on that occasion, though badly reported, is one of the most argumentative of the remarkable dissertations with which he was accustomed to entertain the house of representatives. Opposing the bank in consequence of its centralizing tendency, he declared at the same time that so conscious was he of its future success, that he would invest all he had in it the moment the charter passed. Mr. Randolph’s political influence was

at that time but small, and, indeed, we may question whether, at any period subsequent to his defection from the administration party in the days of Mr. Jefferson, he possessed much power in the national legislature. His own district he held by an indissoluble tenure, and so far as his vote went, therefore, he could promise more, perhaps, than any public man of his day; but beyond his vote, the assistance he brought into the common stock was of equivocal value. Daring in attack, he was utterly deficient in those qualities which make an attack successful. Like Murat, he was a good cavalry officer; but the moment he took upon himself to be a king, his power vanished. But even as an advance guard, he often spread much more confusion in the camp of his friends than of his enemies. If a sudden scent struck him, he would be seen scampering off on errands whose object baffled all the ingenuity of those who sent him to discover; and when he at last appeared, he would be loaded with the trophies of a victory, perhaps over his own associates. His fierce conviction was flung to and fro like a bundle of squibs in a market-place; and it was a chance if those who laughed this moment, might not the next be smarting with the dreaded missile. Entertaining several strong hates—among which may be numbered hatred to New England, hatred to Mr. Jefferson, hatred to white servants, hatred to two-horse wagons, and hatred to Mr. Clay—he allowed himself to be driven from his course whenever their repulsive attraction struck him. He would sacrifice, also, all feelings of consistency, and even of decency, for the sake of temporarily startling his hearers by some unexpected oddity. He opposed paying Colonel Trumbull for his pictures in the capitol, “because, sir, it has rained forty-two days and forty-two nights, as it did in scripture. No, sir, it did not rain forty-two days and forty-two nights; it was forty days and forty nights, and we therefore have gained two days upon Noah; it has rained, sir, I repeat, forty-two days and forty-two nights with not a snatch of sunlight, and does not the consideration fail for pictures which we never have seen, and, judging from the weather, never will?” His earlier speeches are reported, but badly, and his later speeches are scarcely reported at all. No regular reporter, in fact, would risk his reputation, by giving forth to the world the innumerable, inexplicable, and incomprehensible turns of expression to which Mr. Randolph resorted. It was said that the late Mr. Coleridge could never be reported, on account as much of his *unexpectedness*, as it was called, as of his rapidity; and such was the case with Mr. Randolph. Occasionally, a thought would shine forth startlingly beautiful; but it was so incrustated and imbedded in what might be called *pudding-stone*, as to be of little worth to the context of the speech itself, and only valuable when isolated. We are told by one who heard him in one of his latest efforts, that nothing could exceed the singularity of his appearance and his language. Leaning, or rather rolling, against the railing which is fixed in the senate chamber, outside of the outer row of chairs, he was engaged in delivering a series of desultory observations in a shrill tone of voice to whoever struck his eye at the time. The bankrupt bill was before the senate—and we trust that we will not be running far from the line of operation of a commercial magazine in reporting the views of a distinguished statesman on so prominent a branch of our mercantile polity—the bankrupt bill was under consideration, and Mr. Randolph had already gone some way in the discussion of the principles he supposed involved. He had just extricated himself from a digression on the subject of banks in

general, remarking, that the next thing to be done was to buy an iron chest, for safety against fire and thieves, which last was wholly unnecessary, for who would steal our paper? All ready, and then we issue bills. I wish I had one of them, (hunting in his pockets as if expecting to find one)—Owl creek, Washington city, wild cat—they begin with a promise to pay, sir; yes, *promise* to pay. After dwelling a few minutes more on banks and banking, and dealing a heavy slap to Unitarians in religion and politics, and stopping a moment to vindicate the memory of Sir Robert Walpole, in a connexion not now remembered, he proceeded to express his disgust at what are called family Bibles, stating, however, parenthetically, that he had no objection to each household having the scriptures—indeed, he thought they were bound to have them—provided they were not of the cheap, Yankee stamp. The editions he would recommend, were those authorized by the universities. Passing lightly over Shakspeare, or rather mingling his comments upon the great poet with those upon the holy writ, he descanted upon the impudence of the man who had published an expurgated Shakspeare for family use. To the American Protestant Episcopal church he declared he had never belonged, and, indeed, never would; that he was a member incorporate in the church of England, and that he had been baptized by a gentleman delegated from the bishop of London himself, who had laid his hands upon him, (laying his hands at the same time on the head of the gentleman next him,) pronouncing a vivid eulogy on both bishop and priest, whom he said he wished he could bring back again to life, when the time came for his own last offices to be performed. A passage in the prayer-book, he remarked, began “Them that,” which passage he said was so ungrammatical that no good man could use it. Suddenly he touched upon wine—it was often mentioned in the Bible, and should be drunk in a gentlemanly way—not in the closet, but at the table; but as to whiskey, the word whiskey was not in the holy writ. Jephthah was a land-owner and a wine-drinker; he himself was a land-owner, and he was proud to acknowledge that he held his land direct from a royal grant. He could even go back to William the Conqueror, and beyond him, and he was in fact able to say that he dated his origin to the men of Kent. Banking and bankruptcy were mushrooms of the Guelph growth.

We have laid aside several extracts from one of the few of Mr. Randolph’s speeches that have been adequately reported for the purpose of showing that, however ludicrous may be a table of contents of the subjects he brings together, the chapters themselves are fraught with thoughts of great originality and beauty, as well as with arguments of peculiar and unexpected force. “He was known,” to quote from Mr. Sergeant, “in every part of the world where the language was spoken which he understood, and there were men capable of appreciating the extraordinary powers he had exhibited during a public life of more than thirty years. In one department of high intellectual exertion he had justly acquired a pre-eminent reputation, and by it had added to the reputation of our country. He had contributed to place her, at least, on a level with other nations, and to enable her to put in a well-founded claim to the palm of eloquence.” “It must be confessed,” said Mr. Binney, on the same occasion, “that Mr. Randolph was an extraordinary man; extraordinary in many points, and particularly in his command of the public ear for so long a period, by his signal accomplishments as a debater. He had probably

spoken to more listeners than any man of his day, having been unrivalled in the power of riveting the attention by the force and pungency of his language, the facility and beauty of his enunciation, and the point and emphasis of his most striking manner. No man who has ever heard Mr. Randolph can ever forget him ; and no man who ever heard him once was ever unwilling to hear him again, except when, under the sway of an excitement to which allusion has been made, there was something said which his most partial admirers wished unsaid. The recollection of those occasions has, however, passed away, and there remains only the remembrance of those powers which have added another name to the list of our eminent countrymen."

Mr. Randolph's speech on the bank bill is much less charged with episodes than was common with him, either at that or at later periods ; and though it is so scantily reported as to be of little intrinsic value, we may learn from it what were the grounds on which he opposed the charter. "It was a strong argument," he maintained, "against the feature of the bill now under discussion, (the clause making the government a large stockholder,) that, whenever there should be in this country a necessitous or profligate administration, the bank stock would be laid hold of by the first squanderfield at the head of the treasury, as the means of filling its empty coffers. But if there was no objection to this feature stronger than it would afford provision for the first rainy day, it might not be considered so very important. He argued, however, that it was eternally true, that nothing but the precious metals, or paper bottomed on them, could answer as the currency of any nation or any age, notwithstanding the fanciful theories that great payments could only be made by credits and paper. His objections to the agency of the government in a bank was, therefore, of no recent date, but one long formed. The objection was vital—that it would be an engine of irresistible power in the hands of any administration ; and that it would be, in politics and finance, what the celebrated proposition of Archimedes was in physics, a place—the fulcrum—from which, at the will of the executive, the whole nation could be hurled to destruction, or managed in any way at his will and discretion."

"The evil of the times," he maintained, "was a spirit, engendered in this republic, fatal to republican principles, fatal to republican virtue ; a spirit to live by any means but those of honest industry ; a spirit of profusion ; in other words, the spirit of Catiline himself—*alieni avidus sui profusees*—a spirit of expediency, not only in public but in private life ; the system of Diddler in the farce, living any way and well, wearing an expensive coat, and drinking the finest wines at anybody's expense. This bank, he imagined, was, to a certain extent, a modification of the same system. Connected, as it was to be, with the government, whenever it went into operation a scene would be exhibited on the great theatre of the United States at the contemplation of which he shuddered. If we wish to transmit our institutions unimpaired to posterity ; if some, now living, wish to continue to live under the same institutions by which they are now ruled, and with all its evils, real and imaginary, he presumed no man would question that we live under the easiest government on the globe."

There were one or two objections to the bill which were urged, at the time, with great force, and which are worthy of present consideration. It was maintained that the establishment of the bank would in no degree

facilitate exchanges. Supposing that the paper of any one particular region was 15 per cent below par, and that it was necessary to purchase exchange on a distant point, it was deducible, from actual calculation, that to buy at once a draft on the place to be reached would cost no more than to exchange the depreciated paper into the notes of the national institution. In either case the 15 per cent depreciation was to be overcome ; and since the bank did not lessen the difficulty, the argument in its favor, drawn from exchange operations, was of no value.

It was mentioned also, secondly, that great danger would accrue from the want of responsibility of both president and directors. Great sums of money would constantly ebb and flow through their hands, and it was to be feared lest, by those temptations which in the strain of mercantile vicissitudes were presented, facilities so great might be abused. It was suggested that the directors should be salaried, and be made responsible ; but so anxious was the house to pass a bill which would be acceptable to the new stockholders, that the proposition found little support. As the discussion progressed, however, the doubts felt by a few at first began to be more generally entertained, and the large minority which was found against the bill on its passage, exhibited the great reluctance of even the administration members to adopt in full the administration scheme.

It was argued, in the third place, that all that the country wanted was to be left alone, and that it was most unwise to fasten upon her, for twenty-five years, a measure which was meant, and constructed to meet, a temporary emergency. The great exertions which the war had induced, had been succeeded by a state of lassitude and exhaustion ; but was it just to suppose that such a state would continue, and to frame a system of stimulants which must be used, not only for the present, but for the future ? If the country wants to be lifted up, apply the proper machinery for the purpose ; but do not, after she is once upright, subject her to a continual upward strain. In the words of Mr. Hopkinson, "In this young nation, with its vast resources and solid wealth, the remedies would come of themselves, in a great degree, if we have patience to wait for them." The best policy, in such a case, is to let alone ; to legislate, at all events, for the present and not for the future, and to trust much more to the active and permanent exertions of the people themselves, than to the insubstantial labors of their legislature.

On the appearance of the bill in the house, it was saluted by a series of amendments, the most of which were unsuccessful. We proceed to mention, chronologically, the most important, stating, first, those which were rejected, and secondly, those which were incorporated in the bill :—

I. Amendments lost.

1. By Mr. Sergeant, to reduce the capital from thirty-five to twenty millions. Ayes, 49 ; noes, 74.

2. By Mr. Cady, of New York, to strike out so much of the bill as authorizes a subscription by the government of seven millions to the capital stock of the bank. Ayes, 38 ; noes, 61.

3. By Mr. Wright, of Maryland, to substitute Washington city for Philadelphia. Lost without a count.

4. By Mr. Pitkin, to strike out of the 10th section so much as gives the president and senate the power of appointing five directors. Ayes, 64 ; noes, 79.

5. By Mr. Cady, of New York, to prevent the establishment of more than one branch in any one state. Negatived without a division.

II. Amendments carried.

1. By Mr. Smith, of Maryland, to strike out the clause allowing the executive, without the consent of Congress, to require the bank at any period to suspend specie payments. Carried without a count.

2. By Mr. Calhoun, to strike out the clause allowing Congress, at any future period, to extend the capital to fifty millions. Carried without a count.

3. By Mr. Smith, of Maryland, to strike out the proviso requiring that the choice of president should be made from the five government directors. Ayes, 80 ; noes, 46.

On March 13, 1816, the bill was ordered to be engrossed and read a third time, by a vote of 82 to 61; and, on the next day, was finally passed by a vote of 80 to 71. In the affirmation are found Mr. Calhoun, Mr. Forsyth, Mr. Grosvenor—who was the only federalist of note who supported the bill—Mr. Ingham, Mr. Lowndes, Mr. Pinkney, and Mr. Smith, of Maryland, Mr. St. George Tucker, of Virginia, Mr. Lumpkin, of Georgia. In the negative are Mr. John Barbour, of Virginia, Mr. Clayton, of Delaware, Mr. Hopkinson, and Mr. Sergeant, of Pennsylvania, Mr. McLean, of Ohio, Mr. Pickering, of Massachusetts, Mr. Pitkin, of Connecticut, and Mr. Webster. The vote, by states, was as follows:—

STATES.	For the bill.	Ag't it.	STATES.	For the bill.	Ag't it.
New Hampshire,.....	1	5	Maryland,.....	4	3
Massachusetts,.....	7	7	Virginia,.....	8	11
Rhode Island,.....	2	2	North Carolina,.....	9	3
Connecticut,.....	2	5	South Carolina,.....	7	1
Vermont,.....	1	4	Georgia,.....	5	1
New York,.....	12	8	Kentucky,.....	4	4
New Jersey,.....	4	2	Tennessee,.....	3	2
Pennsylvania,.....	6	12	Louisiana,.....	1	0
Delaware,.....	0	2			

The bill was now in the senate, and though, in the senate, the majority was eventually far greater than in the house, it was there that the great struggle was expected. The delegation from the New England states were federalists to a man ; New York, Delaware, and Maryland, were represented by senators of the same politics ; and it was known that several prominent members from the south, startled with the great powers with which the bank was invested, had been led to draw together their constitutional scruples so tightly, as to make their vote on the final question very doubtful. With the federalists, also, almost the whole of the power of the senate resided. Among them was numbered Jeremiah Mason, who, though like Mr. Grattan's oak, transplanted to the parliamentary soil at fifty, retained unimpaired his giant dimensions and his majestic strength. There, also, was Robert Goodloe Harper, of Maryland, who, as an eloquent and dexterous debater, knew but few equals. There, above all others, was Rufus King, whose name cannot be mentioned without admiration for abilities so vast and so varied, and respect—we can almost say affection—for a character whose energies were adorned by Christian gentleness and directed by Christian wisdom.

On March 22, Mr. Campbell, from the committee of finance, reported the bill as it came from the house entire ; stating, at the same time, that though a majority of the committee had been of opinion that amendments were necessary, they could not agree among themselves as to the nature

of the changes required. Mr. Mason at once moved an amendment whose effect would be to make the proportion of the first specie instalment on each share \$10 instead of \$5. The motion was opposed at the threshold by the friends of the bill and of the administration, on the general ground not only of the inexpediency of the proposed alteration, but on the principle, also, that it would be unwise to hazard the success of the bill on its return to the house by amendments which would be comparatively unessential. The general principle of the bill, consequently, was brought on the carpet, and though the amendment was ultimately withdrawn, a discussion ensued, from which we extract a few passages:—

“The two great objects proposed by the friends of this bill,” said Mr. Mason, “were, 1st. To release the country from the mass of spurious paper which was said to be the circulating medium. 2d. To aid the government in its finances. To effect the first object, the bank must commence its operations in specie. To enable it to do this, he proceeded to show that, in his view, a larger proportion of specie was necessary to the first payment. The United States stock, subscribable and payable at the same time, to the amount of seven millions, would be no more aid to the bank in discounting, with a view to redeeming its notes with specie, than would so many bank bills. The amount, \$1,400,000 in specie, divided among the different branches, which he presumed would be immediately established, would be insufficient for any operation whatever. Let the bank issue paper sufficient to produce any effect, and the specie in its vaults would be instantly withdrawn from them; twenty-five days would be sufficient for that purpose. In Baltimore, Philadelphia, and the District of Columbia, the notes of the bank would be seized on by every individual who has any occasion for specie; the bank, then, to be safe, would be able to issue no more paper than to the amount of its specie paid in. Would such an issue serve to reform the currency, or give the government any aid in its finances? It might be said the bank would commence operations slowly, and with caution; but any man acquainted with the institution of banks, knows that the sum first paid in is nearly all that the stockholders ever pay. The bank would continue in operation forever, without taking from the stockholders any considerable sum more than the first instalment; for, as far as the bank discounted, the second instalment would be paid into the bank with the specie of the first instalment. This was a position so fully supported by all experience, that he presumed it would not be denied. For its specie capital, then, the bank must depend principally on the amount first paid in. The bank might sell some stock, &c., to obtain specie, but the direct bringing in of specie would not be so much after the first instalment. The sum of \$2,800,000 was not a large instalment to be first paid in on a capital of \$35,000,000; and, according to the statements of gentlemen, there would be no difficulty in obtaining the necessary amount of specie to make the first payment. He concluded by saying, that his motion, if adopted, would essentially aid the bank in its operations, and increase its effect in reforming the circulation of the country as far as the bill can have that effect.”

“The gentleman from New Hampshire,” remarked Mr. King, who followed, “had conclusively shown that one and a half millions was the greatest extent to which, as it now stood, the bank could safely issue on a specie system. Illustrating his view of the subject by a detailed statement of the process, he said that the first discounts of the bank being ne-

cessarily to those most pressed by the state banks, the proceeds of the discounts would immediately find their way into the vaults of the state banks, &c. Under this view, a million and a half of dollars would be a sum entirely too small wherewith to enter into competition with the existing banks. If the issues of the bank exceeded the specie paid in, the first process would be immediately to transfer the specie from the general bank to the local banks; if the bank confined its discounts within that sum, its agency would be very limited indeed, &c. Connected with this subject was another idea, which, perhaps, it would be premature now to enlarge on, which was, that according to the provisions of this bill, as he understood them, the bank need not, may not, will not be a specie bank; the very circumstances already suggested would compel the bank to become a paper bank, to issue paper that will not command specie. This, then, should be an additional motive to the senate to increase the amount of the specie payment, that the bank may be enabled to avoid such a state of its affairs as would compel it to become a paper bank."

Mr. Barbour, (we quote from the speech of Mr. P. P. Barbour, of Virginia, as reported in the *National Intelligencer*,) then proceeded to the consideration of the great subject before the house. "The constitution," he said, "had imparted to Congress, among other attributes, the power of regulating the coin of the United States. How had Congress acquitted themselves of this duty? Where, and of what effect, were these regulations? Where was the uniformity of currency? Mr. B. described the variety and fluctuation of value of the paper in circulation, not only in various states, but in contiguous towns and counties. This was a great evil, deprecated on all hands. The power intended by the constitution to have been lodged in the hands of the general government, was, by the failure of the government to make use of it, exercised by every state in the Union, frequently by individuals, &c. Hence arose an excess of paper issues, causing depreciation to an extent which could scarcely be estimated—an evil which called for a remedy in language not to be misunderstood. Where was the antidote which the executive in this, the only organ of public sentiment, had called on Congress to interpose? The patient, said Mr. B., is sick from the crown of his head to the sole of his foot; he asks for oil and wine to be poured into his wounds, which would otherwise be fatal. Where is the man who will propose any other antidote than that now before us? If there be a *Don Quixotte* in politics, let him appear. No, Mr. B. said, not even a nostrum had been tendered to substitute this plan. If no other remedy was offered, ought they to higgler about details, to split hairs on the question? Mr. B. then spoke of the necessity of mutual concession among legislators, without which the idea of legislation was the most vague and illusory that ever entered the human mind. It was necessary for the present diseased paper medium, since specie had fled the country, or was scattered in the bowels of the earth, to substitute a medium impressed with the seal of the nation, &c. If an institution were established to issue paper of that description, we should have in lieu of a medium, the value of which will not live ten, fifteen, or twenty miles from the spot where we received it, a paper which will embrace the Union in its grasp. It would also be a great financial instrument, necessary to the fulfilment of the national duties in this respect. On this head, the experience of the last war spoke a language which incredulity itself could not doubt. In the dark and gloomy period of the last win-

ter, when this subject had been discussed, no doubt was entertained that this was the only means of remedying an evil from which so much was apprehended. That time, he rejoiced, had passed by, but he hoped the lessons of experience would not be permitted to pass away with the urgency of the occasion," &c.

"In regard to the details of this bill, he said he did not see the necessity of amending them. It had been stated that this would be a paper bank, and, in order to prevent that, an increase of the specie payments was suggested. Mr. B. believed such an amendment was unnecessary. Not being necessary, what would be its effect? It would be to place the bank wholly in the hands of a few fortunate individuals or banks, who had specie in their possession. The smaller the first payment of specie was made within the limits of necessity to the object, in his opinion, the wiser would be the plan. The establishment of a bank, or any other system, could not be expected to afford an instant remedy, any more than a dose of medicine would restore to instant health and pristine vigor the man who had been wasted by long sickness. The effect of this amendment, without accelerating the operations of the bank, would be to favor the monopolists of specie, &c. They who had the caution or forecast to hoard up the dollars and cents."

On the withdrawal of the motion which gave rise to the debate from which we have extracted, Mr. Mason proposed the following proviso, which was carried by a vote of 20 to 14. "Provided, That all bills or notes so to be issued by said corporation shall be made payable on demand, other than bills or notes for the payment of a sum not less than — dollars each, and payable to the order of some person or persons, which bills or notes it shall be lawful for said corporation to make payable at any time not exceeding — days from the date thereof."

The passage of the amendment, destructive as it was to the principle of non-interposition, with which the friends of the measure had started, opened the way to a host of proposed alterations; one of which, reserving to Congress the power of repealing the charter within a year, if the bank in that period did not go into operation, and another, excluding the United States from being represented in the choice of directors, were passed without opposition. The following amendments were rejected:—

1. By Mr. Mason, giving Congress the power of repealing the charter in case the bank should suspend specie payments to such an amount, or for such a period as Congress should deem injurious. Yeas, 14; nays, 17.
2. By Mr. King, to strike out that provision in the bill which gives the president the power of appointing five directors. Yeas, 14; nays, 21.
3. By Mr. Goldsborough, requiring that when the government should cease to hold stock in the bank, the government directors should retire from the board. Yeas, 16; nays, 18.
4. By Mr. Taylor, making the government stock unalienable. Yeas, 10; nays, 18.

After the addition of a final section, on motion of Mr. Daggett, of Connecticut, giving to a committee of either house of Congress the power to inspect the books of the bank whenever it appeared advisable, and establishing powers by which the bank could be brought before the Circuit court of the district of Pennsylvania, whenever either president or Congress has reason to believe the charter has been violated, the bill was

ordered to be read a third time by a majority of 13, and, on the next day, was passed by the following vote :—

YEAS—Messrs. Barbour, Barry, Brown, Campbell, Chase, Condit, Dagget, Fromentin, Harper, Horsey, Howell, Hunter, Lacock, Mason, of Virginia, Morrow, Roberts, Talbot, Tait, Turner, Varnum, Williams—22.

NAYS—Messrs. Dana, Gaillard, Goldsborough, Gore, King, Macon, Mason, of New Hampshire, Ruggles, Sanford, Tickenor, Wells, Wilson—12.

On the return of the bill to the house, after an ineffectual attempt to open the subject afresh, the amendments of the senate were concurred in, and the charter presented to the president, who, on the 10th of April, 1816, returned it with his signature.

Such is the history of the charter of the late Bank of the United States, and from it, were such our duty, many lessons could be drawn. It cannot have escaped the reader, for instance, upon what comparatively trivial incidents did the fate of that great institution depend. Suppose, for example, that instead of remaining passive, on the amendment opening the field for the choice of president of the bank to the whole body of the directors, Mr. Calhoun, with a majority behind him, had resisted the charge. It may not be too much to say, that the history of the country would have been materially altered. That long and anxious conflict, conducted, on the one hand, by the president of the United States, and, on the other, by the president of the bank, which tore the country asunder with two factions, equally powerful and bitter, would never have occurred. The charges under which the bank labored, of having meddled in politics, would never have been made, by the executive, at least, because, whatever interests the head of the bank might have, would be identical with those of the head of the country. Or, on the other hand, if the proposition made by Mr. Mason, of New Hampshire, requiring the first instalment to be 10 instead of 5 per cent, had been adopted, the early errors of the bank, under Mr. Jones' administration, partially remedied as they were by Mr. Cheves, but fostered again into dangerous luxuriance under Mr. Biddle's management, would have been in a great measure prevented. Loose, indeed, as the charter was, it is a matter of wonder, when we consider the irregular state of parties at the time it passed, that it was not still looser. There never was a public measure that experienced such variety of treatment from both friends and foes. At one time earnestly espoused by the federalists, and as warmly attacked by their opponents, at another, dropped by its old friends, and taken up by its old enemies, it seemed to have evaded the rules of party discipline, and to have raised itself above the most salutary laws of legislative action. The majority, we observe from the preceding pages, when once determined to change their policy and to adopt a bank, found their tongues tied when the measure was brought on the carpet, and voted for the bill whole. The minority were barred from opposing a measure which they once had so warmly advocated. In a succeeding number, we propose to enter into a fuller view of the condition of parties which is thus presented, not only as connected with the bank question, but with the system of internal improvements and the tariff, which were in the same Congress adopted.

F. W.

ART. II.—IMPENDING REVOLUTIONS IN THE COMMERCIAL INTER-COURSE OF THE WORLD.*

Two great revolutions in the commercial intercourse of the globe appear to be impending, which cannot fail to be attended with the most important consequences to the progress of civilization. These are—

1st. The re-opening the ancient route between Europe and the East Indies, by Egypt and the Red sea, which must inevitably result from the improvements in steam navigation and the founding a new Mahomedan dynasty on the banks of the Nile.

2d. The opening a new route from Europe and the United States to the East Indies and the western coasts of America, by an artificial communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, across the isthmus which connects the two continents of North and South America.

The vast importance of the latter to the world in general cannot admit of a question; and its importance to the United States is enhanced by the increased facilities which the construction of a canal such as that originally attempted to be established by the Ptolemies across the Isthmus of Suez must give to the commercial intercourse of Europe and Asia. From the earliest ages of human history the commerce of India has been regarded as the perennial source of wealth and surest basis of maritime power. Venice and Genoa carried it on by Egypt and the Black Sea. When Vasco de Gamo discovered the new route by the Cape of Good Hope, these flourishing commercial republics fell from their high and palmy state of prosperity. The most strenuous efforts are now making to re-open these old channels of trade, and discover new routes into the heart of Asia. Lines of steamers are established from Marseilles and Trieste to Alexandria and Beyrout. Other lines descend the Danube, now connected with the Rhine by the Ludwig canal, and from thence sail across the Black sea to Trebizond. The rulers of the Austrian empire are not slumbering, as many suppose, but are deeply considering how its vast natural resources may be best developed by the application of steam-power by land and by sea. When the railroad communication shall have been completed from Vienna to Trieste, the Mediterranean, the Black sea, the Baltic, and the German ocean will be completely knit together; and Central and Northern Europe will have the choice of three routes to the East—by the Rhine, the Danube, and the Black sea; by the Euphrates and the Persian Gulf; and by the Rhine, the Danube, the Adriatic, the Nile, and the Red sea. Great Britain, France, Russia, and Germany are all striving to outstrip each other in this race. Europe seeks to avoid the lengthened route round the Cape of Good Hope by connecting the Mediterranean with the Red sea and the Persian gulf. We must seek to avoid the lengthened route round Cape Horn by connecting the Caribbean sea with the Pacific ocean. The French engineers who planned the canal across the Isthmus of Suez during Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt, calculated that it would save one-third the distance and one-fifth the time in navigating from the southern ports of France to the East Indies. The

* A Letter from the Hon. H. WHEATON, United States Minister at Berlin, addressed to J. MARKOE, Jr., Esq., Corresponding Secretary of the National Institute at Washington.

United States would save at least 10,000 miles of distance and a proportional amount of time in their navigation to the northwest coast of America and to China by substituting the route across the isthmus which connects the two American continents for that round Cape Horn. The opening a water communication from one sea to the other, somewhere between the Gulf of Mexico and the Gulf of Darien, thus becomes of vital importance to us. Our national interests, commercial, political, and social, are all deeply involved in the question. The necessity of competing with other rival nations for the new trade now opening with the Celestial empire, from which the veil of mystery has been rudely torn; of extending our established commerce with the western coasts of the two American continents and the Polynesian archipelago; of giving increased facilities to the whale-fishery, and of establishing a more direct communication with our territories beyond the Rocky mountains and our naval stations in the Pacific ocean: all these circumstances combine to augment the importance and urgency of this great question. A new and increased interest has been given to the subject by the measures adopted at the last session of Congress for establishing diplomatic intercourse with China and the independent isles of the Pacific; by the vast schemes of colonization already in a train of execution by Great Britain in Australasia and New Zealand; and by the recent discussion in the French Chambers upon those planned by France. It is not meant that our government should seek exclusive advantages for itself or its citizens. Such great artificial communications between the continents of both hemispheres ought to be free, like the natural passages of the straits, the sounds, the gulfs, and the great rivers which wash the shores of different countries; and for this purpose these works ought to be considered as held in trust by the nation within whose territory they may be constructed for the common use of all mankind. There is surely enough of the spirit of mutual concession, of respect for the public law of the civilized world, and of political wisdom among the maritime powers principally interested, to devise regulations by which the passage, once marked out and rendered practicable by the construction of artificial works, may be neutralized and enjoyed in common by all nations, upon the payment of moderate and reasonable tolls, according to the principles laid down by the Congress of Vienna in respect to the navigation of the great European rivers.

The illustrious philosopher to whom we are so much indebted for our knowledge of the geography of the American continents, in speaking more than five and thirty years ago on this subject, of which he has never since lost sight, uses the following emphatic expressions: "When a canal of communication shall unite the two oceans, the productions of Nootka sound and of China will be brought nearer to Europe and the United States by more than two thousand leagues. Then, and then only, will mighty changes be effected in the political state of Oriental Asia; for this narrow tongue of land, against which the waves of the Atlantic have so long beat in vain, has been for ages the bulwark of the independence of China and Japan."*

Such, then, being the vast magnitude and urgency of this question, I

* Humboldt, *Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome i., p. 242. Second edition. The first edition was published in 1808.

have thought that a concise summary of the present state of our information respecting it, so far as it may be derived from sources accessible here, might not be without interest to the members of the Institute at the present moment, and might perhaps lead to further more successful inquiries in other directions.

It is well known with what intense and painful anxiety the great Columbus sought to find a passage through the vast continent discovered by him to the land of Cathay, which was the original object of his first voyage of discovery, and was never relinquished as his ultimate aim. In 1523 the Emperor Charles V., in a letter written from Valladolid to Cortez, enjoined upon him carefully to search on the eastern and western shores of West Spain for "the secret of a strait," (*el secreto del estrecho*,) of which Cortez himself had spoken in one of his previous despatches to the emperor, and which it was supposed would shorten by two-thirds the route from Cadiz to the East Indies, then called the "land of spices." The conqueror of Mexico, in his answer to the emperor, speaks with the most glowing enthusiasm of the probability of such a discovery: "which," says he, "would render your majesty master of so many kingdoms that you might consider yourself lord of the world." It was in the attempt to find a shorter route to the East Indies than that by the Cape of Good Hope that Magellan discovered the passage round Cape Horn and through the straits which bear his name; whilst Cortez spent the remainder of his restless life in vain endeavors to the same end. After the great things he had achieved in the conquest of Mexico, the accidental discovery of the gulf and peninsula of California could hardly be considered as an adequate compensation for the toils he endured in these maritime expeditions.

Since it has been completely ascertained that there is no natural passage by sea through the continents to be found from the Arctic sea to the Straits of Magellan, various points have been indicated by which an artificial communication might be opened between the two oceans. Five of these points are enumerated by the illustrious Humboldt, as follows:—

1. The Isthmus of Tehuantepec, between the sources of the Rio Chimalapa, which falls into the Pacific, and the Rio del Passo, which falls into the Rio Huasacualco, which last falls into the Atlantic.

2. The Isthmus of Nicaragua, between the Lake of Nicaragua, forming the source of the Rio San Juan, which falls into the Atlantic, and the Gulf of Papagayo on the Pacific.

3. The Isthmus of Panama.

4. The Isthmus of Darien, or Capica.

5. The Isthmus between the river Atrato, which falls into the Atlantic, and the Rio Choco, which falls into the Pacific.*

1. The Isthmus of Tehuantepec is formed, between the 16th and 18th degrees of N. latitude, by the Rio Chimalapa flowing into the Gulf of the Tehuantepec on one side, and the Rio del Passo, which afterwards becomes the Rio Huasacualco, or Goascoalcas, into the Gulf of Mexico, on the other. It has been pretended that these rivers are sometimes swollen by the rains, so as to admit of a passage for Indian batteux from sea to sea, like those temporary communications which are sometimes

* Humboldt, voyage, &c., tome ix., p. 209. *Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome i., p. 209, 237.

formed between the waters of the Mississippi and those of Lakes Erie and Michigan. Be this as it may, it is certain that a commercial communication has long been carried on through this valley across the isthmus, and especially at those periods of war when the trade of Vera Cruz was interrupted by military and naval operations. The mouth of the Rio Huasacualco forms the best harbor known to exist at the mouth of any river on the Gulf of Mexico; it being well known that Pensacola is situated on a bay. This river has eighteen or twenty feet of water on the bar at its mouth. It is navigable for eight leagues to the Passo de la Fabrica, where it is joined by the Rio del Passo, and where the cargoes are taken out, and transported in boats fifteen leagues higher up to the Passo de la Puerta, at which place the river ceases to be navigable with boats. From this place the goods are transported by land to the Bay of Tehuantepec, on the Pacific.

In pursuance of his ardent desire to find "the secret of a strait" through the American continent into the Pacific ocean, Cortez demanded, in 1520, from Montezuma, information concerning the eastern coasts of the empire of Anahuac. The Mexican monarch answered that he was not himself acquainted with those parts, but that he would cause a drawing to be made of the coast, with its bays and rivers, and would furnish the necessary guides to accompany the Spaniards who might be sent to explore the country. The next day the drawing was accordingly brought to Cortez, upon which his pilots recognized the mouth of a great river, which they supposed to be the one they had perceived on the coast, on their first arrival, near the mountains of Sanmyn, in the province of Mazamalco. Guided by these indications, Cortez sent, in 1520, a small detachment under the orders of Diego Ordaz, to reconnoitre this river, which proved to be the Huasacualco, or, as Cortez writes the Mexican word, *Quacalco*. The pilots found only two and a half fathoms of water on the bar at its mouth, but on ascending the river the depth of water increased to five or six fathoms. After the taking of Mexico, the conquest of the province of Tehuantepec was accomplished by Gonzalo de Sandoval in 1521; and although it had been ascertained by the pilots that no strait existed from the coast of Nicaragua to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, this isthmus still continued to be regarded as of great importance, on account of the proximity of the two seas, and the river Huasacualco affording the Spanish *Conquistadores* the facility of transporting from Vera Cruz to the coasts of the Pacific ocean the necessary materials for ship-building. The expedition of Hernando de Grixalva, which sailed for California in 1534, was equipped at Tehuantepec, and the vessels in which Cortez himself sailed from Chametla in 1535 for the same destination were also constructed at the mouth of the Rio Chimalapa, with materials brought from the Gulf of Mexico by the Rio Huasacualco.

From the latter part of the sixteenth century the port of Tehuantepec, which is in fact only an open roadstead, was but little frequented; Aca-pulco became the seat of the commerce between the Spanish American colonies and the Philippine islands; and the galleons used in this trade were built either at San Blas or at Manilla. The sea is found to be fast retreating from the coast of Tehuantepec, the anchorage becomes every year more unsafe, and the bar of sand at the mouth of the Rio Chimalapa is constantly augmenting.

The first exploration of this route for a canal communication between

the Gulf of Mexico and the South sea was occasioned by the accidental discovery, in 1771, of some pieces of bronze cannon in the castle of San Juan d'Uloa, which it was ascertained by their marks had been cast at Manilla. As it was nearly certain that these pieces of artillery could not have been transported to the coast of the Gulf of Mexico by the way of Acapulco, on account of the difficulties of the overland communication over the great Cordilleras of New Spain, nor by the way of Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope, the trade between Vera Cruz and the Philippine islands not being carried on by either of those routes, the conclusion was that they must have found their way by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. This conjecture was verified by the examination of ancient records, and the tradition existing among the inhabitants of the isthmus, that these cannon had been transported from the Pacific by the Rio Chimalapa and the Rio Huasacualco. This fact, thus ascertained, induced the viceroy of Mexico, Don Antonio Bucanelli, to give orders to two engineers, Don Antonio Cramer and Don Miguel del Corral, to examine the isthmus, with a view of ascertaining whether any natural communication already existed by means of rivers whose branches might interlock with each other, and at the same time to determine the practicability of cutting an artificial canal between the Chimalapa and the Huasacualco. Baron Humboldt prepared his map of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec from the report of these engineers, who found that there was no river which discharged its waters at the same time into the Atlantic and the Pacific; that the river Huasacualco did not take its rise, as the viceroy had been assured, near the city of Tehuantepec; but that, in ascending that river above the falls, even to the ancient *Desembarcadero* of Malpasso, the coasts of the Pacific were still twenty-six leagues distant. They observed that a chain of mountains of considerable height divides the waters which flow into the two seas. This small cordillera stretches from east to west from the Cerros de los Mixes, then inhabited by savages, towards the elevated plain of Portillo de Petapa. But the engineer Cramer affirms that to the south of the village of Santa Mareda de Chimalapa the mountains form, not a continuous cordillera, but a group, and that there exists a transversal valley, through which a canal might be constructed, without locks or inclined planes, to communicate between the two seas, at a distance of not more than six leagues in length.*

In the year 1814 the Spanish Cortes, on the motion of Don Lucas Alaman, afterwards Mexican minister of foreign affairs, passed a decree for the construction of such a canal. The subsequent independence of the Spanish-American colonies prevented any measures being taken in execution of this decree; but the government of the United States of Mexico, under the presidency of General Guadalupe Vitoria, appointed a board of commissioners to ascertain the practicability of constructing a canal from the one river to the other, and of removing the obstructions which exist to the navigation of the two rivers by vessels of considerable burden. The result of their investigations showed that the want of a good harbor on the coast of the Pacific at or near the mouth of the Chimalapa, with the great number of rapids in the rivers winding through an isthmus of thirty-eight leagues in breadth, and the intermediate elevations to be surmounted, rendered impracticable the execution of a ship

* Humboldt, *Essai Politique*, tome i., p. 209. Tome iv., pp. 49, 54.

canal at this point, although the commerce already carried on across the isthmus might doubtless be greatly facilitated and extended by means of good roads. The Mexican Congress, therefore, determined on the construction of a new road to connect the upper waters of the Rio Huasacualco with the lagoons to the east of Tehuantepec. It is more than probable that the subsequent unsettled state of the affairs, both internal and external, of the Mexican Republic, has prevented any thing being done towards carrying this resolution into effect.

2. The great Lake of Nicaragua communicates to the east with the Caribbean sea by the river San Juan del Norte. An artificial communication may be opened between the lake and the Pacific ocean by cutting a canal through the isthmus which separates them.

That distinguished Prussian geographer Berghaus, in a memoir published in 1838, and intended to illustrate his beautiful maps of Central America, has traced with the hand of a master the great physical features of this region of the globe.* He refutes the notion constantly repeated in the geographical treatises and maps in ordinary use, according to which the whole extent of this narrowest part of the continent is traversed by a continuous unbroken chain of mountains, without transversal valleys, which bars the passage across the isthmus. This mistaken opinion, which had been already contested by Humboldt, doubtless originated from the long succession of volcanic mountains, which rise along the flat shores of the Pacific, and from which it has been inferred that they stand, as in Chili, Bolivia, and Quito, on the ridge of the Cordillera. In Guatemala this is not the case. The coast of the South sea forms here an alluvial plain of various breadth, from which the volcanic hills rise in insulated groups detached from the back ground of mountains. Such is the character of the volcanic hills between the Lake of Nicaragua and the Pacific ocean.

Instead of this imaginary continuous Cordillera, the mountains of Central America are divided by Berghaus into three distinct systems or groups. The first is the group of Costa Rica; the second that of Nicaragua and Honduras; and the third that of Guatemala.

The first of these is divided from the second by the great transversal valley, of which the Lake of Nicaragua forms the middle point, and which extends from sea to sea. The second is divided from the third by the *Llanura de Comayagua*, another wide transversal valley, which traverses the continent in the meridian of the Gulf of Conchagua, in a direction from northeast to south. This fact, which Humboldt had conjectured in 1825, was verified by Don Juan Galindo ten years later. Through this plain flows the Rio Jagua towards the N. N. E., into the Caribbean sea; and the Rio Sirano, or San Miguel, into the Gulf of Conchagua, on the Pacific. Both these streams are navigable by batteaux.

On the Isthmus of Panama, between the river Chagres and the coast of the Pacific, and westwardly from the mouth of the Chagres along the shores of the Atlantic, nothing is to be seen rising above the plain but hills of moderate elevation. But when the traveller reaches the meridian of the Rio Coclet, about seven leagues from the coast of the Caribbean sea, he encounters the lofty mountains known to mariners by the name of the *Cordillera de Veragua*. This group may be descried in clear weather at a distance of thirty-six leagues at sea. Humboldt conjectures its highest point of elevation to be about fourteen hundred toises. Among

* Berghaus, *Annalen der Erd-Völker and Staatenkunde*, 3te Reihe, B'd V. s. 221.

these mountains takes its rise the Rio Belem, at the mouth of which Columbus established, in 1502, the first European colony ever planted on the American continent. Under the parallel of $8^{\circ} 25'$ north latitude begin the secondary highlands of Costa Rica, which form an elevation of about eight hundred toises, and gradually decline in successive terraces, girt with volcanoes, until they sink down to the level of the Lake of Nicaragua.

The third group of mountains described by Berghaus is that of Guatemala, which fills the whole western part of Central America and the eastern States of Mexico to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, before noticed. The whole coast of the Bay of Honduras, from the meridian of the island of Utila to the parallel of the Balize, is girt with lofty mountains. Captain Owen determined the height of the Congrehoy peak to be eleven hundred and seventy toises, and that of Omoa one thousand and ninety-five toises above the level of the sea. The Balize river burst forth from these mountains in foaming cataracts. In one place the stream is arched over by a natural bridge, through which it rushes over a waterfall of from forty to fifty feet high. Many other rivers along the coast are adorned with similar natural grottoes, through which they pass on their way to the sea. Along the coast run two ridges, one of which is called the Pine ridge, and the other the Cahoun ridge. The first forms a vast, boundless, natural park of pines, shooting from the soft verdant turf. The second is crowned with a wood of gigantic forest trees of various descriptions, besides the mahogany, (*swietenia mahagoni*,) which forms the principal wealth of this region. Through this wilderness a single path leads up a narrow valley to the Lake of Peten, on the northern prolongation of the table-land of Guatemala. The Rio Montagua forms another deep-sunken valley, which conducts first to the old and then to the new city of Guatemala; which last, according to Thompson, stands only eighteen hundred feet above the level of the sea. But the cities of Guatemala do not stand on the highest point of land. Still more lofty are the mountains of Chemaltenango with their magnificent scenery; and higher still the mountain plains of Sosola, Quetsaltenango, and Tonicapan. On these plains wheat and other bread stuffs are cultivated in perfection. Here is the highest point of elevation, called by the natives themselves "the highlands." Here, too, is the central region of volcanic fires. The two ranges of these volcanic mountains, called the *volcanos de los Amilpas*, run along the very edge of the table-land. According to Captain Basil Hall's observations, these mountains rise about two thousand toises above the level of the sea. As in the east towards Honduras, so in the west towards the Gulf of Tehuantepec, the plain is girt with a chain of mountains, from which the Rio Umusiata bursts forth, and running north, after passing a single cataract, becomes navigable quite into the Gulf of Mexico.

To return to the Lake of Nicaragua. The isthmus which divides that lake from the port of San Juan del Sud, on the Pacific ocean, is said to be about seventeen English miles in breadth. According to the observations made by the Spanish engineer Galisteo, in 1781, the level of the Nicaragua lake is one hundred and thirty-four feet above the Pacific ocean.* The elevation of this basin above the neighboring seas is a fact so well known that it has been considered by some as an invincible obstacle to the execution of a ship canal at this place. It has been apprehended that it might occasion a sudden rushing of the waters to the west-

* Humboldt, voyage, &c., tome xi., p. 120. Note.

ward, or a diminution of the waters in the Rio San Juan, the navigation of which is impeded by several rapids. Even supposing a considerable permanent difference between the two seas, which, as it will be hereafter shown, does not exist, the art of the engineer would easily apply a remedy for the apprehended danger of inundation, by means of locks, whilst the lake would serve as a reservoir to supply both the canal and the river.

A series of tables is given in Thompson's Travels in Guatemala of levels, repeated at intervals not exceeding one hundred yards apart, between the southern shore of Lake Nicaragua and the Gulf of Papagayo, from which the author infers the elevation of the surface of the lake above the Pacific ocean to be one hundred and thirty-three feet eleven and a half inches; and the greatest height of any part of the intervening land to be only nineteen feet one inch above the lake. But Mr. Mercer has shown, in his report made to the house of representatives in 1839, that Thompson mistakes the true import of the table in substituting the comparative elevation of two contiguous stations on the long series of levels for the highest rise above the lake. For the first nine miles and seven hundred yards from the Pacific, the ground is not found to rise above the level of the lake. The difficulties attending the construction of a continuous canal on this route are confined to the seven or eight miles next to the lake; for about six miles of which the ground rises to an elevation exceeding sixty feet, for two miles of the six it averages one hundred and thirty-five feet, and for one-third of a mile one hundred and fifty feet. If the level of the lake be assumed for the summit of a canal, there must be added to the elevation above mentioned an excavation of the depth of the channel for navigation.

Besides this communication from Lake Nicaragua to the Gulf of Papagayo, there is a possible choice of two others: 1st. By the adjoining Lake of Leon or Montagua, by the Rio de Tosta, which flows from the volcanic mountain of Telica.* 2d. From Lake Nicaragua to the Gulf of Nicoya or Caldera.†

There seems to be no doubt of Lake Nicaragua being sufficiently deep for ship navigation. The river San Juan, which has its source in the lake, runs southeasterly, and discharges itself into the Caribbean sea in the latitude of 10° 45' north and 86° west longitude from Paris. The bar at the mouth of the river has not more than twelve feet of water on it, and it is stated by Mr. Robinson that one of the passages would admit a vessel drawing twenty-five feet. After the bar is passed, there is excellent and safe anchorage in four and six fathoms. The accounts as to the difficulties attending the navigation of the Rio San Juan, from rapids and sand bars, are somewhat contradictory; but it seems probable that these obstacles might be overcome by artificial works, so as to render that river navigable for large vessels in its whole course.

Soon after the independence of Central America was declared in 1824, negotiations were entered into between the republic and several associations in the United States and England for the construction of a canal from Lake Nicaragua to the South sea, and for improving the navigation of the Rio San Juan. These negotiations finally terminated in a charter, granted in 1826 for this purpose by the Federal Congress of the Republic

* See some observations on this route by Chevalier Frierichsthal in the journal of the Geographical Society of London, vol. ix., part i., p. 76.

† And not from the Lake of Leon to the Gulf of Nicoya, as Mr. Robinson erroneously asserts.

to Mr. Palmer, of New York, and his associates. This contract not having been carried into effect, another grant was made for the same purpose in 1830 to a Dutch company, under the patronage of the late king of Holland. The events consequent upon the Belgic revolution, which occurred in the same year, also prevented any measures being taken to carry into execution this arrangement.

3. The possibility of opening a canal communication between the two oceans across the Isthmus of Panama, has occupied the minds of men almost ever since it was traversed for the first time, and the Pacific ocean was discovered by the intrepid and adventurous Vasco Nunes de Balboa. During the three centuries which have elapsed since this memorable epoch, neither the relative height of the two oceans, nor the elevation of the highlands between them, nor the geographical points of the isthmus had been, until very recently, determined with any approach to mathematical accuracy. From very ancient times, the prevailing opinion of mankind had assumed the hypothesis that of two adjacent seas, separated by a narrow isthmus, the level of one must necessarily be higher than that of the other. This supposition of the ancient geographers has been found correct as to the elevation of the Red sea above that of the Mediterranean. The Pacific ocean at the Isthmus of Panama was also formerly supposed to be considerably higher than the Atlantic. This opinion was long since contested by Baron von Humboldt, and his conclusions have been recently confirmed by the actual observations of Mr. Lloyd, made with the greatest accuracy and care in 1828-29 by order of General Bolivar.

As before noticed, it has been hitherto generally supposed that the mountains which traverse the Isthmus of Panama form a continuation of the Cordillera of the Andes, or a connecting link between that and the great chain of the Mexican and Rocky mountains. Mr. Lloyd has also confirmed the antecedent theory of Humboldt in this respect, and shown that the continuity of the chain is twice broken in its passage throughout the isthmus connecting the two continents. It ceases in Nicaragua, but again rears its lofty summits in the province of Veragua, (as we have seen from Berghaus,) where it is crowned with an extensive plain called La Mesa. In the eastern part of this province it breaks into detached mountains of considerable height, and of the most abrupt and rugged formation. Thence proceeding still to the eastward, innumerable conical hills lift their heads three or four hundred feet high, with their bases surrounded by level plains and savannahs. Finally, about Chagres, on the Atlantic side, and the Bay of Chorrera, on the Pacific, these hills also disappear, and the country for a few miles in extent sinks into low and level plains. Again these conical hills rise, and, becoming collected, form a small cordillera, running from about Porto Bello to the Bay of Mandingo, where occurs the second break of the continuity of the mountain chain.*

The Rio Chagres, which falls into the Caribbean sea to the west of Porto Bello, and at the mouth of which lies the town of Chagres, though obstructed in its ascent by sand-banks and rapids, is navigable for vessels drawing from five to six feet of water, to Cruces, about sixteen English miles in a direct line from Panama. From the mouth of the river to its junction with the Rio Trinidad, a distance of twenty-four miles, the Chagres

* Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 1830-31, vol. i., p. 70.

has a depth of from twenty-two to thirty feet, unless on some few spots where only sixteen are found, which, however, have deep water close to them. This depth, too, is not a channel, but extends to the whole width of the river, which is from two hundred to two hundred and eighty feet wide. But this river is subject to the great inconvenience that vessels drawing more than twelve feet of water cannot enter the mouth of the river at the port of Chagres, on account of a stratum of slaty limestone, which runs at high water at a depth of fifteen feet from a point on the main land, near the castle of San Lorenzo, to some rocks in the middle of the entrance of the harbor; and which, together with a lee current setting on the southern shore, particularly in the rainy season, renders the entrance extremely difficult and dangerous. This difficulty may be obviated by substituting for the harbor of Chagres the Bay of Lemon, or Navy bay, which lies to the eastward of the town, and the coves of which afford excellent and secure anchorage in its present state, and the entire bay is capable of being rendered one of the most safe and commodious harbors in the world. This bay is approached so near by the river Chagres that it may easily be united with it by a canal something less than three English miles in length over a flat country.*

The Spanish engineers who had proposed to the Court of Madrid, as early as 1528, the establishment of a water communication across the isthmus by the river Chagres, intended to commence the artificial canal at Cruces, and conduct it from thence to Panama, over a country with the difficulties of which they do not appear to have made themselves sufficiently acquainted. The Rio Chagres is joined considerably below Cruces by another river called the Trinidad, coming from the south, which some consider as the main stream, and whose head waters approach very near to the Bay of Chorrera, lying to the west of Panama on the Pacific. The eastern part of the isthmus, on the line from Panama to the mouth of the Chagres, is narrower, but the country is much more broken and elevated in that direction. Mr. Lloyd therefore concludes that the valley of the Rio Trinidad affords the most favorable route for a canal, which would unite the lower Chagres with the waters which fall into the Bay of Chorrera. But his observations were principally directed to the object of opening a communication across the isthmus by means of railroads, and incidentally to determine the difference of levels between the two oceans. For this purpose he began his operations by taking a series of levellings between Panama and the upper Chagres, on the old road to Porto Bello. At the point where the road crosses the river, twenty-two and three-quarter miles distant from Panama, he found the elevation to be 169.84 100 feet above the level of high-water mark in the Pacific, the greatest intermediate height passed over being 633.32 100 feet. He then descended the river to Cruces, and found in his route a total fall in the river of 114.60 100 feet, being only 37.96 100 feet above the Pacific. From this place the river gradually descends to the level of the Atlantic.

The results of the observations made by Mr. Lloyd show, first, that the mean height of the Pacific at the port of Panama is 3.52 100 feet higher than that of the Atlantic at the mouth of the river Chagres. Secondly, at high water, the time of which is nearly the same on both sides of the isthmus, the Pacific is raised at mean tides 10.61 100 feet, and the

* Lloyd, Philosophical Transactions, 1830, pt. i., p. 67.

Atlantic fifty-eight hundredths of a foot above their respective mean levels. The Pacific is therefore the highest at these periods. Thirdly, at low-water mark both seas are the same quantities below their respective levels. Therefore at such times the Pacific is lower than the Atlantic.

In every twelve hours, therefore, and commencing with high tides, the level of the Pacific is several feet higher than that of the Atlantic; it becomes then of the same height, and at low tide is several feet lower: again, as the tide rises, the two seas are of one height, and finally at high tide the Pacific is again the same number of feet above the Atlantic as at first.*

A separate plan of the river Chagres, from its mouth to the point where it was intersected by the levellings, was communicated by Mr. Lloyd to the Royal Society of London; but this plan has not been published, and the plan of the river, contained in the general map of the isthmus, does not give the soundings. The two lines for railroads explored by that engineer, extending from the junction of the Trinidad with the Chagres, the one to Panama, and the other (much shorter) to the Bay of Chorrera, are marked on the published map; but the series of levellings in this direction is not given. The country intersected by these lines is interspersed with savannahs, and presents along the banks of the Trinidad a wide vale of flat and swampy land, with occasional detached conical hills and small streams, most of which fall into the Chagres. The number of these streams to be crossed, which are swollen in the rainy season, would present a serious impediment to the construction of a permanent railroad, but would in the same degree favor that of a canal in this direction.

The government of the United States, under its different administrations since the independence of Spanish America, has never ceased to take a deep interest in the question of a canal communication between the two oceans. In the letter of instructions given in 1826 by Mr. Clay, then secretary of state, to our plenipotentiaries appointed to attend the Congress of Panama, reference is had to a correspondence on this subject between him and the minister of Central America, and it was stated that if the work should ever be executed so as to admit of the passage of sea-vessels, the benefits of it ought not to be exclusively appropriated to any one nation, but should be extended to all parts of the globe, upon the payment of a just compensation or reasonable tolls. Our ministers were consequently directed to state to the ministers of the other American powers, that the government of the United States took a lively interest in the accomplishment of the work, and would attentively examine any proposals that might be made, or plans that might be suggested for its joint execution, with an earnest desire to reconcile the interests and views of all the American nations.

In 1835 a resolution passed the senate, by which the president of the United States was requested to consider the expediency of opening negotiations with the governments of other nations, and particularly with the governments of Central America and New Granada, for the purpose of effectually protecting, by treaty stipulations with them, such individuals or companies as might undertake to open a communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans, by the construction of a ship canal across the isthmus which connects North and South America; and of securing

* Philosophical Transactions, 1830, Part 1, pp. 62, 63.

forever, by such stipulations, the free and equal right of navigating such canal to all nations, on the payment of such reasonable tolls as might be established to compensate the capitalists who might engage in such undertaking and complete the work.

Under this resolution President Jackson immediately appointed Colonel Charles Biddle as an agent to make the necessary preliminary observations and inquiries, both of the Isthmus of Nicaragua and that of Panama, with reference to the opening a communication either by canals or railroads. This agent visited the latter only, and decided, on what appear to be very insufficient grounds, in favor of a railroad, as being preferable to a canal, as the means of accomplishing the desired purpose.

In the mean time the Congress of New Granada granted to an adventurer named Baron Thierry the privilege of opening a ship canal to unite the waters of the Chagres with those of the Rio Grande, which falls into the bay of Panama, by means of the small river Obispo, a branch of the Chagres. No measures were subsequently taken to execute this grant, which appears to have become obsolete.

In this state of things the subject was again taken up, in 1839, in the house of representatives of the United States, on the memorial of the merchants of New York and Philadelphia, on which a very elaborate report was made by Mr. Mercer, from the committee on roads and canals, accompanied with documents and maps illustrative of this important subject. The report concluded with proposing a resolution, that the president "should be requested to consider the expediency of opening or continuing negotiations with the governments of other nations, and particularly with those the territorial jurisdiction of which comprehends the Isthmus of Panama, and to which the United States have accredited ministers or agents, for the purpose of ascertaining the practicability of effecting a communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, by the construction of a ship canal across the isthmus; and of securing forever, by suitable treaty-stipulations, the free and equal right of navigating such canal to all nations." This resolution was agreed to by the house.

I am not informed what measures were taken by our government under this resolution, but it appears that the government of New Granada had already made, in the year 1838, a grant to a French house of trade, under the firm of Salomon, Talie & Co., of the privilege of constructing either macadamized roads, or railroads, or canals, across the isthmus. It is also stated that the house in question has already constructed a road from the Bay of Chorrera to the junction of the Rio Trinidad with the Rio Chagres; has formed an association with another house in England; and has ascertained by actual levellings the practicability of constructing a ship canal, to connect the Rio Chagres with the Rio Grande, by a newly-discovered route, on which the summit level does not exceed forty feet. This canal, it is said, will require no locks, but will form by an open cut an artificial strait from sea to sea, of sufficient dimensions to admit the largest vessels. I confess myself at a loss to reconcile this statement, so far as respects the alleged results of the surveys made by the engineers employed by this association, with Baron von Humboldt's letter to Mr. Salomon, dated August 1, 1842, an extract from which was read in the Chamber of Deputies by Mr. Guizot on the 10th of June of the present year. In this letter Baron von Humboldt refers to the advice he had formerly given to the British embassy at Paris, to cause a competent engineer to be sent

from Jamaica to explore the isthmus, with a view to ascertain the practicability of the new route in question, and express his regret that nothing had been done in consequence of this advice: "I am sorry to learn," says he, "that you are no further advanced in your interesting undertaking than you were when I had the pleasure to see you in my last visit to Paris. Five and twenty years have now elapsed since the project of a communication between the two oceans, either by the Isthmus of Panama, the Lake of Nicaragua, or the Isthmus of Cupica, has been proposed and discussed topographically; but nothing towards realizing this project has yet even been commenced. I should have thought that the English embassy might have found the means of inspiring confidence, by proposing to send a man of science, (an engineer,) in order to study the valley which separates the two seas, and along which the canal might be cut to the western part of the port of Chagres. Be persuaded that those persons who make use of the authority of my name to support the idea that the two seas are not on a level, only do so in order to excuse themselves from engaging in the undertaking."

M. Guizot also refers in his speech to a communication made by our countryman, Mr. Warden, on this subject, to the Academy of Sciences on the 26th of December, 1842, which, however, must relate to some other project than that of the French and English association, as Mr. W. speaks of a ship canal to unite the small rivers which fall into the Bay of Chorrera with the Atlantic by some route which is not explained, but which would require *the use of locks*. M. Guizot draws no other conclusion from these different statements than the very reasonable one as to the possibility, and even probability, of the project of a ship canal at the Isthmus of Panama being realized; from which he very justly infers the most important consequences as inevitably to result in respect to the commercial relations between Europe and Asia. At the same time, the French minister cautiously abstains from expressing an opinion as to the manner of proceeding in order to accomplish a design so important to the French, English, and Dutch insular possessions in the Pacific ocean. He only admonishes the chamber of the necessity that France should not remain an indifferent spectator, at a moment when Great Britain had already taken a position in Central America upon all the points where the passage might be cut: in the Gulf of Honduras, on the Mosquito shore, and more recently at the isle of Moatan. Not that she sought to appropriate solely to herself the undertaking, but in order to be the first to profit by it, and to derive from it the greatest possible advantages. This admonition applies with equal force to the United States, who have still greater interests at stake in the question than France, and indeed than any other nation. The fair conclusion seems to be, that it can only be satisfactorily settled by the cordial co-operation of the three great maritime powers.

In order fully to understand the description of the two last possible communications between the two oceans enumerated by Humboldt, it is necessary to state that the great Cordillera of the Andes, as it approaches the isthmus which unites the two American continents, divides itself, under the second degree of north latitude, at the knot of mountains which contain the sources of the Rio Magdalena, into three separate mountain chains. The first of these stretches to the northeast between the Lake of Maracaibo and the city of Valencia, and unites with the Cordillera

running along the coast of Venezuela. The second, or middle chain, (that of Panama, Guanacas, and Quindia,) divides the valley of the Rio Cauca from that of the Magdalena, extends itself in a northern direction, and fastens itself in the province of Antioquia on to the most western chain of New Granada, which gradually sinks down and disappears between the left bank of the Rio Atrato and the coast of the Pacific. In this ridge is included the highest peak of the Andes north of the equator—that of Tolima, which is 17,200 feet above the level of the sea. The third, or western chain, is that of Choco, on the west side of the Rio Cauca, which approaches so near to the second as to leave only a narrow rocky bed for the escape of this river to the sea. From its declivities flow the Rio Atrato (also called the Rio Grande del Darien, Rio Dabeiba, and Rio del Choco) northward into the Gulf of Darien, and the Rio Noanama (commonly called the San Juan) south into the Pacific ocean. As the mountains approach the Isthmus of Darien, they gradually sink down towards the coast of the Pacific into a level plain. The mountains of the Isthmus of Panama may, by their direction and geographical position, be considered as a continuation of the mountains of Antioquia and Choco; but there is hardly a single ridge or elevation to be found in the plains to the west of the lower Atrato.*

4. The fourth possible communication, then, is by the Isthmus of Darien. To the southeast of Panama, following the coasts of the Pacific ocean, lie the bay and port of Cupica. At the time when Humboldt wrote, the geographical position of Cupica was very uncertain; but Berghaus has since shown, by the analysis of various astronomical observations, that it lies in seven degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and $80^{\circ} 6' 3''$ west longitude from Paris.† From Cupica the traveller passes over a flat country (*terreno enteramente Hano*) very proper for the excavation of a canal, which, at the distance of five or six leagues, would unite with the river Naipi or Naipepi, which joins near the village of Zittara, the great river Atrato, which flows into the Gulf of Darien. The navigation of the Naipi is impeded by cataracts and rapids, which, according to Captain Cochrane, would require a lateral canal to avoid them.‡ The great chain of the Andes is here entirely broken off, and sinks first into hills, and then into a level plain between the Bay of Cupica and the mouth of the Atrato. But it would require a much more accurate knowledge of the country than we at present possess to determine the practicability of constructing a ship canal in this direction.

5. The fifth and last of these communications which might possibly be effected is that which would pass through the transversal valley formed by the two rivers Atrato and San Juan. I am wrong in saying *possibly*, since a communication by water between the two oceans already exists in this direction. In the year 1788 the curate of the village of Novida caused to be dug, by the labor of the Indians his parishioners, the little canal of *Raspadura*, in the ravine of that name, which is often filled by the natural inundation of the neighboring waters. This canal conducts into the small river Quibdo, which, after being joined by several other streams, forms the Atrato, which falls into the Gulf of Darien, whilst the

* Humboldt, *Essai Politique*, tome i., pp. 233, 234.

† *Annalen*, 3te Reipe, 5 B'd. s. 501.

‡ Cochrane's *Travels in Columbia*, vol. ii., p. 448.

Rio Noanama or San Juan empties into the Pacific ocean. The two seas are thus already joined together by a combined natural and artificial communication between two points distant from each other about seventy-five French leagues. This canal, in its present state, is only navigable for small boats, but might doubtless be enlarged in a country where there is such an abundant supply of water from the constant rains which prevail throughout the year.* We have no accurate account of the elevations from actual observations, but the position of the canal in the heart of the country, its great distance from the coast, and the frequent rapids and cataracts to be encountered in passing the long distance from one ocean to another, seem to constitute insurmountable obstacles to the opening a passage in this quarter for vessels of large burden.

The result to be deduced from the above geographical inquiry seems, therefore, to leave no other choice than that between the Isthmus of Nicaragua and the Isthmus of Panama as the medium of canal communication between the two oceans.

The reasons for preferring a ship canal to one which would require a transhipment of the cargoes of the vessels navigating each ocean, or to a railroad, which would require the goods to be landed and stored in order to their transportation across the isthmus, cannot be better stated than in the following words of a recent English traveller: "Another consideration, in my opinion, is also indispensable to the success and utility of this undertaking, viz., that the canal should be made of a capacity sufficient to admit merchant vessels to pass through without discharging their cargoes. To make a canal for boats, or on any other scale than to permit vessels to pass on to the ulterior destination of the goods, would be entirely nugatory; the expense and delay of transporting the cargoes by boats in such a country as that through which the canal passes, would be very great, and the loss by periodical rains, robbery by an ill-regulated population, and a thousand causes, would counterbalance all other advantages; but the principal difficulty and expense would be to procure vessels in the Pacific to prosecute the remaining part of the voyage. On this ocean, at present, the freights paid for vessels are most exorbitant; and, from the nature of the coasts in the neighborhood of the canal, which are all unhealthy and unfit for the creation or maintenance of a marine, no improvement of consequence is to be expected. It would result in the case supposed of a mere boat canal, that after a cargo had been forwarded to the eastern entrance of the canal and transmitted to the Pacific by boats, the time that might elapse before a vessel could be procured to proceed with this cargo to China or other destination, would be more and the expense greater than if the original vessel had proceeded directly round the Cape of Good Hope. It has been lately much recommended to make a railroad from Porto Bello to Panama, or somewhere in that vicinity; but the foregoing objections apply with as much force to this project as to a canal for boats, and I should consider such an undertaking utterly useless in a commercial point of view. If, on the contrary, the canal was made capable of admitting vessels to pass through with their cargoes, the delay would be very small and the expense trifling. Asia would be thereby brought by one-half nearer to Europe, and the passage to all the west coast of America and the Pacific islands short-

* Humboldt, *Essai Politique*, tome i., p. 235.

ened in a still greater degree. This revolution in the commerce with Asia and the Pacific ocean, if it were to happen, would aggrandize the country of which we have been treating (California) in an extraordinary manner; and however distant this era may be, it is not to be supposed that, in the present state of the world, when such rapid progress is making in every thing that is useful, this gigantic improvement will be indefinitely delayed; and particularly when it would appear that the means are but trifling in comparison to the end proposed.”*

Without pretending to enter into the various technical questions which belong to the subject, it may be affirmed that experience has already demonstrated, in several instances, the practicability of constructing a ship canal such as would be sufficient to accomplish the junction of the two oceans either at the Isthmus of Nicaragua or that of Panama.

1. The first example of the kind which may be noticed is that of the Caledonian canal, in the north of Scotland. This canal stretches across the island from northeast to southwest, from a point near Inverness, on the Murray frith, to another near Fort William, on the western coast, opposite to the Isle of Mull. It was constructed by excavations of twenty-one and a half miles in extent, and a lockage of one hundred and ninety feet, connecting a succession of fresh water lakes, the beds and outlets of which were deepened to correspond with the intervening canals. The total length of the canal, including the lakes, is fifty-eight and three-fourth miles. It is twenty feet deep, fifty feet wide at the bottom, and one hundred and twenty-two at the top. The locks are twenty feet deep, one hundred and seventy-two long, and forty broad. Frigates of thirty-two guns and merchant ships of one thousand tons pass through it. The canal was constructed at the expense of government, and cost £986,924 sterling. Baron von Humboldt has noticed the striking analogy which exists between the localities of this stupendous work and those of the Isthmus of Nicaragua. The breadth of the isthmus is about the same with that traversed by the Caledonian canal. The position of the Lake of Nicaragua, and the natural outlet of this lake into the Caribbean sea, present several traits of resemblance with that gorge of the Scottish highlands where the river Ness forms a natural communication between the mountain lochs and the frith of Murray. At Nicaragua, as in the highlands of Scotland, there is only a single isthmus of earth to be cut through; for if the Rio San Juan is from thirty to forty feet deep, as is stated, it will only be necessary to canalize it partially by embankments or lateral cuts.†

2. But the most stupendous work of this kind in Europe, and perhaps in the world, is the ship canal from Amsterdam, in Holland, to Niewdiep, near the Helder, which I have had an opportunity of examining. This canal was constructed by the Dutch government to avoid the inconveniences attending the ordinary navigation from the port of Amsterdam to the German ocean by the Zuyder Zee, which abounds in sand-banks and shallows. The length of the canal is fifty and a half miles; the breadth at the surface of the water is one hundred and twenty-four and a half feet; the breadth at the bottom thirty-six feet; and the depth twenty feet nine inches. Like the Dutch canals generally, its level is that of the highest tides, and it receives its supply of water from the sea. Of course, the only locks it re-

* Forbes, History of California, p. 318.

† Humboldt, Voyage, &c., tome ix., p. 362.

quires are two tide-locks at the two ends ; but there are besides two sluices with flood-gates in the intermediate space. The locks and sluices are double ; that is, there are two in the breadth of the canal. There is a broad towing path on each side; and the canal is wide enough to admit of one frigate passing another. The whole work cost twelve millions of guilders, being something more than the expense of the Caledonian canal, which it far exceeds in the volume of water it contains. But it should be added that, on account of the evenness of the ground it passes through, the difficulties encountered by the engineer were trifling in comparison with those which have been overcome in the highlands of Scotland.

These great hydraulic works show what may be accomplished by the power of man, directed by scientific skill, in overcoming the obstacles interposed by nature to such artificial communications. Here is the true "secret of a strait," which Columbus, Charles V., and Cortez vainly sought to discover.

P. S.—Since the above was written I have received a letter from my friend Mr. Warden, who states the communication made by him to the Academy of Sciences at Paris refers to the route said to have been explored by the association directed by M. Salomon, so that I am more than ever at a loss to reconcile the contradictory statement respecting the results of the surveys in this direction and the nature of the works it is intended to construct.

H. W.

ART. III.—COMMERCE OF CUBA.

IN our number for October, 1842, we entered into an elaborate statement of the trade of the flourishing island of Cuba. Having received the necessary official documents, we will now extend our figures to the close of the year 1842. The imports and exports of the island, united, have been as follows, for a series of years :—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

1833,.....	\$32,597,235	1838,.....	\$45,200,980
1834,.....	33,051,257	1839,.....	46,797,665
1835,.....	34,781,320	1840,.....	50,641,972
1836,.....	37,959,215	1841,.....	51,856,123
1837,.....	43,286,764	1842,.....	51,322,229

These figures embrace a period of ten years, during which, England and the United States have experienced the most violent fluctuations in their external trade. Cuba, on the other hand, has, it appears, steadily advanced in prosperity; and the past year has been the only one, in the whole series, in which a diminution of her trade has taken place. In all the others, a continued advancement is experienced. In the year 1842, a diminution of \$533,793 is evinced in the aggregate trade, of which \$443,881 is in imports, and \$89,912 in exports. This represents the whole consumption of imported goods, and also of island products exported, of which a large quantity has been from warehouse. The whole imports into the island have been less than in 1841 by \$1,278,189; consequently the difference, \$834,308, has been taken out of warehouse for consumption. The exports have also declined \$1,041,158. While the trade of Cuba has evinced this remarkable uniformity and increase in

amount, that of the United States and England have fluctuated enormously. The trade of France, on the other hand, presents the same features as does that of Cuba. The following is a comparison of the aggregate trade of all those countries, reduced to dollars :—

AGGREGATE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FRANCE, GREAT BRITAIN, AND CUBA, FOR SEVERAL YEARS.

Years.	United States.	Great Britain.	France.	Cuba.
1833,.....	\$198,258,744	\$427,049,490	\$273,562,500	\$32,507,235
1834,.....	230,858,305	444,088,010	269,062,500	33,051,257
1835,.....	271,789,319	465,166,060	299,062,500	33,781,320
1836,.....	318,643,075	539,526,220	350,062,500	37,950,215
1837,.....	258,408,593	464,953,820	293,625,000	43,286,764
1838,.....	222,204,020	534,360,460	357,937,500	45,200,980
1839,.....	283,120,548	553,141,600	363,750,000	46,797,665
1840,.....	239,227,465	570,394,970	386,712,500	50,641,972
1841,.....	249,797,980	556,762,925	410,737,500	51,856,123
1842,.....	203,475,298	537,406,890	391,631,250	51,322,229

France and Cuba present a regular annual increase of business. The former shows an increase of the last year over the first, of 50 per cent ; the latter, of 55 per cent ; while Great Britain has increased but 25 per cent, and the United States, after rising 60 per cent in 1836, presents but little increase in 1842 over the year 1832. France and Cuba are possessed of specie currencies, and the other two countries of fluctuating paper currencies ; and the alternations of trade are apparent in the above figures, resulting from the violent vacillations of the paper. The trade of France and Cuba is also acted upon, in some degree, by the paper currencies of England and the United States, according to the extent of the respective commercial transactions. When credit runs high in the United States, the planters of Cuba, tempted by the high prices, are induced to sell their produce on credit to the merchants of this country. The subsequent revulsion, causing failures, throws losses back upon the planters. At the same time, the sudden rise and fall in the prices of sugar and coffee, in their best markets, gives a speculative character to their otherwise sound business. During the past year, the business of Cuba with the United States has been greatly affected by the great reduction which the currency of this country has undergone, and by the imposition of a duty upon sugar by the United States, and some of the South American republics. The change in the currency, however, far more than the tariff, has operated to reduce the Cuban exports to the United States, which is one of its best markets for sugar. The import duties of the four countries give an index of the progress of the consumable articles in each, and in so far indicating the general state of the welfare of the inhabitants. The returns for a corresponding series of years are as follows :—

CUSTOMS DUTIES OF THE UNITED STATES, GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND CUBA.

Years.	United States.	Great Britain.	France.	Cuba.
1833,.....	\$24,132,674	\$156,960,220	\$30,225,105	\$4,244,000
1834,.....	18,960,705	159,360,430	29,428,720
1835,.....	25,890,726	148,080,170	30,410,946,
1836,.....	30,818,327	172,800,326	31,085,751	5,244,000
1837,.....	18,134,131	174,240,220	31,490,663	5,465,000
1838,.....	19,702,825	177,120,980	32,531,520	5,781,230
1839,.....	25,554,533	181,920,330	31,600,114	6,113,503
1840,.....	15,103,790	188,920,000	33,446,791	5,951,798
1841,.....	18,350,220	183,270,000	36,226,678	5,963,813
1842,.....	15,130,000	170,525,000	38,321,230	6,005,632

These duties represent only those imposed upon articles of consumption imported into each country; and, with the exception of the United States, form but a small part of the government revenues. France and Cuba have yearly increased the amount of revenue derivable from this source, while that of the United States and Great Britain have decreased—the latter alarmingly so.

In a former number we explained the nature of the currency of Cuba, and the general manner of doing business on a specie basis. The influx and efflux of the precious metals follows the laws of trade with the most perfect freedom, and there is never an actual scarcity of money; because specie, like any other article, uniformly seeks that country, or its section, where it is of most value, as compared with other products of labor. The following is a table of the imports and exports of the precious metals:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE PRECIOUS METALS TO AND FROM CUBA.

	Imports.			
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Coined gold,.....	\$1,497,408	\$908,108	\$595,780	\$792,124
“ silver,.....	709,770	454,118	185,859	366,646
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$2,207,178	\$1,362,226	\$781,639	\$1,158,770
	Exports.			
Coined gold,.....	\$850,858	\$526,322	\$326,842	\$154,055
“ silver,.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$1,725,803	\$1,053,100	\$1,092,671	\$1,290,661
Excess of imports,...	481,375	209,126
“ exports,...	311,032	131,891

Hence it appears that, for the two last years, there has been an excess of export equal to \$442,923; and in the two former years there was an excess of import equal to \$690,501. The stock in the island has therefore increased \$247,578. In 1842, the imports and exports from and to the United States were as follows:—

Exports of specie to the United States,.....	\$51,357
Imports “ from “	177,120
	<hr/>
Excess of import,.....	\$125,763

We may now take a general view of the trade of the island of Cuba with each country, for a series of years, as presented in the following table of imports and exports from and to each country:—

OFFICIAL RETURN OF THE GOVERNMENT OF CUBA.

Statistics of the Comparative and Aggregate Amount of the Commerce of the Island of Cuba with all Nations.

Years.	IMPORTS.					
	National commerce.	In national vessels.	United States.	England.	Spanish American ports.	France.
1826,.....	\$2,858,793	\$314,683	\$5,632,808	\$1,323,627	\$1,169,451
1827,.....	2,541,322	349,728	7,162,695	1,618,371	1,472,204
1828,.....	4,523,372	431,553	6,599,096	1,770,085	1,635,855
1829,.....	4,961,043	844,826	5,734,765	1,837,775	1,245,947
1830,.....	4,739,776	1,051,538	4,791,544	1,745,388	721,648
1831,.....	4,121,829	1,825,890	4,697,308	1,465,983	669,604
1832,.....	3,576,707	3,178,596	3,542,936	1,257,964	805,824
1833,.....	3,185,781	4,777,580	4,461,472	1,625,173	\$1,371,786	927,491
1834,.....	3,412,487	4,970,013	3,697,101	1,676,918	1,747,224	906,414
1835,.....	3,508,349	5,200,955	5,406,919	1,689,465	2,084,552	904,140
1836,.....	4,470,725	5,680,070	6,553,281	1,522,429	1,579,588	817,445

OFFICIAL RETURN OF THE GOVERNMENT OF CUBA.

Statistics of the Comparative and Aggregate Amount of Commerce, etc.--Continued.

IMPORTS.

Years.	National commerce.	In national vessels.	United States.	England.	Spanish American ports.	France.
1837,.....	\$4,659,153	\$4,966,191	\$6,548,957	\$1,373,964	\$1,099,367	\$861,360
1838,.....	4,460,987	6,163,152	6,202,002	1,439,300	1,713,650	816,954
1839,.....	5,320,515	7,108,704	6,132,794	1,770,499	1,467,125	714,664
1840,.....	5,295,261	6,684,718	5,654,125	1,437,199	915,541	618,461
1842,.....	5,557,351	6,200,221	3,110,698	2,487,894	1,476,752

IMPORTS—Continued.

Years.	Hanse Towns and the Pays Bas.	Ports of the Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	Total.
1826,.....	\$1,631,125	\$16,849	\$218,794	\$1,759,621	\$14,925,754
1827,.....	1,640,011	192,826	309,047	2,066,646	17,352,854
1828,.....	2,082,906	176,027	282,584	2,033,508	19,534,922
1829,.....	1,346,875	87,886	115,293	2,521,442	18,695,856
1830,.....	1,701,358	81,958	102,116	1,236,283	16,171,562
1831,.....	1,808,899	20,632	50,582	895,061	15,548,791
1832,.....	1,918,197	33,843	87,884	796,511	15,198,465
1833,.....	1,145,967	90,931	96,754	828,193	18,511,132
1834,.....	855,363	19,215	151,151	1,134,407	18,563,300
1835,.....	619,211	55,687	145,443	1,107,345	20,722,072
1836,.....	766,959	59,068	92,628	1,009,771	22,551,969
1837,.....	565,048	28,341	95,450	2,639,521	22,940,357
1838,.....	916,498	79,193	64,593	2,873,545	24,729,878
1839,.....	552,078	124,405	36,099	2,087,911	25,217,796
1840,.....	1,010,291	47,914	29,492	3,357,172	24,700,189
1842,.....	3,402,395	188,354	191,464	2,021,394	24,637,527

EXPORTS.

Years.	National commerce.	In national vessels.	United States.	England.	Spanish American ports.	France.
1826,.....	\$1,992,689	\$186,878	\$3,894,597	\$1,583,474	\$1,162,218
1827,.....	2,284,250	184,059	4,107,449	1,605,073	1,043,618
1828,.....	1,556,224	711,479	3,176,964	1,611,820	754,812
1829,.....	2,292,580	562,653	3,191,535	1,729,404	907,808
1830,.....	3,740,747	543,267	4,266,782	1,223,594	757,736
1831,.....	2,193,761	727,338	3,921,592	1,567,720	441,058
1832,.....	2,173,537	993,404	3,108,466	2,101,686	360,099
1833,.....	1,854,714	1,274,404	4,386,885	910,981	\$19,678	531,321
1834,.....	2,074,502	1,401,568	3,824,724	2,080,387	16,214	667,431
1835,.....	1,801,092	1,114,695	4,365,569	1,754,676	10,275	603,985
1836,.....	2,348,453	917,733	5,513,924	1,700,115	36,185	489,654
1837,.....	2,919,474	1,294,282	5,792,623	2,990,466	248,323	1,344,608
1838,.....	2,692,159	1,532,840	5,574,591	3,083,328	30,562	771,572
1839,.....	2,719,792	1,951,785	5,528,045	5,141,098	70,985	845,906
1840,.....	3,473,630	2,044,441	5,660,739	6,749,438	37,219	908,605
1842,.....	3,729,970	5,282,574	9,259,606	301,562	1,617,712

EXPORTS—Continued.

Years.	Hanse Towns and the Pays Bas.	Ports of the Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	Total.
1826,.....	\$2,998,154	\$487,223	\$200,761	\$1,312,839	\$13,809,838
1827,.....	2,651,083	487,288	439,402	1,483,966	14,286,192
1828,.....	2,809,229	783,521	237,289	1,473,020	13,114,362
1829,.....	2,406,813	904,920	303,540	1,653,247	13,952,405
1830,.....	2,448,290	1,035,268	334,137	1,521,144	15,870,968
1831,.....	2,188,299	544,839	443,466	890,644	12,918,711
1832,.....	2,590,813	1,135,525	393,574	737,009	13,595,017
1833,.....	1,771,381	1,137,774	250,511	858,813	13,996,100
1834,.....	2,289,782	1,081,284	101,443	954,615	14,487,955
1835,.....	2,076,001	994,771	158,926	1,179,252	14,059,246
1836,.....	1,934,935	1,029,570	264,730	1,132,942	15,398,245
1837,.....	2,713,586	644,018	523,106	1,875,918	20,346,407

OFFICIAL RETURN OF THE GOVERNMENT OF CUBA.

Statistics of the Comparative and Aggregate Amount of Commerce, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Hanse Towns and the Pays Bas.	Ports of the Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	Total.
1838,.....	\$2,698,163	\$1,646,953	\$366,643	\$1,674,287	\$20,471,102
1839,.....	2,054,088	266,401	424,905	2,478,848	21,481,848
1840,.....	2,835,620	924,398	319,941	2,987,745	25,941,783
1842,.....	3,588,917	770,067	326,652	1,807,536	26,684,701

In this table, we have the general progress of the island of Cuba for sixteen years, in which time both its imports and exports have doubled. It presents an uninterrupted and rapid progress of prosperity, unequalled by any other nation. The growth of the trade has been greater with England and the United States than any other countries, and far greater with the former than with the United States. The increase in the exports has been mostly of the articles of sugar and coffee, and the imports of cotton, woollen, and linen manufactures. The proportion of the whole trade done in national vessels, in 1842, is as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CUBA FOR 1842, DISTINGUISHING THE FLAG.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	In Spanish vessels.	Foreign vessels.	Spanish ships.	Foreign ships.
Spain,.....	\$5,508,035	\$49,316	\$3,729,970
United States,.....	474,262	5,725,959	243,683	\$5,038,891
France,.....	989,931	486,821	515,678	1,102,034
England,.....	2,000,212	1,110,485	697,502	8,562,103
Holland,.....	129,194	195,827	18,336	434,801
Belgium,.....	372,080	9,762	64,497	307,699
Germany,.....	2,332,113	363,417	430,281	2,333,302
Italy,.....	138,381	37,312	73,816	235,928
Portugal,.....	160	15,611	10,999	5,907
Denmark,.....	90,518	61,198	7,255	52,401
Spanish America,.....	1,342,150	1,145,743	280,796	20,776
Brazils,.....	37,638
Russia,.....	710,411
Warehouse,.....	2,021,394	1,807,536
	\$15,398,433	\$9,239,093	\$6,072,816	\$20,611,885

In this table, we are struck with the fact that the trade with the United States is done in American bottoms almost altogether; while, with other nations, Spanish vessels have a large share of the trade.

We now proceed with a detailed statement of each article of the imports and exports, as follows:—

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA, IN 1839, 1840, 1841, AND 1842.

	Liquors.			
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Sweet oil,.....	\$372,403	\$228,960	\$306,702	\$266,777
Rum, (aquadiente,).....	170,602	161,322	259,598	259,600
Malt liquors,.....	171,727	180,760	222,617	162,478
Gin,.....	75,170	106,599	160,092	198,205
Cider,.....	30,791	25,762	37,498	22,765
Vinegar,.....	11,128	8,812	12,890	11,298
Wine, (white,).....	87,132	101,722	155,713	135,721
Wine, (red,).....	1,382,240	1,103,071	1,229,764	1,203,713
Other liquors,.....	89,365	82,050	45,036	42,144
Total liquors,.....	\$2,390,569	\$1,990,068	\$2,429,875	\$2,302,701

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA, etc.—Continued.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
<i>Provisions.</i>				
Pork,	\$40,571	\$55,296	\$62,275	\$38,944
Beef,	46,417	46,344	50,170	34,814
“ smoked,	2,560	4,239	9,187	12,712
“ jerked,	1,655,433	1,582,278	1,868,823	1,806,610
Sausages,	30,620	30,354	30,833	40,867
Bacon,	28,073	36,569	28,785	37,046
Ham,	81,728	81,174	130,300	122,718
Total provisions,	\$1,885,402	\$1,836,254	\$2,180,373	\$2,093,711
<i>Spices.</i>				
Saffron,	\$34,896	\$48,186	\$18,525	\$19,697
Cinnamon,	47,376	13,984	12,180	8,867
Cloves,	4,241	6,921	3,496	1,862
Pimento,	5,389	1,707	5,386	3,013
Pepper,	8,422	23,857	11,259	2,968
Other spices,	18,900	19,677	9,428	8,977
Total spices,	\$119,204	\$114,332	\$60,283	\$45,384
<i>Fruits.</i>				
Olives,	\$31,033	\$33,709	\$33,442	\$39,295
Almonds,	53,284	51,720	43,346	61,986
Filberts,	9,312	4,908	11,194	14,575
Prunes,	9,867	6,156	3,512	5,482
Figs,	14,232	16,781	9,584	12,971
Raisins,	51,382	51,466	66,338	78,421
Other fruits,	57,124	64,566	60,153	51,057
Total fruits,	\$226,294	\$229,306	\$227,569	\$263,777
<i>Breadstuffs.</i>				
Rice,	\$838,914	\$1,037,773	\$1,030,784	\$971,484
Cocoa,	40,463	174,428	30,683	27,239
Beans,	38,877	20,622	37,805	31,751
“ (Spanish)	79,332	62,522	50,542	83,353
Wheat flour,	2,416,611	2,425,162	2,843,193	2,358,896
Indian meal,	810	2,452	6,927	1,017
Indian corn,	1,457	4,662	3,592	10,684
Other breadstuffs,	28,386	23,947	8,972	21,959
Total breadstuffs,	\$3,444,850	\$3,751,568	\$4,012,499	\$3,506,583
<i>Linens.</i>				
Drills,	\$284,933	\$209,755	\$158,638	\$287,824
Cambrics,	22,830	10,169	19,252	23,150
Stockings,	3,118	6,166	3,833	27,146
Lace,	23,653	16,128	1,370	290
Russias,	328,317	276,302	200,354	353,672
Holland,	24,102	21,871	26,514	49,612
Irish,	30,317	70,533	29,265	67,115
Caleta,	371,741	193,798	233,614	416,502
Creas,	171,494	185,002	129,745	152,530
Listados,	460,629	313,752	55,224	220,500
Platillas,	453,842	512,941	613,807	690,812
Lawns,	37,975	43,407	33,830	36,545
Estopillas,	113,557	127,354	69,881	148,700
Other linens,	307,778	458,077	368,553	568,822
Total linens,	\$2,634,286	\$2,445,255	\$1,943,880	\$3,043,220

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA, etc.—Continued.

Shoes and Leather.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Boots,	\$11,608	\$7,490	\$3,199	\$1,476
Tanned skins,	173,501	157,440	134,849
Saddles,	49,013	57,042	38,060	53,260
Leather,	57,141	50,306	57,874	31,888
Shoes,	289,100	127,363	132,545	131,349
Other peltry,	70,893	125,293	153,009	33,072
Total,	\$571,258	\$524,934	\$384,687	\$375,834

Lumber.

Hoops,	\$87,446	\$97,626	\$105,841	\$68,185
Hogsheads,	278,864	223,120	525,837	700,551
Fustic,	141,134	66,078	1,597	2,127
Boards,	655,982	733,467	720,692	515,047
Shingles,	9,174	5,961	7,542	6,134
Other lumber,	120,177	204,801	17,649	27,299
Total lumber,	\$1,292,777	\$1,331,015	\$1,379,158	\$1,319,543

Oils.

Whale,	\$102,711	\$136,194	\$118,860	\$132,968
Lard,	620,245	507,124	748,768	723,525
Butter,	33,861	47,149	77,811	80,635
Cheese,	67,328	94,410	132,147	136,182
Tallow,	26,609	95,116	62,188	58,629
Tallow candles,	152,937	160,907	223,048	161,425
Sperm candles,	42,037	64,841	38,100	102,621
Other oils,	42,458	53,765
Total oils,	\$1,045,728	\$1,105,741	\$1,443,180	\$1,399,750

Fish.

Herring,	\$17,333	\$20,149	\$9,754	\$19,506
Atun,	2,659	1,228	1,417	3,943
Cod,	318,016	365,408	332,934	330,478
Mackerel,	16,981	7,177	565	12,683
Salt fish,	16,783	15,066	39,012	33,858
Sardines,	26,045	29,879	44,704	45,878
Salmon,	894	832	2,710	2,129
Total fish,	\$398,711	\$439,735	\$431,096	\$448,445

Miscellaneous.

Onions,	\$28,633	\$38,261	\$39,838	\$41,004
Vermicelli,	114,219	117,129	78,511	107,765
Crackers,	28,199	25,768	18,840	9,729
Potatoes,	67,366	77,759	95,662	127,619
Teas,	4,434	4,078	2,210	12,910
Vegetables and pickles,	49,425	33,732	55,728	47,367
Total,	\$292,276	\$296,727	\$290,789	\$344,395

Woollens.

Bombazine,	\$3,531	\$2,843	\$1,028	\$2,121
Baize,	52,147	87,667	30,997	49,389
Cassimere,	3,687	2,609	2,207	8,412
Cloth,	71,898	88,061	52,580	81,773
Frozadus,	66,197	70,438	43,848	51,046
Other woollens,	83,605	106,224	64,586	83,195
Total woollens,	\$281,065	\$357,842	\$195,246	\$275,938

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA, etc.—Continued.

Miscellaneous.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Almond oil,.....	\$26,930	\$9,717	\$86,497
Linseed ".....	24,647	20,899	12,408
Tar,.....	9,403	9,717	\$9,432	8,148
Horses and mules,.....	17,000	20,899	13,935	19,041
Live stock,.....	184	422	5,594
Indigo,.....	216,190	280,855	200
Coal,.....	14,515	21,768	43,059	107,017
Glass,.....	213,393	145,746	111,558	146,752
Ironware,.....	911,127	695,682	737,135	672,828
Caps,.....	5,410	6,451	2,139	3,899
Cochineal,.....	107,238	62,980
Ice,.....	56,160	60,772	146,960	140,040
Twine,.....	12,726	35,099	17,467	10,305
Soap,.....	480,398	489,456	258,094	339,529
Rigging,.....	32,554	92,662	20,474	30,131
Bricks,.....	43,974	66,729	58,674	42,802
Books,.....	79,013	67,919	73,681	75,588
Marbleware,.....	20,299	12,213	17,925	21,945
Earthenware,.....	137,276	146,139	158,515	81,442
Machinery,.....	21,707	28,180	90,933
Medicine,.....	169,470	101,837	122,998	137,755
Hardware,.....	546,621	711,885	174,186	381,735
Furniture,.....	60,794	68,102	76,387	105,222
White paper,.....	198,176	116,983	91,391	118,301
Wrapping paper,.....	69,770	110,000
Paper hangings,.....	6,982	3,502	89,091	20,107
Perfumery,.....	65,488	67,651	95,158	74,284
Paint,.....	60,777	46,406	58,230	38,086
Powder,.....	55,349	27,811	18,841	24,133
Jewelry,.....	43,415	81,132	63,253	79,928
Clothing,.....	53,868	38,498	34,676
Bagging,.....	63,570	110,519	109,781	79,184
Salt,.....	100,813	115,612	238,145	156,321
Leeches,.....	12,880	15,730	15,150
Ropes,.....	67,919	133,568	67,992	87,166
Hats,.....	74,770	90,021	45,207	128,957
Tobacco leaf,.....	18,621	18,630
" stems,.....	12,853	38,211	21,459	28,659
Snuff,.....	1,715	1,481	1,776	1,077
Chairs,.....	59,579	49,215
Sarsaparilla,.....	12,321	25,063	4,955	5,697
Yeso,.....	10,157	3,641	3,517	3,235
Other articles,.....	254	89,850	190,112	310,216
Total miscellaneous,...	\$4,182,048	\$4,160,815	\$3,569,003	\$4,432,538

Cotton Manufactures.

Cotton wool,.....	\$392,926	\$2,054,086	\$2,322
Coquillo,.....	4,386	661	\$5,191
Drills,.....	139,866	167,065	181,678	77,396
Listados,.....	382,237	122,556	124,246	134,698
Nankeen,.....	10,418	11,330	1,687	506
Blankets,.....	62,139	24,923	33,380	47,486
Stockings,.....	197,314	133,318	142,252	159,525
Muslins,.....	360,478	224,796	364,941	383,326
Cambrics,.....	169,972	116,778	2,429	124,607
Dresses,.....	22,246	13,931	18,980	54,783
Handkerchiefs,.....	334,430	243,137	152,652	138,484
Calicoes,.....	485,207	270,412	469,981	265,608
Other articles,.....	525,088	749,729	377,648	360,571
Tot. cot. manufactures,.	\$3,086,707	\$4,142,722	\$1,875,065	\$1,749,312

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA, etc.—Continued.

Silks.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Ribbons,.....	\$85,737	\$102,549	\$55,747	\$75,806
Shawls,.....	49,784	28,981	9,734	62,409
Silk net,.....	26,281	20,722	11,545	3,140
Mantillas,.....	4,948	7,983	8,959	9,809
Stockings,.....	33,730	19,457	35,146	30,827
Handkerchiefs,.....	105,883	80,041	45,254	47,667
Umbrellas,.....	20,373	18,316	14,324	8,834
Net goods,.....	8,309	1,419
Satin,.....	35,895	37,580	45,862	63,551
Serge,.....	10,016	3,723	4,851	7,986
Sewing silk,.....	35,771	29,731	11,116
Tafeta,.....	12,182	9,721	4,350	22,870
Dresses,.....	490	951	68,530	1,002
Other silks,.....	54,663	71,377	41,047
Total silks,.....	\$484,062	\$432,551	\$304,302	\$386,118

Metals.

Quicksilver,.....	\$23,838
Nails,.....	143,586	\$126,375	\$147,175
Copper,.....	127,269	57,590	\$177,958	94,058
Iron,.....	261,855	118,782	46,130	92,729
Coined gold,.....	1,497,408	908,108	119,997	792,124
“ silver,.....	709,770	454,118	595,780	359,995
Lead,.....	42,971	30,939	185,859	2,146
Other metals,.....	5,940	48,271	9,165
Total metals,.....	\$2,893,119	\$1,691,756	\$1,173,995	\$1,497,392
Total importations,....	25,315,803	27,700,189	21,781,925	24,663,307
In warehouse,.....	3,299,483	2,021,394

The regulations in regard to, and the expense of, the entry of goods in the island of Cuba, may best be understood from the actual disbursements on account of an American vessel, as follows:—

DISBURSEMENTS ON ACCOUNT OF SHIP-MASTER AT THE PORT OF HAVANA.

Custom-house entry and stamp,.....	\$3 25	
Harbor-master's fees, in and out,.....	6 00	
Board of health,.....	2 00	
Marine interpreter,.....	2 00	
Translating manifest,.....	10 00	
		\$23 25
Tonnage duty on 260 4.95 tons, at \$1 50 per ton, and 1 per cent “ balanza” duty on amount of said tonnage,.....	\$393 94	
Wharfage from 10th to 23d instant, inclusive, fourteen days, at \$1 25 per day on each hundred tons, 260 tons,.....	45 00	
Stage hire fourteen days, at 75 cents per day, and 3 rials for carrying the same,.....	10 88	
Mud-machine, 1¼ rials per ton, and 1 per cent “ balanza,”.....	57 44	
		507 76
Custom-house clearance, and bills of discharge:—		
Eleven days' discharge, at \$5 50 per day,.....	\$60 50	
Two visits, in and out,.....	11 00	
Seven sheets of extracts, each \$1,.....	7 00	
Clearance,.....	8 00	
Stamp paper for clearance,.....	8 25	
		94 75

DISBURSEMENTS ON ACCOUNT OF SHIP-MASTER, etc.—Continued.

Light money,.....	\$4 00	
Moro pass, governor's fee, and clearing officer,.....	4 00	
Certificate of duties being paid,.....	4 25	
Custom-house broker,.....	3 00	
		\$15 25
The following are not government charges, but in continuation, &c. :—		
Bill of health, \$7; Russian consul's certificate, \$8 50; Danish consul's certificate, \$5,.....	\$20 50	
		20 50
Cooper's bill for repairing casks,.....	\$9 94	
Journeyman for discharging cargo, twelve days, for six men, each 75 cents per day,.....	54 00	
American consul's bill,.....	10 25	
Lighterage on 1,573 boxes sugar,.....	157 25	
Trip on board,.....	40	
		231 84
Total,.....		\$893 35
To which add commission, 2½ per cent.		

During the time a vessel is discharging, a government officer is stationed on board, and is required to report daily to an officer of the custom-house; and for each report the vessel pays \$5 50. The charge is the same, whether one barrel or a thousand is discharged each day. A vessel loaded with jerked beef pays \$5 50 for every five hundred arrobas, or twelve thousand five hundred pounds, without reference to the quantity discharged each day. Lumber pays \$5 50 for every twenty thousand feet. Cotton, the same for every sixty bales. Salt cargoes, \$5 50 per day. Logwood, a like sum for every eight hundred quintals, and the same amount for every twenty-five tons. Three copies of the invoices of all cargoes are made out to the custom-house on Spanish stamped paper; and for each leaf is charged \$1. It frequently happens that thirty to forty sheets, of not more than four to five lines each, are required from vessels from New York, Havre, and Liverpool. These are some of the vexatious extortions which are allowed to interfere seriously with the real interests of that magnificent island. The following is a statement of the ships that have arrived and sailed from each port of the island:—

SHIPS ENTERED AND SAILED FROM THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

	Entered.		Sailed.	
	Spanish.	Foreign.	Spanish.	Foreign.
Havana,.....	509	901	467	952
Cuba,.....	130	284	128	273
Nuevitás,.....	22	25	12	25
Matanzas,.....	80	270	79	338
Trinidad,.....	55	136	54	138
Baracoa,.....	8	17	4	17
Gibara,.....	40	10	39	11
Cienfuegos,.....	7	86	6	88
Manzanillo,.....	21	29	25	41
Santi-Espiritu,.....	3	1	4	2
Santa Cruz,.....	4	10	5	12
San Juan,.....	5	4	5	3
Total, 1842,.....	884	1,773	828	1,900
“ 1841,.....	1,053	1,981	1,036	2,082
“ 1840,.....	958	2,065	912	2,160

TONNAGE ENTERED, WITH IMPORTS AND IMPORT DUTIES.

PORTS.	Tonnage entered.				1842.		Total.
	1839.	1840.	1841.	Free.	Paying duty.		
Havana,.....	237,801	255,430	252,251	16,013	230,010	246,023	
Cuba,.....	53,139	67,274	67,252	47,913	62,070	109,983	
Nuevitas,.....	5,117	6,091	4,963	200	3,868	4,568	
Matanzas,.....	67,244	71,071	77,573	3,358	59,101	62,659	
Trinidad,.....	28,965	31,138	32,123	9,797	21,617	31,416	
Baracoa,.....	1,710	1,693	2,426	2,224	2,224	
Gibara,.....	4,322	3,962	3,689	670	2,865	3,535	
Cienfuegos,.....	7,349	12,604	15,253	2,924	11,653	14,577	
Manzanillo,....	8,359	7,945	8,804	1,844	6,611	8,455	
Santi-Espiritu, .	1,005	490	578	147	258	405	
Santa Cruz,.....	1,785	2,142	2,635	913	913	
San Juan,.....	221	389	293	337	337	
	417,017	460,229	467,839	83,566	491,528	485,094	
1841,.....				51,069	416,770	467,839	

Imports.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Havana,	\$18,436,888	\$17,713,310	\$18,584,877	\$18,801,913
Cuba,.....	3,165,422	2,972,497	2,671,421	2,382,938
Nuevitas,.....	152,647	172,263	186,828	171,383
Matanzas,.....	1,868,819	1,863,624	1,995,311	1,801,558
Trinidad,.....	1,012,267	990,012	942,661	828,185
Baracoa,.....	36,407	57,376	81,832	87,490
Gibara,.....	197,840	156,856	127,588	172,084
Cienfuegos,.....	187,935	310,741	288,732	195,935
Manzanillo,.....	155,142	152,321	153,072	117,030
Santi-Espiritu,.....	21,677	17,860	25,869	14,806
Santa Cruz,.....	69,497	83,025	54,732	44,589
San Juan,.....	11,255	10,303	8,484	19,519
	\$25,217,796	\$24,500,188	\$25,122,407	\$24,637,527

Import duties.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Havana,	\$4,388,790	\$4,150,343	\$4,071,509	\$4,449,215
Cuba,.....	671,731	680,212	700,964	531,673
Nuevitas,.....	50,297	52,579	45,425	65,116
Matanzas,.....	539,758	590,674	595,558	525,352
Trinidad,.....	217,790	244,759	262,310	215,145
Baracoa,.....	11,770	11,802	22,663	18,741
Gibara,.....	59,368	47,082	37,797	38,189
Cienfuegos,.....	64,984	65,079	87,618	78,603
Manzanillo,.....	62,076	57,403	67,412	48,041
Santi-Espiritu,.....	10,316	7,012	10,291	7,158
Santa Cruz,.....	30,183	38,404	36,675	21,517
San Juan,.....	6,440	6,449	5,591	6,877
	\$6,113,503	\$5,951,798	\$5,943,813	\$6,005,632

The following is a table of the countries whence the leading supplies of manufactures were derived in the year 1842 :—

COUNTRIES WHENCE MANUFACTURES WERE IMPORTED INTO HAVANA, IN THE YEAR 1842.

	Cottons.	Woollens.	Linens.	Silks.	Leather.	Lumber and provisions.
Spain,.....	\$35,621	\$1,452	\$14,073	\$67,442	\$119,113	\$2,870,287
U. States,....	80,905	13,217	158,466	69,361	8,620	3,104,945
France,.....	245,046	18,434	665,634	102,943	52,039	184,293
England,....	631,944	171,481	464,687	44,152	20	215,373

COUNTRIES WHENCE MANUFACTURES WERE IMPORTED INTO HAVANA, etc.—Continued.

	Cottons.	Woollens.	Linens.	Silks.	Leather.	Lumber and provisions.
Holland,.....	\$4,008	\$1,789	\$142,350
Belgium,.....	46,171	\$14,725	74,320	\$24,947	\$38,414	25,461
Germany,....	282,151	43,118	1,695,643	19,010	4,177	154,083
Warehouse,.	178,117	5,611	158,542	13,491	768	16,970
Other places,	1,552	5,100	383	1,101	60,488	1,106,077
Total, . .	\$1,505,415	\$265,540	\$2,773,041	\$342,447	\$283,639	\$7,819,839

The United States, it appears, supplies but a very small proportion even of those manufactures of which she has the best means of creating the greatest supplies. Nearly all the manufactures coming from England are in Spanish bottoms, while American manufactures go in United States vessels. Spanish vessels can go to England, take in cotton goods, and carry them to Cuba, on better terms than American vessels can carry them direct. This is a singular fact, and is to be accounted for only on the ground that the paper currency of the United States carries the level of prices too high to admit of profitable shipment to the specie prices of Cuba. This view is confirmed by the fact that, during the six months which has elapsed of the present year, cottons have been exported from the United States to an amount far greater than ever before. A difference in the currencies of the two countries forms an insuperable bar to equality of intercourse.

The exports of island products, together with the re-export of foreign goods, were as follows :—

EXPORTS OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

Products of the Island.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Mahogany,.....	\$103,272	\$64,398	\$66,261	\$56,161
Spirits from the cane,.....	174,055	211,051	226,050	204,550
Cocoa,.....	1,024	2,538	32
Cotton,.....	310,418	133,885	132,874	75,834
Coffee,.....	1,950,469	2,143,574	1,852,509	2,998,269
Sugar,.....	8,290,387	11,264,367	11,613,798	11,447,009
Cedar,.....	31,065	25,901	21,671	40,101
Wax,.....	147,686	115,311	307,131	290,828
Copper ore,.....	2,418,450	3,706,951	4,505,490	4,981,405
Hides,.....	15,054	6,991	22,633	21,130
Sweetmeats,.....	14,168	19,429	14,394	7,091
Fruits,.....	91,837	94,242	96,708	49,298
Honey,.....	51,744	55,918	68,862	71,325
Molasses,.....	900,163	1,346,820	821,188	744,608
Horses and mules,.....	43,722	19,388	1,205
Fustic,.....	92,124	82,564	82,918
Cattle,.....	984	124
Cigars,.....	637,558	535,122	719,364	749,812
Tobacco,.....	1,273,069	1,395,689	1,677,743	1,461,760
Other articles,.....	79,371	87,979	51,215	200,289
Total products,.....	\$16,526,620	\$21,380,695	\$22,281,297	\$23,400,708

Metals, &c.

Quicksilver,.....	\$9,900	\$7,461
Indigo,.....	210,344	186,061
Cochineal,.....	254,300	33,955
Coined gold,.....	850,858	526,322	\$326,842	\$154,055
“ silver,.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
Other metals,.....	39,996	46,503
Total,.....	\$2,200,347	\$1,280,577	\$1,132,667	\$1,337,163

EXPORTS OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA—Continued.

<i>Foreign Goods.</i>				
Cotton wool,.....	\$513,772	\$1,842,192
“ manufacture,.....	843,259	539,051	\$24,466	\$6,023
Liquors,.....	135,252	95,105	153,347
Glass,.....	16,709	5,975	6,372
Fruits and grains,.....	108,985	171,478	37,525
Hardware,.....	87,523	154,901	7,528
Woollens,.....	37,199	10,135	5,688	1,426
Linens,.....	333,616	164,504	67,418	8,621
Fustic,.....	96,537	76,805
Peltry,.....	25,714	17,775	3,507
Silk,.....	104,585	74,319	45,203	4,919
Tobacco,.....	26,898	29,492
Sarsaparilla,.....	12,888	19,270	993
Other articles,.....	318,828	159,587	159,452	116,367
Total foreign goods,.....	\$2,654,765	\$3,360,589	\$510,486	\$138,273
Grand total exportations,.,	21,481,802	25,941,783	23,925,919	24,877,175
Exp. from warehouse,....	1,807,536

The balance of goods remaining in warehouse is as follows :—

Importation,.....	\$2,021,393	
Taken out for consumption,.....	416,731	
Exported,.....		\$1,604,663
		1,807,536
Balance of previous year,.....		\$202,872

TONNAGE CLEARED, WITH EXPORTS AND EXPORT DUTIES.

<i>Tonnage cleared.</i>				
PORTS.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Havana,.....	\$235,703	\$223,167	\$253,865	\$233,446
Cuba,.....	54,006	68,121	64,416	90,238
Nuevitas,.....	4,923	5,370	3,628	4,955
Matanzas,.....	80,526	98,100	97,349	80,750
Trinidad,.....	28,238	30,547	30,880	31,424
Baracoa,.....	1,603	1,111	2,221	1,880
Gibara,.....	4,404	3,894	2,880	3,468
Cienfuegos,.....	7,778	12,563	14,973	15,116
Manzanillo,.....	10,515	9,412	8,806	9,129
Santi-Espiritu,.....	954	1,385	200	529
Santa Cruz,.....	2,913	1,176	617	943
San Juan,.....	337	267	192	228
	\$431,900	\$455,113	\$480,027	\$472,106
<i>Export duties.</i>				
PORTS.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Havana,.....	\$694,337	\$770,359	\$702,058	\$710,613
Cuba,.....	140,271	141,042	117,118	153,096
Nuevitas,.....	5,602	7,780	6,510	9,967
Matanzas,.....	274,537	370,336	346,922	328,078
Trinidad,.....	73,369	78,761	89,249	91,152
Baracoa,.....	867	1,759	4,567	2,932
Gibara,.....	17,429	12,679	10,390	19,089
Cienfuegos,.....	20,201	31,207	28,609	35,478
Manzanillo,.....	14,513	11,251	10,626	12,981
Santi-Espiritu,.....	1,722	2,090	911	2,140
Santa Cruz,.....	6,466	7,880	5,446	4,981
San Juan,.....	250	551	236	1,203
	\$1,249,564	\$1,435,695	\$1,322,642	\$1,377,714

TONNAGE CLEARED, etc.—Continued.

PORTS.	Exports.			
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Havana,	\$12,206,737	\$14,172,573	\$14,203,292	\$13,118,585
Cuba,	4,149,866	5,211,057	5,993,631	6,784,765
Nuevitas,	82,727	181,750	71,595	205,116
Matanzas,	3,335,284	4,333,744	4,374,780	4,365,926
Trinidad,	913,417	1,046,181	1,157,571	1,129,501
Baracoa,	21,456	43,075	85,918	85,233
Gibara,	240,255	217,562	161,582	248,763
Cienfuegos,	280,699	506,256	506,379	509,806
Manzanillo,	192,252	151,866	137,464	170,984
Santi-Espiritu,	10,681	19,910	14,264	23,488
Santa Cruz,	47,822	49,584	63,260	34,322
San Juan,	662	8,220	4,878	8,208
	<u>\$21,481,848</u>	<u>\$25,941,778</u>	<u>\$26,774,614</u>	<u>\$26,684,701</u>

The following is a table of the average cost in the month of September of the articles of export to the United States :—

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES EXPORTED FROM CUBA.

	Average price in September.	Cost of package.	Export duty.	Quantity in each package.	Average cost on board.
Sugar, white,.....cwt.	\$4 00	box, \$3 25	\$1 00	400 lbs.	\$21 17
“ brown,.....	1 70	“ 3 25	1 00	400 “	12 15
“ yellow,.....	2 50	“ 3 25	1 00	400 “	14 86
“ Cucuruchu,.....	1 50	“ 3 25	1 00	400 “	11 18
“ Muscovado,.....hhd.	2 40	hhd., 5 00	2 50	1,300 “	40 96
Coffee,.....bag	7 62	bag, 0 62½	0 94	150 “	12 46
“ triage,.....	4 75	“ 0 62½	0 94	150 “	8 80
Molasses,.....gallon	½	hhd., 6 00	0 75	110 galls.	7 48
“ Muscovado,.....	3	“ 6 00	0 75	110 “	10 31
Taffia,.....pipe	12 00	pipe, 6 00	0 50	120 “	19 93
Wax, white,.....25 lbs.	9 25	6½	1 13	100 lbs.	38 95
“ yellow,.....	8 00	6½	0 76	100 “	33 08
Tobacco leaf, leeward,.....cwt.	49 00	bale, 0 75	1 67	100 “	43 61
“ windward,.....	15 00	“ 0 75	1 67	100 “	17 99
Cigars,.....M.	14 00		0 62½	1,000 “	15 01
Honey,.....gallon	00 36		1 19	70 galls.	27 76
Hides,.....No.	2 25		free		2 32

The outer column contains the whole cost of each package on board, including, in addition to the above items, drayage, launch, &c.

The following is a table of the countries to which the leading articles of produce were exported in 1842 :—

EXPORTS OF ISLAND PRODUCE, DISTINGUISHING THE COUNTRY OF DESTINATION, IN 1842.

	Rum.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Molasses.	Tobacco.	Copper ore.
Spain,	\$67,485	\$1,697,007	\$194,595	\$1,392	\$417,277
U. States,....	6,760	2,372,048	1,162,857	716,551	624,040	\$82,088
France,.....	2,335	407,493	799,595	270,381
England,....	26,035	3,569,179	215,025	16,848	372,599	4,899,320
Holland,....	560	305,701	25,254	104,310
Belgium,....	120	306,636	2,013	45,341
Germany,....	75,210	1,999,045	404,395	268	258,943
Other places,	20,046	779,900	94,535	9,549	118,681
Total,.....	<u>\$204,550</u>	<u>\$11,447,009</u>	<u>\$2,998,269</u>	<u>\$744,608</u>	<u>\$2,211,572</u>	<u>\$4,981,405</u>

The United States is by far the largest customer for the produce of Cuba for all products except sugar, in which article she is next to Eng-

land. In that article, the new domestic tariff which went into operation September, 1842, will produce some change. In the year 1842, under the compromise act, the duty was 29 per cent on brown sugar, or about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cent per lb. That was suddenly changed to a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per lb., or 100 per cent. Clayed sugars were carried back to the duty of 1828, viz: 4 cents per lb. This great change in the terms on which sugar is admitted into the United States, has had a powerful effect upon the trade of the island, and operates unfortunately at this juncture, when the ability of the manufacturers to sell most of the articles which are now supplied to Cuba by other nations was never better than now. The low prices of all articles of supplies and raw material in the United States have reduced the values of manufactures to a degree which enables large quantities to be exported, and it is precisely at such a juncture when an important market might be established, that a hapless legislation here intervenes to deprive the Cubans of the means of paying for those wares advantageously to themselves. The restrictions which are imposed upon this free interchange of commodities by different nations seem to arise from mistaken ideas of the true nature of commerce. Trade between nations is not a game of chance, in which one party makes a gain where the other sustains a positive loss. It does not tend to enrich one party at the expense of the other. On the contrary, all parties are enriched the more as commerce is extended between them, on just and liberal principles. The lot of man has been disposed upon an earth of variable climes. The wants of all nations are reciprocal, and all have reciprocal means of supplying them. In this fact we have the true origin of commerce; its only object being, in every stage, to produce that exchange of commodities between individuals and between nations, which shall conduce to the happiness and to the advantage of both.

ART. IV.—LETTER TO COTTON MANUFACTURERS.

[We are indebted to Mr. Lee for another extract from his forthcoming work. The principal positions here taken by Mr. Lee are—

That the consumption of cotton in Europe, other than the product of India and America, is too insignificant to have any important bearing on prices: that the superior cheapness of home grown cotton is especially favorable to the interests of New England, as the principal American seat of cotton manufacturing: that the decline in the value of cotton has increased the ratio of advantage heretofore enjoyed by the American over the British manufacturer: that heavy cotton goods are, according to the statements of the manufacturers, made as cheap in this country as in England, if not cheaper: that the charges of importing cotton goods under a duty of 25 per cent, amount to 45 per cent, without any allowance of profit to the importer: that the consumption of cotton in the United States is rapidly on the increase: that any material advance in the existing prices of cotton must arise from over issues of currency, or from speculative operations in that article, and consequently are not likely to be maintained: that the prostration of banks and banking operations in the southwestern states is favorable to a continuance of the existing natural and sufficient

prices of cotton : and, that the fallacious notion of increasing the wealth of a community by altering the measure of value is still prevalent through the country.]

In the preceding letter it was shown that, through the agency of British manufacturers of cotton goods, and the exporters of them from England to countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, a considerable quantity of American grown cotton had been sent to that region in the form of manufactures and twist, in excess of the quantity of India grown cotton consumed in the cotton fabrics of England. The average trade in manufactured cottons beyond the Cape of Good Hope, carried on by British merchants for 1841 and 1842, stands thus :

	<i>Pounds.</i>
Weight of cotton cloths and twist,.....	53,578,000
“ India cotton used in their manufacture, clear of waste,	30,969,237
“ American and other sorts of cotton, “ “	22,608,763
The raw material used in the manufacture of the above goods,	60,200,000
Of East India growth,.....	34,797,628
Weight of American and other cotton sent from England to Asia, beyond the amount of East India cotton consumed in Great Britain,.....	25,402,372

The proportion of raw cottons, other than the product of the United States and India, used in the cotton manufactures of Great Britain is very small, and of late years has been declining in quantity. The following are the returns for 1840 and 1841. For 1842, we have only a return of the bags of Brazil, Egypt and West India cottons consumed in Great Britain, and the aggregate quantity is within about one hundred bags of the average of the two preceding years :

	<i>Pounds.</i>
Quantity of raw cotton consumed in Great Britain in 1840,	456,730,779
“ “ “ “ in 1841,	416,315,034
	873,045,813
Quantity of raw cotton of the produce of Egypt, the Brazils, and West Indies, used in Great Britain in 1840,.....	23,963,737
“ “ “ “ in 1841,.....	27,746,259
	51,709,996

It would appear from this statement that the consumption of cotton in Great Britain, other than the product of India and the United States, is something under 6 per cent of the whole quantity used ; and, consequently, of the 34,797,628 pounds of the raw article worked up in the goods sent to Asia, as above shown, the whole, save 6 per cent, was of the growth of the United States.

We shall pursue this subject of competition of East India with American grown cotton somewhat further than may, perhaps, be generally considered as belonging to the main object of these communications. Still, the facts in regard to this great staple, which, it may here be observed,

are more accessible, and more to be relied upon than facts connected with any other leading commodity of commerce, except indigo, and the reflections to which they necessarily lead, cannot fail to command the attention of intelligent minds, who see the intimate and extended connection between the enlargement of this branch of agriculture, and the other great interests of the country.

To the people of New England, the future abundance of American grown cotton, and its superior cheapness, is a matter of vast importance, because it furnishes the raw material for their greatest branch of manufacturing, and one which, if prosecuted with that degree of science, skill and economy which other branches of New England industry have been, cannot fail of giving employment, and that, too, within the limits of a generation, to twice or thrice the amount of capital now invested in it. This supposition, however, proceeds on the belief that this country is not only the cheapest cotton producing country, but that we shall so far distance other cotton producing countries in the race of competition for supplying this article, as to render the European manufacturers entirely dependent on us for their supplies.

If it be once established that the European manufacturers can get their supplies of cotton cheaper from this country than from any other, it follows that our manufacturers have an advantage over our foreign competitors in manufacturing equivalent to the expenses of transporting the raw material to foreign countries, superadded to the duties imposed by foreign nations on its importation. This difference has been estimated by our manufacturers, in numerous memorials, speeches, &c., at an average of two cents per pound in reference to our British competitors, *our only competitors*, according to present appearances. This difference, however, as regards Great Britain, may be narrowed down to one and a half cent by a repeal of the duty now imposed on its importation; a measure which, there is reason to suppose, will be adopted as soon as that country can be relieved from the present, but, as we imagine, temporary deficiency of income, either by an increase of revenue, or by a decrease of expenses.

Now, admitting a difference in the cost of the raw material of two cents per pound in favor of our manufacturers, and taking the future prices of cotton, suitable for the manufacture of three-fourths of all the goods we make, to range, for the various qualities, from 6 to 7½ cents per pound, laid down at the factories, or at an average of 7 cents per pound,—assuming that to be the future cost of the raw article against a cost of 9 cents to the foreign manufacturer, one half the difference of prices constitutes a profit which would satisfy a British manufacturer. It is, we apprehend, a larger profit than has been gained by our cotton manufacturers, taking a range of twenty years, and in investments in the first class of factories.*

* "The articles of cotton sail duck, negro cottons, and cotton drillings, now articles of very large consumption, are also wholly of American origin, being entirely unknown in commerce until their production in this country. It is believed that this coarser description of cottons can be manufactured in this country as cheap or cheaper than they can be made in England *from the same quality of cotton*—the difference in value of the raw material in the two countries, estimated fully at two cents per pound, with some ad-

With such an abatement in the price of the material of chief value in the cost of cotton goods, as compared with the price paid for it by the British manufacturer, we should be sure of the home market for the coarse goods, without a particle of protecting duty; while nearly all the other cotton goods consumed in the United States, save a few millions of fine and fancy articles, of which the wages paid for labor constitute the principal ingredient of cost, would be amply protected by a duty of revenue, and the ordinary charges of importation.

Now, as the country never has been willing to submit to direct taxation to any considerable extent, not even during the emergency of war, it is not likely that it will hereafter become reconciled to that mode of raising revenue in a time of peace. Such being the case, it is not probable that, in any re-organization of the tariff which the fiscal wants of the country may require, the duties on articles like cottons, woollens and linens will be fixed at less than 25 per cent on the cost of goods, which, indeed, would be lower than the compromise rate of 20 per cent on a home valuation. Such a rate of duty, payable in cash, would, with the usual expenses of importation, be equal to upwards of 45 per cent protection to the home manufacturers. In truth, the importer of the foreign articles could not reimburse himself against the commissions and risks of selling, and get a moderate mercantile profit, short of an advance of 55 per cent on the prime cost of his goods. It is clear, then, from the statements of the manufacturers themselves, that cotton manufacturing does not require any further aid than can be derived from the ordinary duties of revenue.

In the export trade of yarns, if any manufacturers go into that branch of manufacturing, the fall of cotton has an important bearing, inasmuch as the cost of the raw material bears a larger proportion to the cost of goods in that stage of manufacturing than in the complete manufactured state. So, also, in respect to the exportation of coarse and heavy goods. Assuming the British manufacturer to pay from one and a half to two cents per pound more for cotton than the American manufacturer, so far as the expenses of importing that material into England are specific and not ad valorem charges—and they are nearly all specific—the lower the price of cotton, the greater the per centage of charge to the British consumer. For instance: if we call the average price of New Orleans and Upland cotton five pence a pound in England, the charge of two cents per pound—calling the penny two cents—is 20 per cent in favor of the American consumer. If, however, we take the average price that prevailed a few years ago, which was nine pence, or eighteen cents per pound, the per centage, in that case, would only be about 11 per cent in favor of our manufacturers.

With this increased advantage in the cost of the raw material over the

vantage in the use of water power, being more than sufficient to balance the advantage of greater cheapness in the price of labor in England.

“It is probable that something more than one half the quantity of cotton manufactured in the United States is employed in making the foregoing and kindred descriptions of goods.”

This is an extract from a memorial to Congress, in 1842, from the Cotton Manufacturers of Boston and its vicinity.

British manufacturer, together with a reduction in the wages of the operatives, and some other savings and improvements lately made in the process of manufacturing, it would seem that we have the ability to succeed in this branch of business, even on the supposition of an *over-manufacture*, which we contend has been the case, in reference to the home demand and the average export demand. Still, in that case, we ought to have got rid of the surplus by an increased exportation. Such, however, has not been the fact, otherwise the goods would not have so largely accumulated as it is known they have done for the past twelve and eighteen months, and that, too, on a fallen and falling market.

There is still one other point of view involved in this question of engrossing, on the part of our planters, the whole supply of cotton—in the first place, for the consumption of Europe, and eventually, and at no distant period, a large quantity for the consumption of Asia.

Cotton manufacturing is, in its present extent, of great value to Massachusetts, and, as we have before remarked, is destined to become the means of subsistence and competency to probably five times as many persons as are now engaged in it by its future enlargement. We say this because it seems to be agreed, among those persons of the greatest abilities and experience in its management, that we have the natural and acquired ability for its prosecution, in respect to most kinds of goods, not surpassed by the most intelligent and skilful manufacturers of Europe. We have, also, a home consuming market, which, even now, with a population of only 18,000,000 persons, requires the manufacture of nearly as many pounds of cotton as are actually worked up for the consumption of Great Britain, with a population, according to the census of 1841, of 26,857,028 inhabitants—the most industrious and wealthy nation in existence. In this estimation of cotton required for our consumption, we mean to include what is contained in the cotton goods that we still continue to import, but which is annually decreasing under the competition with the home made goods, aided by the beneficial effects of a sound currency.

What may be the future increased ratio of consumption in the United States, it might appear to be presumptuous in any one to attempt to form even a conjecture. A reference, however, to a few facts connected with its past progress will afford some instruction on that point, and of a most gratifying character.

In the "Report on the Production and Manufacture of Cotton," drawn up by a committee of which Mr. P. T. Jackson was chairman, and to which reference has already been made, the consumption of cotton, in this country, of American growth, was estimated only at 11,000,000 pounds. From that period down to 1827, there does not appear to be any statements on which reliance can be placed as to its progressive increase. In 1827, the quantity retained for consumption, out of a crop of 937,000 bales, was 103,483 bales. The average weight of the bales at that period, being chiefly raised in the Atlantic states, may have been 330 pounds, which would have given, for the consumption of that year, 34,149,390 pounds. In 1832, it had extended to 173,800 bags of 362 pounds, equal to 62,915,600 pounds. In 1836, the consumption was 87,591,210 pounds, increased in 1841 to 118,915,200; which, from the heavy accumulation of goods subsequently to that time, it may be inferred, was beyond the wants of the country, nor were prices low enough to in-

duce the exporters to relieve the home market of the over production. In 1842, the consumption declined to 107,140,000 pounds, in consequence of a reduction, as before noticed, in the manufacture of goods.

It is not improbable that, under existing low prices of the raw material, and other circumstances favorable to the production of cheaper goods than the mills have heretofore supplied for exportation, as well as consumption, together with the usual increase of population at the rate of nearly 600,000 persons per annum, that the consumption of 1844 will equal that of 1841, and perhaps somewhat exceed it—provided the prices of the raw material are not enhanced by speculation, or by the bad management of the currency. As to any other cause of a material advance on the present prices of cotton, in the face of a crop far beyond any former consumption, coupled with a stock on hand in Europe more than sufficient to meet any falling off in the next crop, even though it should be much below an average one.

It is unreasonable, we conceive, under circumstances so favorable to the present range of prices of cotton, to anticipate any advance upon them, unless it be occasioned by a great augmentation in the currency of this country and of England, accompanied or followed by its usual consequence, a spirit of speculation, and acting, as heretofore, strongly upon prices. But a rise of prices from such causes cannot long be maintained, and ought not, therefore, if it does take place, to induce manufacturers to purchase beyond their immediate wants. In such an emergency, it may be politic for our manufacturers to act as those in England did, when cotton was forced up beyond its fair market value by the speculative operations, in the Liverpool market, of the agents of the United States Bank, and of other gamblers in the article—that is, to narrow down their purchases to the lowest possible quantity, and even to suspend some portion of their work, rather than be forced into an over-payment for the chief material of cost of their fabrics. On that occasion the cotton spinners overcame the efforts of the cotton gamblers, and, by the losses thrown upon them, discouraged that class of persons from since attempting to derange the cotton market.

On this side of the water we are happily rid of much of the cotton gambling machinery formerly at work in the cotton marts, by the failure or discredit of nearly all the banks whose capitals, credit, and their worthless issues of bank paper were almost entirely devoted, from 1835 to 1841, to speculative and gambling dealings in cotton—of banks whose resources were principally employed on their own account, or in aiding planters, factors, merchants, speculators, gamblers, or persons of any vocation or without any vocation who felt inclined to put themselves in the way of making a fortune without the aid of any capital of their own, or the exercise of skill or industry; and when, in case of a successful result to their operations, the profits would go into their own pockets, while, in the event of an unsuccessful result, the losses must be borne by the injured and unfortunate proprietors of bank stock.

As an exemplification of the extravagant movements in the banking and currency operations of three of the largest cotton-producing states, the effect of which has been to place a section of the country possessing great sources of prosperity in a most embarrassed, and, as far as respects the planters, factors, and merchants of those states, in a ruinous condition, we refer to the following facts :

In 1830, the aggregate of the bank capitals of Mississippi, Louisiana, and Alabama amounted to \$6,111,483, with a circulation of \$2,364,310, and loans \$8,960,846. At this period these states, as far as we can recollect, were in a very prosperous condition; nor would that prosperity, as we apprehend, ever have been interrupted, if there had not been, subsequently, a material addition to their banking accommodations, or to those "*facilities*," as they are called—facilities to over-trading, over-trusting, speculation, gambling, extravagance, and ruin to a great majority of those who have been afflicted with them—while, indirectly, they have been equally destructive of the pecuniary interests of millions of prudent, industrious, useful, and productive members of society, who, although not availing themselves of these *facilities*, have suffered grievously from their direct, collateral, or remote connection with those persons who were misled, corrupted, or ruined by them.

In 1834, the *mania of over-banking, over-issuing and over-lending*, as expedients for increasing the wealth of a community by an augmentation of its money, namely, by altering the *measure of value*, or, to illustrate the principle by a practical application of it to the *measure of quantity*, to imagine that the *value* of the cotton crop might be increased, by altering the standard of weights. For instance, if we call eight ounces a pound, instead of sixteen, as is now done, it would raise the cotton crop from 931,500,000 pounds, which we now estimate it, taking sixteen ounces to the pound, to 1,863,000,000 pounds, according to the altered standard of weights. But would such an operation double the *value* of the cotton crop to its proprietors? If the answer be in the affirmative, why, then, the process of doubling the currency of a country, commodities of exchange being unaltered, would, by doubling the *prices* of those commodities, double the *value* also of those commodities. A person who should fancy he could get rich by this easy method would be thought insane, or something nearly as remote from sanity; yet the error is no greater than has been committed in reference to the functions of money, by nearly all the leading and popular men in the country who have discussed the questions of banking and currency.

But no person, not even a banker, who acts on the most popular and absurd banking principles in vogue in this country, would pretend that such an alteration in the weights of a country could add a particle to the *value* of its commodities. If, then, it be true, that a reduction of a pound from sixteen to eight ounces, by which the number of pounds of a commodity should be doubled, would add nothing to the *value* of that commodity, so neither would doubling the currency of a country, by which the *prices* of commodities would be doubled, add one particle to the *value* of those commodities.

Notwithstanding the grossness of the fallacy we are exposing, in reference to the nature and functions of money, and its frequent exposure by writers on currency, we hear constantly public men, of great reputation and authority as politicians, representing the fall of prices, consequent upon a return from an unsound and superfluous to a decreased but sufficient amount of currency, as a misfortune to the nation. It appeared to be indicative, in their minds, of a decrease of wealth, corresponding to the reduction in the prices of commodities. This error, which has been a common one in the administration of our banks and of our currencies, and has been productive of the most ruinous consequences, springs from a

misapprehension of the terms *price* and *value*,* of considering them as *identical* terms; and that an *advance in prices* is necessarily an *augmentation of value*, and a *fall of prices* as a *decrease of value*, in cases where those variations of prices arise wholly from variations in the quantity of the circulating medium, other commodities remaining unchanged in quantity.

This miserable delusion, so discreditable to a class of men who have undertaken to supply nearly the whole circulating medium of the country, in regard to the power, through the instrumentality of paper money, of creating *something* out of *nothing*, and of which but few minds appear, as yet, to be thoroughly cured in any part of the Union; this false conception began to operate strongly on the minds and feelings of the nation generally in 1834, and especially among those of the states to which we have referred, as will be satisfactorily shown in a future communication.

ART. V.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER II.

THE DOCTRINE OF LIENS WITH REFERENCE TO THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

SHIPWRIGHTS, riggers, painters, blacksmiths, and other artificers, as well as ship-chandlers, will have a possessory lien upon domestic vessels, by the common law, whenever they do work or perform labor or services, or supply materials by order of the owners, *express* or implied. One of the French writers† states the law to be, that if they are employed by a contractor who does the work by the job, and who has received the price stipulated from the owner for the building or repairing of the same, and this fact has come to the knowledge of the artificers, they have no lien upon the vessel, but a personal action against the contractor, upon whose faith they acted. But the owner should give them notice, that they may not be deceived. Should the artificers have received no notice that the contractor had been paid, or if the owner should fail so to notify them, that he was to pay the contractor alone, then they may attach the vessel for their wages; and it is held liable for their wages, costs, and interests. There is nothing which is regarded with so much favor as debts for work and labor furnished a vessel. Commerce and the country at large are interested in it, and it is right, and consonant to the laws of justice and equity, that workmen and material men should enjoy a lien upon the fabrications which they have made, and provided the materials therefor.‡

Mr. Justice Story, in the case of the schooner *Marion*,§ has stated the case of workmen who are employed upon the erection of vessels at the wharf of a stranger, and he applies the principles of law to the case, in a

* Whoever wishes to have a clear and concise explanation of the terms *cost*, *price*, and *value*, and to see the whole subject of money and its functions treated with precision, perspicacity, and ability, seldom evinced even by writers of the highest authority on currency, may read, with advantage, a pamphlet entitled, "Metallic Money, its Value and its Functions." It was printed in 1841, at the office of the Public Ledger, in Philadelphia, and has been ascribed to the pen of Mr. James Cox, of that city.

† Emerigon, p. 229.

‡ Moore vs. Hitchcock, 7 Wendell's Reps., 292.

§ 1 Story's Reps., 68.

spirit of equity which will recommend it to every candid mind. The claim was one for repairs and materials for the schooner Marion, and for work and labor done upon her in the port of New Bedford, Massachusetts. The learned judge says, "Although no state statute exists on this subject, yet, as by the common law, which is a part of the law of Massachusetts, every shipwright has a lien for repairs and work done on a ship while she is in his possession, and the owner or purchaser cannot divest that possession, except by a discharge of that lien. But this lien is strictly founded upon possession, and, therefore, if the possession either remains in the owner during the repairs, or after the repairs are made, the shipwright voluntarily yields up that possession, without payment of his charge; his lien is gone, and is no longer capable of being enforced in any manner whatsoever." The vessel was, in this case, at a wharf of a third person, who charged the wharfage to the schooner Marion, and to no person by name. While the repairs were making the owner became embarrassed, and had sold the vessel to a third party, before the suit was brought. The vessel, while at the wharf, was watched by one of the workmen of the libellant, to forbid any person who might come to remove her. The libellant did not own the wharf or hire it, nor did it appear that the libellant took the vessel into his actual custody, though he fastened the vessel to the wharf, where she lay at the time she was libelled, and during the time of the repairs; upon these facts, the learned judge says, "It seems to me, that the possession of the schooner must be deemed to have been originally taken and held by the libellant, from the time when he fastened her to the wharf until the time when she was libelled. He took and held all the possession which, in the critical circumstances, he was able to take, and he asserted his right of possession openly. It is not necessary to say that this possession was to be treated as, to all intents and purposes, a possession exclusive of the owner. No one believed it was the possession of the owner and under him, and not adverse to him, and in the nature of a bailment; but it was such a possession as is, in my judgment, sufficient to found a lien upon that possession, with the consent of the owner. The possession may, for some purposes, well be deemed the possession of the owner, as, for example, to entitle him to an action for any tort done to the vessel."

But, for the purposes of founding a lien in the shipwright, the possession must be deemed in the shipwright, as much so as if the repairs had been made in an enclosed dockyard of the shipwright.

Whoever seeks to divest an apparent possession of a shipwright, should show, by incontestible proofs, that the real possession was understood, between the parties, to remain in the owner; and that would naturally be inferred if the ship should be repaired at the wharf or dock of the owner, and at the wharf or dock of a third person, by a direct contract between the owner of the wharf and the owner of the ship, with which the shipwright had no privity or connection. But in a somewhat peculiar case, called *THE HULL of a new brig*, which was a case under the local law of the state of Maine, and which was a libel in admiralty for work and labor as a blacksmith, done and performed at Portland upon the hull of a new brig, the court say that the right to maintain jurisdiction depends upon the fact whether there is a lien at the time when the suit is commenced, and that upon the length of time for which it is to endure: most maritime liens are limited in point of duration, not indeed by positive enactments, but by the

general law and doctrine of courts of admiralty. The lien of bottomry, of seamen's wages, and of material men, may be displaced by lapse of time or gross neglect in enforcing it. There is probably no lien enacted by positive local law in any one of our states which is not limited in point of duration of time, and yet it may certainly be enforced by proceedings commenced within that period in any proper tribunal having cognizance thereof. In this case, the court decreed that the libellant could not recover, from the evidence, and came to the conclusion that the libellant was hired by his employer at monthly wages upon a "*quantum meruit*," to do any work and labor in which he might choose to employ him. Although principally employed in blacksmith's work, he was not to be paid by particular daily wages for his work and labor done on the brig, nor could he be said in any just sense to have trusted to the brig as his security for payment of his wages. He was employed to do any blacksmith's work in which the employer might choose to employ him, not only upon vessels but upon carts, in shoeing cattle, and other ways. He was not to receive any distinct wages for work done upon this brig, but this work and labor on the brig was merely a portion of the ingredients which entered into his earnings, to be allowed and paid for by monthly wages, "*quantum meruit*." The court say, how, in a case like the present one, can we fix the value of the services of the libellant in the work and labor done on this vessel?—what part of the wages due to him upon this general retainer are to be paid by this vessel?

The employer, in such a case, may have a lien for the work, for the other party is his servant. But it is difficult to perceive the ground upon which the servant can entitle himself to any lien. The contract mentioned in the statute of Maine, and which gives the lien, must be, not a general contract or retainer for labor and services, but a specific contract or retainer for the particular vessel embraced and referred to in the contract.

The work and labor on this vessel, and the compensation therefor, were merged in the more general contract and retainer in the common employment and general business of the contractor. There never was any distinct agreement for the work and labor on this vessel with the libellant, and consequently there never was any lien thereon under the statute of the state. It is laid down as law by the same learned judge in his work on agency,* in the case of mechanics who were entitled to liens for work and labor, that the possession need not be the actual possession of the party himself, for it is sufficient if the possession be by his servants or agents in the proper discharge of their duty; neither need the possession always be direct and actual. It is sufficient if it be constructive; and, in point of law, every merchant understands that if property is at sea, the endorsement of the bill of lading will confer a constructive possession sufficient to create a lien. The delivery of a bill of sale of a ship at sea will be a constructive possession sufficient to sustain a lien, if the ship is taken possession of within a reasonable time after her return. So the delivery of a policy of insurance will give a lien thereon; but a lien will not arise where there is an express agreement between the parties not to insist upon it, and it is clear, from the whole transaction, that the party trusted to the personal credit of his debtor.

In case of possessory liens, they will be lost by the party claiming

* Story's Agency, p. 364. Read *vs.* the Hull of a new brig, 1 Story's Reps., 254.

them; voluntary parting with the possession of the thing upon which they attach; so, where a party should cause the property to be taken in execution, he would lose or waive his lien; so, where he converts it to his own use, or injures or destroys it, he will lose his lien. But he may simply transfer his lien to another by assignment of it, and the assignee will hold the property subject to the lien.* And where the property has been taken from the party by fraud or force, or by mistake, the lien is not gone, but the property may be followed. Even where the law does not give a lien to artificers and shipwrights upon vessels, their tackle, apparel, and furniture, without a possession being retained, yet the lien may be created in various ways.

1. By an express contract.
2. By an implied contract, or by the usage of trade.
3. By mere act or operation of law.

This is deemed the true source of the particular lien of salvors, common mechanics, *shipwrights*, and other *artificers*, by the *maritime law*. The same rule applies to cases in the civil law. The lien may be created by a contract expressed or implied, or by a usage of trade, or the custom of merchants, or by act and operation of law; contracts for liens may be made by a verbal agreement or by a written instrument, or by a sealed one, and the lien may be implied by tacit consent; and in the case of artificers who build or repair a ship, the lien is created by act and operation of law when there is no agreement expressed or implied. But this lien is good no longer than the party holds possession, either absolutely or constructively. To form a lien at common law, it is necessary that the party claiming it should be in an actual or constructive possession of the thing. The possession must be a lawful one, which can only arise from a just possession under the owner or other party against whom the claim exists. A person cannot acquire a lien to himself, founded upon his own illegal, wrongful, or tortious act. Misconduct, fraud, or breach of duty in obtaining possession of the property, would bar a lien even in the hands of a third party. Thus a master of a vessel who runs away with a ship, could not hypothecate her, and a merchant who should fit out a vessel for the owner to carry on the slave trade, or to go on a voyage of piracy, knowing the object of the illegal voyage, could not acquire a lien on the vessel.

Neither can the party create a lien if he exceeds his authority, or confer it upon others. The possession need not be the actual possession of the party himself, for it is sufficient if the possession be by his servants or agents in the proper discharge of their duty; neither need the possession always be direct and actual.

Common carriers, wharfingers, supercargoes, and masters of ships, all have a lien upon the vessel and cargo; and papers committed to their custody for the sums due them for their commissions, disbursements, advances and services, other than master's wages, in and about the same.†

Consignees of a vessel and agents have also a lien on their vessels and goods for moneys paid, and liabilities incurred for the same; and unless the usage of trade and the course of dealings, or the agreements of the parties, dispenses with the lien upon the property, they hold it until they are secured for such liabilities, and such advances are reimbursed.

* 6 Wendell's Repts., 603. *Everett vs. Coffin*.

† Ware's Admiralty Repts., p. 149. *The brig Spartan*.

In general, a person who holds a lien for advances on work and labor, or services, has a two-fold remedy: he may retain possession of the thing, and yet he can prosecute the owner by a suit at law in possession; for the general rule of law is that the owner trusts both to the possession of the fund or property, and to the person of the owner; but the personal responsibility may be waived by the express agreement or the usage of trade, and in the case of sub-agents they usually are employed by the principal agent, and then no privity exists between the principal owner and the sub-agent, and therefore they must look to their immediate employers. But as respects those who employ the sub-agents, the latter are clothed with precisely the same rights, and incur precisely the same obligations, and are bound by the same duties in regard to their real employers as if they were the principals.

But where a privity exists in regard to the principal and sub-agent, the latter will acquire a lien against the principal to the extent of the services performed, and advances made and disbursements paid out on account of the sub-agency, as the agent would directly against the principals.

A sub-agent or contractor, who is employed either by the express or implied assent of the owner to perform a particular service, such as to repair a vessel, will hold the same lien upon the property in his possession, when he acts *bona fide*, as the principal agent would for his commissions, advances, disbursements, and liabilities therefor, whenever the principal owner either adopts or ratifies his acts, or whenever he seeks to avail himself of the benefit of the transaction. We will suppose a case, where a mechanic agrees with the principal owner to build a ship, and to look solely to the owner's personal responsibility to obtain payment, and he afterwards sub-contracts the building of the vessel to another person, who is a sub-agent or sub-mechanic, can such mechanic hold a lien upon the property as against the owner? Reason will answer not, if he is acquainted with the character of the first contract, for it is the rule of law, in the codes of all nations, that the incident of a thing is bound by the condition of the principal; but when the sub-contractor or agent acts within the scope of the authority of the principal agent, and, at his request, disburses money, or performs work, labor, or services upon the property, before any notice of the real state of the title to the property is acquired or given to him, he will be entitled to his lien as against the real owner. But he cannot shut his eyes to the facts of the case, and go on against his reasonable diligence, about the ownership of the property, and acquire a general lien; whatever would lead him to make enquiry about the true ownership is held, in equity, equivalent to a notice. He can, in no case, be considered an innocent party, when, by the facts and circumstances of the case, he might have believed he was acting for an agent. Whenever a party, by using due diligence, could have acquired the information, he will be held bound to have made the enquiry.* So, properly, a bailee may retain possession of property committed to his charge, until he obtains a reasonable payment for his bailment. This subject will apply, more particularly, to the custody of the merchandise unladed from the ship, as well as the furniture belonging to the vessel, sails, boats, and rigging; indeed, wharfingers and storekeepers hold property committed to their care, by virtue of their bailment.

* Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 5.

In regard to contracts for the building of vessels, they sometimes are made upon principles of purely a *quantum meruit*, at other times they are made in the gross; that is, a ship-builder contracts to deliver on the water, in complete order, a new vessel, for which he obligates himself to find and deliver everything of a proper proportion, and of the best workmanship, for a gross sum, to be paid him when the ship is delivered. At other times, the ship-builder is to build a vessel, and receive payment of the owner at stipulated times, and it is presumed that a default or payment will authorize proceedings to be instituted against the vessel, partially built, to recover the stipulated payment, whenever the maritime or local law gives the remedy. At Hamburgh, in Europe, the usual terms of payment for building a vessel are said to be—

1. When the keel is stretched.
2. When the beams are laid.
3. When the ship is launched.
4. When the rudder is hung.

In Prussia, a ministerial warrant is required for the building of a merchant ship, and if the prescription, stating the quality of the materials, the solidity of the structure, the size of the vessel, and other things, is violated, the government may, according to the circumstances, cause the work to be taken apart, and the materials sold for the account of the builder.*

We will suppose that a vessel is commenced, and the owner makes default in his payments, what is the remedy of the ship-builder? By the laws of Altona, in Holland, the ship-builder who repairs or builds a vessel, and who still retains the possession, may, in default of payment, institute an action of hypothecation, and obtain a decree to sell the vessel by public advertisement, at a time therein to be specified. The lien upon a vessel is said to be retained as long as the old keel remains, and the identity of the ship can be proved. This applies to the repairs of a vessel, where the work is made of old timber and new. This is the case in regard to bottomry claims, and other liens which attach to a vessel, regardless of the change the vessel has undergone. In the United States, in the case of domestic vessels, the courts of admiralty possess and entertain jurisdiction to enforce the lien of material men upon the water. But these liens must be connected with and arise from some business, employment, or work and labor connected with maritime affairs, for navigation or shipping. In order to give the court jurisdiction, either in *rem* or *personam*, the libel must show or allege that the vessel, upon which a lien is claimed, is of a size, and built and fitted for maritime employment, and that her business is to be maritime navigation, or, at least, navigation upon waters which are, in some part thereof, tide waters, or navigable to and from those waters.

The courts of admiralty do not possess jurisdiction over a vessel not engaged in a maritime trade and navigation, though, on her voyage, she has touched at one terminus of them on tide-waters, her employment having been, substantially, on waters or rivers above where the tide ebbs and flows. Hence, steamboats and other vessels engaged in navigating the fresh water lakes in North America, on the Mississippi river and its tributaries above tide-water, are not embraced in the terms admiralty and maritime jurisdiction. The admiralty courts do not hold cognizance of

* 1 Paige's Chan. Reps., p. 452. Pitney vs. Leonard.

such cases, and resort must be had to the local or state courts, to enforce liens on ships and vessels in such cases.*

And it appears that different persons are deemed in law to possess different liens at the same time. Thus, wharfingers and shipwrights each may have what is in law a possession of a vessel, and a shipwright may have such a lien as will entitle him to maintain possession of the ship, until he obtains satisfaction of his demand, while the owner, at the same time, may maintain an action for a tort done and committed against the vessel; the liens may be concurrent, all running at the same time, and the possession, in no sense, is an exclusive one. Shipwrights, who take possession of vessels to repair, will be held to use the same care over them that they would in cases of their own vessels, in like circumstances. They are, at all times, required to keep the property in the same manner as a prudent man would keep his own. A case occurred in the London docks, where a shipwright had taken possession of a vessel for the purpose of repairing her; and the shipwright had taken the vessel into his own private dock, and after the vessel had been some time wrought upon, and in a state of forwardness to be delivered into the possession of the owner, she was unfortunately destroyed by fire. The shipwright brought an action at common law for payment of the work, labor, and services performed upon the vessel while she was in his possession, and before she was burned. The court of King's Bench, in this case, held, upon argument, that the plaintiff was entitled to recover against the owner the amount of his demand for work, labor, and services done and performed upon the vessel destroyed.

The court said that this might be a hard case; but no more so for the defendant than the plaintiff, as the vessel had been destroyed by fire, without the fault of the shipwright, who had her in his possession. That he was bound to use due diligence for the preservation of the property, and, when he had done this, his duty was performed. That he was not liable for unforeseen casualties.

When this lien once attaches, it may be enforced before the vessel is finished or sold, and the lien is not lost by a change of ownership, or of the master who ordered the materials. It cannot be divested by the act of one of the parties after it has once attached. Whenever the person has surrendered possession of the thing upon which the lien attaches, he has waived the lien, but giving credit for a fixed time for supplies does not extinguish the lien. In case of foreign ships, the state court practice, and remedies of the state courts to enforce a lien upon a domestic ship applies when the suit is brought in the domestic tribunals; but material men, having a lien by a state law, have an election to enforce it, either in the district court of the United States, in admiralty, or a state court, and the claimant must follow the plaintiff into the court chosen, and submit to the mode of trial and proceedings used in that court. The lien may be enforced in the admiralty court by a proceeding in *Rem*; and the jurisdiction of the courts of the United States is to be exercised, not according to the provisions of the state law and the course of proceedings in the state courts, which have a concurrent jurisdiction over the lien, but according to the course of proceedings in the admiralty court.

* Gilpin's Reps., 483. *Davis vs. A New Brig.* 11 U.S. Peters' Reps., p. 1791. *Phœbus vs. The Steamboat Orleans.*

Where a vessel has been sold by proceedings in the admiralty court, and a fund remains in the registry, a party having this lien may petition to the court to obtain payment out of the fund, and this is done as a matter of strict right, and without any interference from the practice of courts of the common law.

A. N.

ART. VI.—METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT SEA.

STATE OF THE TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR, AND, PARTIALLY, OF THE WATER; THE LATITUDE, LONGITUDE, WINDS AND WEATHER GENERALLY, AND CURRENTS; BEING THE RESULT OF OBSERVATIONS MADE ON BOARD THE SHIP INDEPENDENCE, COMMODORE CHARLES STUART, DURING A CRUIZE IN THE MONTHS OF FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1843, THROUGH THE WEST INDIES AND THE GULF OF MEXICO. COMMUNICATED BY JAMES MEASE, M. D., OF PHILADELPHIA.

A FEW days since I had the pleasure to receive from Commodore Stuart, *in extenso*, the statements mentioned in the title, which I have abridged and condensed as follows. The temperature of the air varied from 32° at Sandy Hook, on the 9th of February, to 69° when nine days out. During the rest of the month, and March, April, and May, the mercury fluctuated between 70° and 84° in the air. The temperature of the water, during the first five days of the cruize, varied between 54° and 67°; after which no observation on the water was made until the 28th of the month, between which day and the 7th of May it fluctuated between 64° and 82°. This last elevation, however, took place only twice, viz: on the 8th of March, at eight o'clock, P. M., two days before the ship reached Martinique, and on the 1st and 2d of May, ten and eleven days before she reached New York. On the 8th and 9th of May, the mercury stood at 54°, 52°, 50°; on the 7th of May, the three daily observations gave 78°. This diminution of temperature was to be expected, from the approach to land. I regret the omission to note the temperature of the water when off land, in the course of the cruize, and hope that, by future observers, it will be attended to. The fact of the general increased cold of the water, for which I contend, on the approach to land, even before soundings are announced, may not always take place (as stated in my paper,*) viz: the Gulf of Mexico, and in the strait between Cuba, the Tortugas, and Martyr's reefs; but on the coast of North America, Europe, and in the waters that wash the coasts of Asia, it is a never-failing test; while, on the contrary, an increase of temperature is marked the minute the Gulf stream is entered. The facts, too, which I have stated, of the detection of islands of ice from the fall of the mercury, when, from the darkness at night, or the intensity of a fog, the vision was bounded by the vessel, ought to lead to the experiments on the water every half-hour, when a vessel is in the usual route of them, in the spring and early in June. The Marine Insurance offices of Philadelphia, upon the proposition of the late Condy Raguet, president of the Atlantic company, last year printed an edition of my paper for gratuitous distribution, with the following additions:

* On the Utility of Thermometrical Observations, as connected with Navigation, and on preserving vessels from lightning.—*Merchants' Magazine*, vol. v.

1. The Remarks on Thermometrical Observations at Sea, by Captains John S. Sleeper and John Devereaux, of Boston.

2. Description of a Submarine Thermometer, for great depths, invented by the late Captain B. Connor, of Portsmouth, New Hampshire ; with a cut.

3. Description of Dearborn's Marine Warner, for detecting shoals, rocks, or soundings, without manual labor.

The remains of the impression are now in the American Insurance Company's office, Exchange, and will be presented to all commercial and naval men who personally apply for copies.

The reader will see that many cases are recorded of vessels struck with lightning, not protected by conductors, while others, equally exposed, remained uninjured, from having them in use. Mr. Harris, of Plymouth, England, from whose admirable essay on this subject* the cases were abridged, has written another paper† on it, of eighteen pages, containing the particulars of very many vessels of the British navy, which, for want of conductors, had been more or less injured by lightning ; with an account of the attendant phenomena, from official journals and other authentic sources of information.

ART. VII.—THE DEBT AND TARIFF OF PORTUGAL.

In a late number we gave a brief account of the debts and tariffs of the nations of the south of Europe. The tables then exhibited—drawn in part from the recent edition of the Conversation's Lexicon, and in part from Mr. McGregor's late work on Commercial Legislation—came, with a few exceptions, no farther down than 1840. In one instance—in that of Portugal—in which our authorities were most defective, we have since obtained access to a series of official papers, which are brought down to the present day.

In the last report of the Portuguese minister of finance—as published in the *Diario do Governo* for July 12, 1843—the main outlines of the budget for the year 1843–4, are thus laid down :—

INCOME.

Treasury department,.....	\$9,725,000
Public debt department,.....	3,097,500

EXPENSES.

Treasury department,.....	10,674,000
Public debt department,.....	3,346,250

It will be observed that the treasury bureau, and the bureau of the public debt, are thrown into separate accounts. Distinct funds are set aside, from which the interest of the public debt is to be paid ; and so religiously is the distinction observed, that in not a single instance, if we have examined the papers before us correctly, has the income thus consecrated been diverted from its channel. During the struggle which preceded the formation of the present constitution, the state found itself

* Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, vol. iii.

† Nautical Magazine, London ; June and July numbers, 1843.

unable to pay its interest more than once on the recurrence of the pay-day; but the interest thus dropped was afterwards funded, and now forms part of the national debt itself, bearing the same interest, and based on the same securities. If the sinking fund of Great Britain had been preserved with similar jealousy, it is probable that the British debt would have stopped at half its present growth; and if the repudiating states of this country would adopt the Portuguese precedent, and fund the interest due with the principal of the debt itself, the worst part of repudiation—its disgrace—would be removed.

The temporary deficit which it will be perceived that the above account exhibits, was met by the Cortes, under the direction of the minister of finance, with a series of measures, the result of which will be, when carried out, to make up, and indeed, to exceed a deficiency which is in itself but trifling. It is an index, however, we cannot but think, of a safe and conservative spirit, that instead of a fresh loan being taken to make up the loss, additional taxes to the necessary amount are imposed.

The tariff which we published in our last number, as given by Mr. McGregor, has since been greatly modified. By the law of November, 1839, a series of specific duties were imposed, from which we extract a few most interesting to the United States:—

	When Imported.	When Exported.
Cotton, colonial, per lb.,	Free.	10 reis.*
“ foreign, “	120 reis.	20 “
Whale oil, per arroba, or 32 lbs. . . .	320 “	5 “
Molasses, colonial, per arroba,	Free.	5 “
“ foreign, “	150 reis.	5 “
Sugar, colonial, “	Free.	10 “
“ foreign, “	500 reis.	10 “

You cannot be too cautious of becoming surety for others. Almost as many men are ruined in this way as by extravagance and debauchery. However little hazard there may appear, and whatever amount of confidence you may place in the honor and integrity of the applicant, never, if it can be avoided, be induced to enter into any such engagement.

I would not have you suspect every one who may apply to you for such a favor, as being a rogue—far from it; but I would have you consider the possibility of his *not being able to meet his engagement*, in which case you are as ill off as if your friend had really proved a knave; and it is but a poor consolation to be pitied under calamities you do not deserve, or to have it said of you, “He was a good-natured man, and nobody’s enemy but his own.”

In brief, as to what concerns yourself, live in such a manner as may challenge friendship and favor from all men; but defend yourself with the utmost diligence from ever standing in need of such assistance from any one. Though it be a glorious thing to bestow, it is a wretched thing to apply for; and over and above the tyranny, the capriciousness, the ingratitude, and insensibility to which you will expose yourself when reduced to such an expedient, you will see human nature in such a light as will put you out of humor with society, and make you blush for humanity. It is a true saying, and one which you will do well to bear in mind, that “The simple man is the beggar’s brother.”

* 8 reis are equal to 1 cent, or, commercially, 930 reis to \$1.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

ACTION OF TRESPASS—TO RECOVER FOR LEVYING ON PROPERTY FOR RENT.

In the Court of Common Pleas, New York, Judge Inglis presiding. Thomas L. Neville
vs. John Brower and E. Spencer.

This was an action to recover damages for levying on the plaintiff's property for rent. The plaintiff alleged that the rent was not due at the time of the levy; and even if it was, that the defendant had levied on all his chattels, without leaving him sufficient furniture for his family, which he was obliged to do under the statute. The plaintiff rented from defendants the house No. 60 Broad-street, in which he kept a tavern and boarding-house; and the defendant, Brower, made an affidavit that a certain amount of rent was due to him, and obtained a landlord's warrant, under which the other defendant levied on, and sold all the furniture in the house rented by plaintiff. It appeared that, in making the affidavit, the defendant, Brower, had in mistake sworn that a greater amount of rent was due than was actually due at the time he made the affidavit, and therefore had no right to levy on so much of the tenant's property as he did. But there was also evidence tending to show that the plaintiff had acquiesced in the sale.

The Court charged, that if a landlord levies on the goods of his tenant contrary to law, he is as liable to be sued for trespass as if he took the goods of any other person. It appeared that Mr. Brower had, in this case, sworn that an amount of rent was due before the day it actually became due; and, although it was evident he had done so in mistake, he was nevertheless answerable for it. The affidavit must be judged of as it stands, and was susceptible of no interpretation contrary to what appears on the face of the instrument; and so far Mr. Brower's distress was void, and he was liable to be proceeded against as a trespasser. But then came the question, did the plaintiff acquiesce in what was done by the defendants? It was a principle of law, that if a person was willing to suffer an injury to be done him, he could not afterwards turn round and claim damages for it. If it had been arranged between the parties that the goods were to be sold to pay the rent, which was to a certain amount due, then the defendants were not responsible.

Another question to be considered was, supposing that the defendants had authority to sell, was the sale according to law, or did the plaintiff consent to have the property on the premises sold? If he reserved any part of the goods, then the permission to sell did not extend to the portion of goods so reserved by him. There was a statute passed in April, 1842, which extended the number of articles which were before that period exempted from distress, and exempted articles which were necessary for the tenant's family, not exceeding in amount \$150. But this law was extended only to persons who provided for their family; and Mr. Neville did not provide for a family within the meaning of the law. The law meant only a person providing for a family who lived with him on the premises. But if his family lived, for instance, at Brooklyn, the law would not apply to him in relation to premises at New York. I do not think that the law intended that all furniture necessary for the boarders in a boarding-house, although they may be said to constitute part of a man's family, should be exempt from being levied on for rent. For instance, all the furniture in the Astor House would not be protected by law against being levied on. The law only means to exempt the furniture necessary for a man's own family, such as his wife, children, &c.

It was for the jury to say whether any part of the furniture levied on was necessary

for the plaintiff's family, and also whether he claimed that it should be exempted. Verdict for defendant.

WRITING ON NEWSPAPERS SENT BY MAIL.

In the United States District Court, held at Boston, Judge Sprague presiding. The United States *vs.* S. G. Grafton, for writing his name on a copy of the Boston Atlas, directed by him to a gentleman in Louisville, Kentucky, and deposited in the Boston post-office.

This was selected, out of a hundred similar instances, as a test case, there being nothing but the bare name written on the paper, to indicate by whom it was sent, and thus intended to "convey an idea." By agreement of counsel, for the purpose of carrying the question up to the Circuit court, Judge Sprague decided that the mere writing of a name on a paper was not a violation of the law—that it was not within the meaning and spirit of the prohibition.

According to arrangement, Mr. Dexter, for the United States, took exception to this opinion, and in this way the whole subject will be brought before the Circuit court. A. D. Parker for the defendant.

SEAMAN'S WAGES.

United States Court in Admiralty. Thomas Quimby and others *vs.* the brig Euphemia.

This was a suit for the recovery of seaman's wages. The libel in this case alleged a hiring of the libellants at the rate of £2 10 sterling for each per month, except Quimby, whose wages are alleged to have been £2 per month.

The owners of the vessel set up in defence, that the hiring and wages was not at the rate of the pound sterling of Great Britain, but in the currency of St. Johns, Newfoundland, worth only four dollars to the pound, and also that the libellants forfeited their wages by departing from the vessel at New York, before the voyage was finished. But it appeared upon the articles of agreement that the vessel belonged to the port of Greenwich, and that the hiring was for a voyage from St. Johns, Newfoundland, and that the stipulated wages was rated in pounds and shillings, without designation of the currency. And it was proved that the agreement was in fact in sterling money, and that the advance wages were paid in that currency, and that some of the men had shipped on a previous voyage under the same agreement, and were paid in sterling currency.

The court therefore adjudged that the libellants are entitled to receive wages at the respective rates mentioned in the articles of agreement, in sterling currency. And it further appearing that the departure of the libellants from the vessel was by express permission of the master, and that after said departure the master promised to pay their wages in full, he cannot now set up that leaving of the vessel as a desertion, nor can he allege antecedent acts of disobedience or neglect of duty on the part of the libellants as forfeiting their wages. The court therefore adjudged that libellants recover their wages, with costs.

ACTION OF EJECTMENT TO RECOVER POSSESSION OF PREMISES.

In the Superior Court, New York, Judge Jones presiding. Robert Elder *vs.* John Griswold.

This was an action of ejectment brought to recover the possession of certain premises from defendant, who was tenant of a Mr. Van Rensselaer. The plaintiff purchased the lot now claimed by him at a sale made by the loan commissioners for this county, and produced a deed from them. The defendant's counsel also admitted that the sale was made in consequence of a mortgage held by the loan commissioners; but it was contended for the defence that no valid sale had taken place, as one of the commissioners was in the state of Kentucky at the time of the sale, and according to the statute, all the com-

missioners should have been present at it. Also, that the loan commissioners gave sixty days' credit to the purchaser, which they had no right to do.

The Court said there was nothing to show that both the commissioners should be present at the sale, as it would answer no purpose whatever. They stood in the same situation as trustees, all of whom, in such a case, should give notice, and join in the deed; yet it is not necessary that all the trustees should be present at the sale. One of them is sufficient to represent the whole. The only objection which seemed to have any force, was the commissioners giving credit to the purchaser; and the Court would hesitate to say positively that the commissioners had power to give credit, as all trustees must sell for cash. But it may be said that it has not been shown that there was any injury to the parties. Short credit is, on the contrary, most generally useful, as it conduces to bring higher prices for the property. And on the whole I am inclined to think that giving this credit of sixty days would not vitiate the sale, especially as the deed was not to be given until the money was paid. Verdict for the plaintiff, giving him the premises.

CHARTER-PARTY.

Superior Court—before Chief Justice Jones. New York, June, 1843. Jonathan D. Cathell *vs.* Medad Platt.

The plaintiff is owner and master of the schooner *Sage*, and the defendant is a ship-broker. The action is brought to recover a balance on a charter-party, under the following circumstances:—

In December, 1841, Mr. Platt received directions from Messrs. J. C. & M. Stevenson, of Newbern, N. C., to charter a schooner, and take a load of shingles, lumber, &c., to Barbadoes, and other West India ports. Mr. Platt entered into a charter-party with the plaintiff, for the use of his schooner; but unfortunately, in drawing up the instrument, he put his own name in the wrong place. In reciting the agreement of the charter-party, it stated as follows:—"It is agreed between Jonathan D. Cathell, party of the second part, and Medad Platt, agent for J. C. & M. Stevenson, of Newbern, parties of the second part."

The plaintiff performed his part of the charter, and received a part of the freight-money agreed on; and as soon as he arrived here, the present suit was instituted to recover the residue from Mr. Platt. The defendant had abundant evidence to prove that Messrs. Stevenson were the real parties of the second part, and that the plaintiff well knew it; but it could not be admitted to operate against a written contract. If Mr. Platt had used the words "J. C. & M. Stevenson, by Medad Platt, their agent, parties to the second part," it would have been perfectly correct, and he could not have been held responsible; but as he transferred the words so as to bear another construction, the chief justice decided that he was liable, and a verdict was accordingly taken for the plaintiff for the amount claimed—\$1,099 73—subject to the exceptions taken as to the construction of the charter-party. For plaintiff, D. Lord, Jr.; for defendant, A. Bradley.

NOTICE TO ENDORSERS.

Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts. *Shotteau vs. Daniel Webster.*

Daniel Webster endorsed a note for \$7,000. When the note fell due, and was not paid by the maker, Mr. Webster was residing in Washington, but had an agent for the management of his private business in Boston. The holder of the note sent notice by mail to Mr. Webster, at Washington, of the non-payment; but there was no proof that he ever received it. For Mr. Webster, it was maintained that the notice should have been sent to Boston, where it was known he had his domicile. The court, however, held that the mailing of the notice to Washington was, under the circumstances, sufficient notice, and gave judgment against Mr. Webster.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

IN our last, we noticed the improvement which began to be evinced in the state of business generally. This has continued through the month, with fair prospects that the movement will be permanently forward. For the year past, money was gradually accumulating at all points; and its value, as indicated in the rates of interest, constantly decreasing, without imparting any stimulus to trade. Last winter, when the agitation in relation to the establishment of some exchequer scheme had been put to rest, a movement in stocks took place, which carried prices pretty high. The original cause of the fall of stocks was, however, want of confidence in the means and disposition of some of the states to pay. Hence, a plenteousness of money, causing a temporary rise, would not confer health to the stock market until the evil had, in some degree, been removed. That could be done only by an improvement in trade, and in the prices of produce; which, by imparting means to the tax-payers, would restore to them the will to pay. Trade was, however, exceedingly backward until about the close of April, when serious fears were entertained for the harvest of England. This imparted a spirit of speculation to the produce market, which extended itself over the western country, and prices rose in all directions. In our June number, we remarked as follows:—

“The whole country is now abounding with produce, and its average money value is rapidly rising—that is to say, as the quantities in store, at the western points of accumulation, move forward to market, the rates at the west rise, while those at the Atlantic fall. This latter favors the continued export of the surplus, while a rise of 15 to 20 per cent, in the money value at the west, affords the farmers a profit, and enables them to purchase goods in exchange, thereby laying the foundation of an immense business.”

The business now doing has been the result of that rise in prices; which, by releasing the stocks in the hands of the farmers, at remunerating prices, gave them the means of paying their store-bills, and thereby putting in operation the great circles of trade. The speculative rise there created has, however, not been sustained, because the English harvest, on which it was predicated, turns out to be good. Prices of flour have fallen near 25 per cent from their highest range. The loss has, however, been sustained mostly on the seaboard. The favorable state of the harvest abroad, although it depresses the prices of flour and provisions, stimulates the cotton trade, which is always best in England when bread is cheap, and money plenty, as is now the case. In our last, we gave some statements of the position of the cotton crop in relation to the increasing consumption of the article. During the month, speculation, based upon a short supply, has been rapidly growing; and, it would seem, far more rapidly than circumstances warrant. The stock in Liverpool is large, being near 1,052,031 bales, and money exceedingly plenty. On this basis, with the prospect of a great falling off in the crop, orders have been sent from this side to buy in Liverpool for speculation. This is likely to prove a speculative year. As a general rule, however, in the history of the cotton trade, we believe no money has ever been made by shipping on speculation. A speculative movement in the cotton market is generally on so extended a scale, and so violent in its course, that disaster, for the most part, attends it. It also imparts a vacillating movement to all other markets. The accumulations of money, which have been checked in their regular employment in business by the violent action of the tariff of last year, have already found three objects of speculation—stocks, flour, and cotton. This is the usual course after a revulsion. Different branches of trade become alternately agitated until a general movement takes place, and all business advances in prosperity in proportion to the profits realized upon produce.

The position of the cotton crop at the close of the year is as follows, as compared with former years :—

GROWTH OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Years.	N. Orleans. Bales.	Mobile. Bales.	Florida. Bales.	Georgia. Bales.	S. Carolina. Bales.	N. Carol'a and Va. Bales.	Total. Bales.
1828-29,.....	264,249	79,958	4,146	249,166	168,275	104,021	870,415
1829-30,.....	354,024	102,680	5,787	253,117	188,871	72,412	976,845
1830-31,.....	426,485	113,186	13,073	230,502	185,116	70,435	1,008,847
1831-32,.....	322,635	125,921	22,651	276,437	173,872	65,961	987,477
1832-33,.....	403,443	129,366	23,641	271,025	181,879	61,087	1,070,438
1833-34,.....	454,719	149,978	36,738	258,655	227,359	76,945	1,204,394
1834-35,.....	511,146	197,692	52,085	222,670	203,166	67,569	1,254,328
1835-36,.....	481,536	226,715	79,762	270,220	231,237	61,257	1,361,628
1836-37,.....	601,014	232,243	83,703	262,971	196,377	46,665	1,422,968
1837-38,.....	731,256	9,807	106,171	304,210	294,334	55,719	1,801,497
1838-39,.....	584,994	251,742	75,177	205,112	210,171	33,336	1,360,532
1839-40,.....	956,922	445,725	136,257	292,693	313,194	33,044	2,177,835
1840-41,.....	820,140	317,642	93,552	149,000	225,943	28,669	1,634,945
1841-42,.....	727,658	318,315	114,416	232,271	260,801	30,750	1,684,211
1842-43,.....	1,060,246	481,714	161,088	299,491	351,658	24,678	2,378,875

The exports have been for five years as follows :—

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Great Britain,.....bales	798,418	1,246,791	858,762	935,631	1,469,711
France,.....	242,243	447,465	348,776	398,129	346,139
North of Europe,.....	21,517	103,232	56,279	79,956	117,794
Other ports,.....	12,511	78,515	49,480	51,531	76,493
Total,.....	1,074,689	1,876,003	1,313,277	1,465,249	2,010,137
U. S. consumption,.....	276,018	295,193	297,288	267,850	325,129
Stock U. S., Sept. 1,....	52,244	58,442	72,479	31,807	94,486

The crop of the past year is much larger than ever before, being an increase of about 30 per cent over the average of the three preceding years, which embraced one of the largest crops ever produced. Notwithstanding this immense increase, the prices, both here and in Europe, have, for the year, closed firm, although they have averaged low throughout the season. The cheapness of the raw material, and the abundance of money in England throughout the year, have, as we explained in our last, much increased the consumption; and a new year is now opening, with every prospect of a diminished production, arising from a backwardness of the spring. A great change has, however, taken place in the management of the cotton crop. The banks of the south, which formerly were a powerful agent in assisting speculation, by enabling speculators and planters to hold, have now, for the most part, ceased to exist, more particularly in the large states of Mississippi, Louisiana, and Alabama, where 75 per cent of the whole crop is produced. Consequently, those enormous reservoirs of funds necessary to operate in so extended a market, are to be found only in the accumulations of the northern cities, and in Liverpool. Just at this juncture, however, money at both points is exceedingly abundant, and very likely to find employ in fostering speculation on grounds as plausible as those presented by the cotton market. Such violent movements are, however, to be deprecated, because of the derangement to general business which necessarily grows out of it, as well as of the losses which mostly attend it. The people of the south are deprived of artificial aid in their affairs, and have become cautious in their dealings from necessity. Hence, when high prices are imparted through speculation to the great staple, they may become the more anxious to realize, and hurry forward their cotton in a manner which will keep prices down.

The movement of cotton in the New York market is, however, in a manner indepen-

dent of the foreign market, inasmuch as the demand is mostly from the manufacturers. The export of cotton goods, mostly brown shirtings, has been, owing to the low prices, very large, as follows:—

Exports of cotton goods from New York, from January 1, to September 1, 1842,	packages	12,176
Exports of cotton goods from New York, from January 1, to September 1, 1843,	packages	26,578
Increase,	packages	14,402

The large export completely exhausted stocks, and stimulated a great activity among the manufacturers, many of whom work double time. The consumption of cotton, as appears above, was last year about 7,000 bales per week; and it is now estimated that the manufacturers' demand in New York nearly equals that rate. The stock held here is about 45,000 bales, in strong hands. This is equal to about six weeks' consumption; and, from present appearances, new cotton cannot be received much before December. Hence the state of the trade, in and about New York, is exceedingly healthy. The stock of manufactured goods was last year large, and prices fell to very low rates in February and March, when an extensive export trade set in, and was favored by the manufacturers in order to clear the markets of the stocks, and afford a fair field for the opening of the home trade. Up to this time, the export has continued so effectually, that prices have improved, and the coarser qualities of cotton goods are now not to be had in any quantities, notwithstanding the increased animation of the manufacturers.

Notwithstanding the large amount of exports during the past year, and the limited amount of goods imported, the supply of bills is unusually scarce at this season. This, we apprehend, arises from the great and sudden fall in bills last winter, which gave more than usual profit on the importation of coin, and thereby somewhat overdid the matter. In our June number, in remarking upon the progress of the import of the precious metals, we expressed our belief that some portion of specie would go back before the bills of the new crop should come forward. These reshipments are now, to some extent, taking place. The following is a table of the rates of bills for four months in each of the last three years:—

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN NEW YORK.												
	1841.				1842.				1843.			
	Sterling.		Francs.		Sterling.		Francs.		Sterling.		Francs.	
July,	8½ a	8¼	5,27 a	5,28	6 a	6½	5,42 a	5,45	8¼ a	9	5,25 a	5,26
August,	8¼ a	9	5,25 a	5,27	6 a	6½	5,42 a	5,41	9 a	9½	5,22½ a	5,25
Sept'r,	9½ a	9¾	5,18 a	5,20	8½ a	8¾	5,30 a	5,31	9¼ a	9½	5,22½ a	5,25
Oct'b'r,	9¾ a	10¼	5,17½ a	5,18	6½ a	6¾	5,35 a	5,36
Nov'r,	10 a	10¼	5,20 a	5,21	6 a	6½	5,40 a	5,42

We observe, in the foregoing table, that the rates are much in advance of those of last year, but do not reach those of the same period of the previous year. Large exports of specie take place. At the present rates of sixty days' bills, with interest at 2 per cent in England, there is but little temptation to send specie; and the quantity which arrives from the West Indies, and other quarters, is fully equal to the amount of silver and gold which goes to France and England.

The year 1841 was a disastrous one in cotton. In June and February of that year, the price commenced falling; and the decline had reached 2½ a 3 cents per lb., before October, involving the failure of numerous large firms in Liverpool, New York, and the south, to an extent of liabilities which reached near \$10,000,000. An immense amount of bills came back, and produced such discredit, that many preferred remitting specie to buying bills, even when the rate was favorable to the latter medium. The consequence was a very high rate of money, and large shipments of coin. There has been this year, com-

paratively, but little speculation in cotton, and prices have gradually been rising. Hence, most of the bills offering command confidence, and are available as a remittance in preference to specie, at their full market value. The growing trade in provisions with England brings into market an increasing amount of bills not so well known, although equally good. These, however, give support to the market, and will gradually become important.

As business progresses, the abundance of money seems rather to increase than otherwise, and large accumulations are now seeking investments at the low rate of 3 per cent. Hence, stocks preserve their high rates, and show some tendency to advance. The following are the prices at which transactions have taken place:—

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate.	Redeemable.	Feb., 1842.	April, 1843.	May, 1843.	Sept., 1843.
United States,	5½	1844	96 a 97	... a ...	109 a 101½	102 a 103
“	6	1844	97 a 99	... a ...	101 a 102	102½ a 103½
“	6	1862	... a ...	112 a 113	111½ a 113	114½ a 114½
“	5	1853	... a a a ...	103 a 103½
New York,...	7	1848-49	... a ...	105 a 106	106 a 106½	107 a 107½
“	6	1850-54-60	79 a 80	103 a 105	105½ a 106	106½ a 106½
“	6	1861-62-67	78 a 80	103 a 105	106½ a 106½	108½ a 108½
“	5½	1860-61-65	71 a 73	97 a 98	100 a 101	102 a 103
“	5	1845	80 a 87	97 a 98	96 a 98	100 a 100
“	5	1846-7-8-9	80 a 87	... a ...	95 a 96	97 a 100
“	5	1850-1-7	80 a 87	... a ...	95 a 95½	99 a 100
“	5	1855-58	68 a 72	93 a 94	95½ a 95½	98 a 99
“	5	1859-60-61	68 a 72	94 a 95	93 a 95	99 a 99
“	4½	1849-58	53 a 56	87 a 88	88 a 91	91 a 93
Ohio,.....	6	1850	68 a 70	69 a 70	84 a 85	97 a 98
“	6	1856-60	67 a 68	67 a 68	86½ a 86½	97½ a 98
“	5	1850-56	... a ...	54 a 55	70 a 75	86 a 87
Kentucky,....	6	67 a 68	89 a 89½	94 a 95	100 a 100½
Illinois,	6	1870	18 a 19	23 a 23½	29½ a 30½	37 a 38
Indiana,.....	5	25 years.	19 a 20	25 a 26	28 a 30	38 a 38½
Arkansas,....	6	35 a 45	28½ a 30	32 a 35	38 a 46
Alabama,....	6 a ...	50 a 60	65 a 70	60 a 67
“	5	50 a 55	... a ...	53 a 60	58 a 60
Pennsylvania,	5	44 a 49	41 a 42	45 a 46	55½ a 56
N. York city,	7	1857	... a ...	107 a 110	110 a 112	112 a 114
“	7	1852	... a ...	106 a 108	107½ a 109	107 a 108
“	5	1850	72 a 76	94 a 95	95 a 96	99 a 99½
“	5	1858-70	77 a 78	94 a 95	93½ a 94	99½ a ...

February, 1842, was the lowest point of depression. In April, 1843, the plenteousness of money began to stimulate the market, and prices rose rapidly. Many millions of dollars were loaned by trust and insurance companies, and banks. In May, the state of Ohio brought forward a new loan for \$1,500,000, 7 per cent, redeemable in 1851, and obtained part of it, with the privilege of taking the remainder by October. At that time, as seen by the prices above, a short 7 per cent loan was scarcely worth par; and it was supposed that the increase of business in the fall would create a demand for money, and thus lessen rather than enhance the value of the stocks. The contrary has, however, been the case. As business has improved, money has rather increased than otherwise, in abundance, and the Ohio 7 per cent stock has been sold in small amounts at 6½ per cent premium, and the remainder taken. Hence, the domestic obligations of Ohio have been redeemed in cash. The operation of business has been to turn stocks of goods into cash, instead of, as formerly, selling them for paper, which was lodged with the banks for discount, causing a demand for their facilities. The economy of the past few years has left the country much in want of goods; and the immense agricultural productions have given the means of buying. Hence the stocks of goods on the

seaboard have been gradually turned into cash at rising prices. But, notwithstanding that rise, so great had been the previous fall, that they have not yet reached a range which permits large imports, with the addition of the present high tariff added to the burdensome operation of the cash duties, without warehousing privileges. Duties upon imported goods are essentially an advance of the tax, by the merchant to the government, on consumable goods, if they are exacted before those goods are sold for consumption. Hence, the enforcement of cash duties at the entry are of the nature of a forced loan from the merchant, reimbursible when he can sell his goods. With warehousing privileges, the merchandise can be entered, repacked, and sold to quite as good advantage as in a store; and may be re-exported, or sold for consumption, without any payment of duties on the part of the importer. The tax levied by the government is then only drawn from the consumer. The average time which elapses from the import of goods to their sale for consumption, may be about three months; and the import duties in usual years are about \$20,000,000, which are required to be advanced to the government for three months by the mercantile interest, which is equal to abstracting \$5,000,000 per annum from the capital employed in commercial pursuits. It is this which weighs so heavily upon commerce, and retards a simultaneous return of activity in all departments of business. The extent to which this feature depressed commerce, may be estimated in the receipts of customs at the port of New York, for the year ending July 1st, 1843, as follows:—

Revenue accrued at the port of New York 3d quarter, 1842,.....	\$1,892,187
“ “ “ 4th “ “	1,168,680
“ “ “ 1st “ 1843,.....	1,876,874
“ “ “ 2d “ “	2,578,555
Total revenue,.....	<u>\$7,516,296</u>

According to the usual proportion, the whole revenue for the Union, at this rate, for an entire period of twelve months subsequent to the expiration of the compromise act, and when the cash duties came into operation, was but \$12,527,160, and the gross imports but \$37,581,480—a most remarkable falling off. The New York revenue for the third quarter of 1843 is about \$3,700,000, which shows considerable improvement. [See note, on page 382.]

The development of the great agricultural sources of the country are evinced in the receipts of produce at New Orleans and Buffalo, as compared with the previous year. The following is a table of the exports, from the former place, of the leading articles, for five years:—

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 1.

	1838-39.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42.	1842-43.
Cotton,.....bales	579,179	949,320	821,288	749,267	1,088,870
“hhds.	30,852	40,436	54,667	68,058	88,986
Sugar,.....bbls.	28,815	45,296	40,526	29,334	66,044
“bbls.	2,793	6,595	4,092	2,232	2,280
Molasses,.....hhds.	13,115	8,937	11,284	9,314	12,366
“bbls.	20,432	42,397	48,104	57,165	66,901
Flour,	311,343	271,495	338,772
Pork,	134,459	187,116	159,774
Bacon,	12,525	14,479	23,383
Lard,.....kegs	275,869	441,408	727,739
Beef,.....bbls.	17,649	6,261	4,424
Lead,.....pigs	388,237	447,883	542,172
Whiskey,.....bbls.	33,065	26,751	32,136
Corn,.....sacks	93,557	351,227	672,316

	1838-39.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42.	1842-43.
Ships arrived,.....	531	563	595	599	679
Barks "	146	177	191	198	283
Brigs "	407	435	325	270	532
Sch'rs "	716	682	532	327	524
Total,.....	1,800	1,847	1,643	1,403	2,018
Steamboats,.....	1,568	1,937	2,187	2,132	2,324

The produce at New Orleans last year was valued at \$45,000,000, and this year will reach \$60,000,000. The profits to the producers have not been large, but towards the close of the year sufficiently so to give an impulse to business in a direction in which it will not again be easily retarded. The surplus profits of the coming year will, in all probability, be much greater. The state of England is highly favorable to the interest of the United States. After long years of depression of trade, consequent upon high prices of food, she is, with an unparalleled repletion of money, on the eve of a fair harvest. These are circumstances calculated, in an eminent degree, to facilitate the consumption of American produce, particularly the great staples of cotton and tobacco. The fullness of the harvest prevents a sudden and great rise in bread-stuffs, which would favor speculation; but the state of the currency here, with the abundance of supply of produce insuring low prices, and the cheapness of money in England, in aid of the modification of the tariff upon American produce last year, insure a steady and large market for those articles, the export of which to England have been unimportant until the present year. The population of England has now reached a point when a full harvest is insufficient to feed the people; and every year a large import has become necessary. This import has, however, now become regular, and is compensated for in the course of trade. The low prices of food and raw materials, with the plenteousness of money, will promote activity among the people, and give them the means of purchasing goods for consumption, of which they are exceedingly in want, as is indicated in the falling off in the excise and customs duties for the past three years. These being taxes upon consumable goods, this diminution evinces the decreased quantity of those articles purchased by the masses.

EXCISE AND CUSTOMS DUTIES OF GREAT BRITAIN FOR THREE YEARS, ENDING JANUARY 5, AND THE LAST SIX MONTHS OF 1843.

Years.	Customs.	Excise.	Total Customs and Excise.	Bullion in Bank.	
1841,.....	£22,859,000	£14,785,000	£37,644,000	\$183,691,200	£14,435,000
1842,.....	23,346,000	13,328,000	36,674,000	176,035,200	26,010,000
1843,.....	21,598,000	12,517,600	34,115,000	163,752,000	54,665,000
1843, 6 mos.,	8,776,737	4,793,486	13,570,223	65,137,070	59,860,000

These amounts of bullion are those held by the bank on the first of each year, and on the 1st of August, 1843.

The fall of 1839 was the lowest point of depression on the part of the bank; and the fearful efforts then made by the bank to get back its specie, are visible in the subsequent years. The revenue derivable from consumable goods fell off \$20,000,000, showing that the powers of the people to consume had diminished 11 per cent, while the money in the bank accumulated enormously. The last six months of 1843 exhibit an improvement in the consumption of goods, stimulated by the abundance and cheapness of money, which is scarcely $1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 per cent. A new impulse is now given by a good harvest. A general inflation and rise of prices is about to take place apparently; which, on a continuance of our specie currency here, will throw an immense wealth into the hands of our people. The prospect is most propitious.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

WINE TRADE OF ENGLAND.

ALTHOUGH the consumption of spirits has increased in a slight degree since the opening of the present century in England, there has not been a corresponding increase in the use of wine, denoting the greater addictature of the people to the habits of intemperance. The consumption of wine, it appears, was much greater in England in former times, in proportion to the population, than it has been of late years. In 1700, the average annual consumption in England and Wales amounted, according to G. R. Porter, of the British Board of Trade, to a very small fraction below an imperial gallon, while at present it scarcely exceeds one-fourth of that quantity. There can be but one cause assigned for this change—excessive duties. In France, where wine may be had in almost every part of the kingdom at a low price, and where, except a trifling “octroi” levied in the towns, the produce of the vineyard is nearly duty free, the average annual consumption is equal to rather more than nineteen gallons by each individual, or more than seventy times the consumption of the United Kingdom. One effect of the high duties of Great Britain has been to confine importations to the finer kinds of wine, which are in the reach of only the easy classes.

It appears from official accounts printed by the French government, that the quantity of wine made in France, in years of ordinary or average production, amounts to 924,000,000 imperial gallons. Of this quantity, 24,530,000 gallons are imported to foreign countries, only a very small proportion of which is consumed in England. The population of Denmark, which does not equal the number of the inhabitants of London, consume more French wine than the entire population of the United Kingdom. In former times, the taste of Englishmen led them to a far greater proportionate use of French wine; but by the Methuen treaty, concluded in 1703, whereby England bound herself to impose 50 per cent higher duties on the wine of France than on that of Portugal, a great change in this respect was gradually brought about, so that the consumption of French wine was in time reduced to a quantity altogether insignificant. The Methuen treaty ceased to operate in 1831, and thenceforward the duty charged upon wines, the growth of all foreign countries, has been equalized.

The following tables, derived from official sources, present a very full statistical view of the trade in, and consumption of, different kinds of wine, in the United Kingdom, from 1784 to 1842. The first table shows the average annual revenue, gallons, population, and proportional consumption, during the last fifty-eight years—the second table, the annual consumption and relative proportions of each description of wine, rates of duty, and annual revenue, from the year 1784 to 1842.

Average Annual Revenue, Gallons, Population, and Proportional Consumption, during the last fifty-eight years.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.					
From	Years.	Average of revenue.	Average of gallons.	Average of population.	Average of con. by each individual, per annum.
1785 to 1794,	10	£889,031	5,524,890	9,300,000	3½ bottles.
1795 to 1804,	10	1,788,595	5,470,542	10,400,000	3 “
1805 to 1814,	10	1,974,102	6,015,030	12,100,000	3 “
1815 to 1820,	6	1,931,865	4,564,140	12,900,000	2 “
ENGLAND, IRELAND, AND SCOTLAND.					
1821 to 1824,	4	£1,866,730	4,792,258	21,500,000	1½ “
825 to 1840,	16	1,600,843	6,608,925	25,400,000	1 3.5 “
841,.....	1	1,800,127	6,184,960	26,715,920	1 2.5 “
842,.....	1	1,409,205	5,073,941	26,965,900	1 1.9 “

Annual Consumption and Relative Proportions of each Description of Wine, Rates of Duty, and Annual Revenue, from the year 1784 to 1842.

Year.	Average of years.	PORTUGAL.			SPANISH.			MADEIRA.			TENERIFFE.		
		Gallons.	Relative proportions per cent.	Duty. s. d.	Gallons.	Relative proportions per cent.	Duty. s. d.	Gallons.	Relative proportions per cent.	Duty. s. d.	Gallons.	Relative proportions per cent.	Duty. s. d.
From 1784 to 1785,	2	2,602,110	77.65	4 8½	619,920	18.54	4 10
" 1786 to 1794,	9	4,180,890	75.67	3 1½	921,270	16.67	3 1½	196,140	3.55	3 1½	20,370	.36	3 1½
1795,	1	5,161,170	73.52	5 0½	1,610,280	22.94	5 0½	123,430	1.74	5 0½	27,930	.39	5 0½
1796,	1	2,909,970	69.44	6 11	1,123,290	26.81	6 11	78,330	1.87	6 11	25,410	.61	6 11
" 1797 to 1802,	6	4,136,580	75.90	1,058,820	19.43	167,790	3.08	22,050	.41
1803,	1	5,616,240	75.41	8 4	1,319,810	17.72	8 4	311,220	4.17	8 4	23,310	.31	8 4
1804,	1	1,821,540	54.12	8 10	1,287,510	38.46	8 10	186,690	5.57	8 10	34,650	1.03	8 10
" 1805 to 1814,	10	3,773,070	62.73	9 1	1,464,120	24.31	9 1	353,050	5.88	9 2½	200,340	3.33	9 1
" 1815 to 1820,	6	2,525,460	55.34	828,540	18.15	359,940	6.88	175,770	3.85
1821,	1	2,343,509	50.00	959,834	20.48	400,476	8.54	160,350	3.13
1822,	1	2,375,210	51.56	967,149	21.85	341,916	7.42	129,620	2.81
1823,	1	2,492,212	51.44	1,078,922	22.27	323,734	6.68	123,036	2.54
1824,	1	2,512,343	49.95	1,217,034	24.20	297,479	5.92	117,428	2.32
1825,	1	4,200,719	52.45	4 10	1,830,975	22.86	4 10	372,524	4.65	4 10	167,108	2.09	4 10
1826,	1	2,833,688	46.77	1,622,580	24.78	286,275	4.73	134,445	2.22
1827,	1	3,222,192	47.20	1,908,331	27.96	300,295	4.40	152,938	2.24
1828,	1	3,307,021	46.18	2,097,628	29.29	272,977	3.81	137,553	1.92
1829,	1	2,682,084	43.13	1,964,162	31.60	229,322	3.68	101,699	1.64
1830,	1	2,869,608	44.60	2,081,423	32.35	217,138	3.38	101,892	1.58
1831,	1	2,707,734	43.58	5 6	2,089,532	33.63	5 6	209,127	3.36	5 6	94,803	1.51	5 6
1832,	1	2,617,405	43.88	2,080,099	34.87	159,898	2.67	72,803	1.22
1833,	1	2,596,530	41.82	2,246,085	36.17	161,042	2.60	69,621	1.12
1834,	1	2,780,303	42.90	2,279,854	35.19	150,369	2.32	62,186	.97
1835,	1	2,780,024	43.30	2,230,187	34.74	139,422	2.17	52,862	.82
1836,	1	2,878,359	42.26	2,368,413	35.07	133,673	1.96	54,584	.80
1837,	1	2,573,157	40.26	2,297,070	35.94	119,873	1.87	42,146	.66
1838,	1	2,900,457	41.49	2,497,538	35.73	110,294	1.58	97,979	1.40
1839,	1	2,921,422	41.73	2,578,997	36.84	118,715	1.67	35,178	.59
1840,	1	2,668,534	40.72	5 9	2,500,760	38.16	5 9	112,555	1.72	5 9	29,489	.45	5 9
1841,	1	2,387,017	38.59	2,412,621	39.01	107,701	1.58	25,772	.41
1842,	1	1,288,953	26.76	2,261,786	46.97	65,209	1.36	28,169	.44

Annual Consumption and Relative Proportions of Wine, Rates of Duty, and Annual Revenue, from 1784 to 1842—Continued.

Year.	Average of years.	SICILIAN.			CAPE.			FRENCH.			RHENISH.			
		Gallons.	Relative propor. per cent.	Duty. £. d.	Gallons.	Relative propor. per cent.	Duty. £. d.	Gallons.	Relative propor. per cent.	Duty. £. d.	Gallons.	Relative propor. per cent.	Duty. £. d.	Tot. gall'ns.
From 1784 to 1785,	2	97,230	2.89	9 2	31,080	.92	5 2½	625,454
" 1787 to 1794,	9	5,460	.11	3 1½	179,970	3.26	4 10	20,790	.38	5,524,890	889,031
" 1795,	1	2,730	.4	6 5	96,180	1.36	7 8½	1,050	.01	7 1¼	7,021,770	1,430,772
" 1796,	1	18,270	.44	8 3	34,020	.81	10 6¼	420	.02	9 0¼	4,189,710	1,159,523
" 1797 to 1802,	6	53,760	.99	10,710	.19	5,449,710	1,723,339
" 1803,	1	34,860	.47	135,450	1.82	12 7½	7,770	.10	10 2	7,447,860	2,141,356
" 1804,	1	16,170	.49	13 9	1,260	.03	10 11	3,347,820	2,814,356
" 1805 to 1814,	10	123,690	2.06	9 1	90,930	1.51	9,030	.15	11 3	6,015,030	1,974,102
" 1815 to 1820,	6	55,020	1.20	156,450	3.43	21,420	.47	4,564,140	1,931,865
" 1821,	1	69,102	1.48	572,131	12.20	21,991	.47	4,686,885	1,797,491
" 1822,	1	66,025	1.44	538,847	11.69	19,500	.42	4,606,999	1,794,013
" 1823,	1	79,686	1.65	555,119	11.45	25,670	.42	4,845,060	1,907,466
" 1824,	1	77,085	1.53	595,299	11.83	25,976	.52	5,030,091	1,967,953
" 1825,	1	134,609	1.68	4 10	670,639	8.37	2 5	107,299	1.34	4 10	8,009,542	1,815,053
" 1826,	1	140,318	2.30	630,436	10.41	66,994	1.10	6,058,443	1,270,118
" 1827,	1	156,721	2.30	698,434	10.23	76,161	1.11	6,826,361	1,420,550
" 1828,	1	186,537	2.60	652,286	9.11	86,905	1.21	7,162,376	1,506,122
" 1829,	1	219,172	3.53	579,744	9.32	76,396	1.23	6,217,652	1,292,402
" 1830,	1	252,513	3.92	535,255	8.32	63,322	1.06	6,434,445	1,351,607
" 1831,	1	259,916	4.18	5 6	539,584	8.68	2 9	57,888	.93	5 6	6,212,264	1,356,208
" 1832,	1	254,251	4.26	514,262	8.61	38,197	.63	5,965,542	1,519,643
" 1833,	1	312,993	5.05	232,550	3.75	43,758	.70	6,207,770	1,629,219
" 1834,	1	372,744	5.75	260,630	4.20	50,377	.77	6,480,544	1,705,580
" 1835,	1	374,549	5.83	271,661	4.23	48,696	.76	6,420,342	1,691,592
" 1836,	1	403,155	5.92	352,063	5.17	59,454	.87	6,811,212	1,793,963
" 1837,	1	373,458	5.84	440,322	6.89	44,807	.70	6,391,560	1,687,097
" 1838,	1	370,610	5.30	417,281	5.97	57,584	.82	6,990,271	1,846,056
" 1839,	1	369,417	5.26	378,636	5.41	63,937	.91	7,000,486	1,849,699
" 1840,	1	383,774	5.86	5 9	341,841	5.21	5 9	60,056	.92	5 9	6,553,992	1,872,799
" 1841,	1	401,439	6.49	353,740	5.72	55,242	.87	6,184,962	1,800,127
" 1842,	1	393,028	8.17	360,692	7.49	53,585	1.11	4,815,222	1,409,205

PROGRESS OF THE OIL TRADE AND WHALE FISHERY.

From the best accounts, we have obtained the whole number of vessels engaged in this branch of our productive industry and commerce. The whole number of vessels engaged in the whale fishery, in 1834, was four hundred and thirty-four, of which about three hundred and eighty-four were ships, and fifty barks and brigs.

Pitkin gives the following as the number of vessels, with their tonnage, and the number of men employed, in the three principal districts, in 1834:—

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
New Bedford,.....	181	56,352	4,445
Nantucket,.....	76	26,472	1,860
New London,.....	41	11,251	1,087

The remaining number, about one hundred and thirty-six, belonged to the following ports:—

Sag Harbor,.....	23	Newburyport,.....	3
Falmouth,.....	6	Edgartown,.....	6
Warren,.....	12	Salem,.....	5
Bristol,.....	13	Boston,.....	4
Newport,.....	6	New York,.....	5
Hudson,.....	11	Wareham,.....	1
Providence,.....	2	Portland,.....	1
Fall River,.....	2	Wiscasset,.....	2
Poughkeepsie,.....	2	Gloucester,.....	2
Plymouth,.....	3	Newburgh,.....	3
Portsmouth,.....	6	Greenport,.....	2
Bridgeport,.....	1		

The value of common whale oil and bone, and of spermaceti oil and candles, exported, from 1802 to 1833, was as follows:—

Years.	Whale (common) oil and bone.	Sperm. oil and candles.	Years.	Whale (common) oil and bone.	Sperm. oil and candles.
1803,.....	\$280,000	\$175,000	1819,.....	\$431,000	\$132,000
1804,.....	310,000	70,000	1820,.....	636,000	113,000
1805,.....	315,000	163,000	1821,.....	350,480	175,117
1806,.....	418,000	182,000	1822,.....	311,415	157,286
1807,.....	476,000	130,000	1823,.....	432,115	221,309
1808,.....	88,000	33,000	1824,.....	168,272	306,014
1809,.....	169,000	136,000	1825,.....	296,425	219,867
1810,.....	222,000	132,000	1826,.....	236,845	311,621
1811,.....	78,000	273,000	1827,.....	223,604	364,281
1812,.....	56,000	141,000	1828,.....	181,270	446,047
1813,.....	2,500	10,500	1829,.....	495,163	353,869
1814,.....	1,000	9,000	1830,.....	680,693	287,910
1815,.....	57,000	143,000	1831,.....	688,282	271,356
1816,.....	116,000	59,000	1832,.....	1,196,323	305,494
1817,.....	231,000	112,000	1833,.....	1,110,139	302,040
1818,.....	495,000	294,000			

This extensive branch of the trade of this country is placed in a shape, in the following table, that shows the import, export, and value of the export of the produce the hardy sons of the east obtain from the depths of the fathomless ocean.

The following is a statement of the quantity (in barrels) of sperm and whale oil imported into the United States, from January 1st, 1836, to August 1st, 1843:—

Years.	Sperm.	Whale.	Years.	Sperm.	Whale.
1836,.....	128,686	131,157	1840,.....	157,791	207,908
1837,.....	181,723	219,133	1841,.....	159,304	207,348
1838,.....	132,356	216,552	1842,.....	165,637	161,041
1839,.....	142,336	229,783	1843, to August 1,	113,986	160,617

The following is a statement of the quantities and value of sperm oil, whale, and other fish oils, and whalebone, exported from the United States annually, from 1st October, 1836, to 30th September, 1842:—

	Sperm oil.		Whale and Fish oils.		Whalebone.	
	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Value.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Value.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
1836,.....	4,925	\$119,787	749,990	\$1,049,466	731,500	\$187,008
1837,.....	5,619	151,875	115,047	1,271,545	1,129,500	223,682
1838,.....	5,295	137,809	153,154	1,556,775	1,634,570	321,458
1839,.....	2,731	85,015	47,076	515,484	1,445,098	288,790
1840,.....	13,797	430,490	143,519	1,404,984	1,892,259	310,379
1841,.....	11,091	343,300	130,124	1,260,660	1,271,363	259,148
1842,.....	9,135	233,114	124,118	1,315,411	918,280	225,382

By the above tables, it will be seen that the imports have been so fluctuating that the business appears to be on the decline. Such is not, however, the fact. More ships are in commission this year than ever before; but the vessels afloat have not been as successful, comparatively, as in former years. The additional number engaged will swell the imports up, by the first of January, 1844, to an amount larger than any previous year.

The whole number of vessels employed in this profitable but dangerous business, out of the ports of the United States, is six hundred and forty-five, belonging as follows:—

New Bedford,.....	217	New Suffolk,.....	1
Fairhaven,.....	45	Fall River,.....	7
Falmouth,.....	6	Freetown,.....	1
Edgartown,.....	10	Portsmouth,.....	1
Holmes' Hole,.....	3	Providence,.....	8
Nantucket,.....	85	Bristol,.....	8
Dartmouth,.....	1	Warren,.....	20
Westport,.....	11	Newport,.....	12
Sippecan,.....	7	Stonington,.....	20
Mattapocsett,.....	10	Mystic,.....	8
Wareham,.....	7	New London,.....	50
Provincetown,.....	16	Bridgeport,.....	3
Plymouth,.....	7	Sag Harbor,.....	44
Newburyport,.....	1	Cold Spring,.....	3
Boston,.....	4	Greenport,.....	7
Lynn,.....	2	Hudson,.....	2
Salem,.....	8	Poughkeepsie,.....	2
Somerset,.....	2	New York,.....	2
Ducksbury,.....	1	Wilmington, (Del.),.....	3

Of the six hundred and forty-five vessels employed, only one hundred and twelve were in port on the 22d instant, leaving five hundred and thirty-three vessels afloat, actively engaged in obtaining cargoes. Many of these vessels are daily looked for, and the reports of those absent exhibit a very favorable condition of the trade.

Sperm oil does not bring in this market so high prices as it used to in previous years; but whale oil and whalebone are at present in active demand, at as fair prices as we have quoted for some years past.

The enterprise and success of this fishery, as carried on in American ships, totally disables any other nation from competing with them.

The following extract from the reports of the General Ship-owner's Society, London, for 1842 and 1843, will show under what difficulties British ships engaged in this trade labor. The measures that ruin them make us, particularly as regards this branch of business.

“Of all the changes introduced by the tariff, it perhaps may be pronounced that the reduction of duty on the importation of foreign whale oil is the most ill-advised, as it is certainly the most unjust. It has destroyed the British southern whale fishery, without affording time for the withdrawal of capital from the trade, although it conceded the justice of granting that time by postponing the alteration for one year, but with a full knowledge that the average duration of the voyages of ships engaged in the whale fishery exceeded three years. This limited and insufficient concession is palpably inconsis-

ent. The principle was admitted, while in application it was violated. The consequences were foretold—the accuracy of the prediction was confidently denied—the truth is now rapidly developing itself, as the following statement will prove :—

Number of ships fitted out for the southern whale fishery in 1841,.....	19
“ “ “ “ in 1842,.....	11
“ “ “ “ to 22d June, 1843,.....	2
Number of ships arrived from March, 1842, to 22d June, 1843,.....	20
Ships in port lying up,.....	7
Sold out of the trade,.....	6
Offered for sale,.....	8
	21

The following comment on the above is from the pen of the able editor of the London Shipping Gazette:—“ The alteration in oil has, as the report remarks, destroyed the southern whale fishery. Hampered with expenses not incurred by the ship-owners of other nations, whose vessels are occupied in the fishery, and largely impeded by the continual desertion of their crews, our ships had enough to contend against before; but the admission of foreign oil has put an end to all hope of successful competition on our part. Some few schooners may probably be still fitted out at the Australian ports, but not one ship can adventure from this country, and gain by it.”

IMPORTS OF LIQUORS INTO PORT SYDNEY, NEW SOUTH WALES.

Quantity of spirits, wine, and beer, imported into the colony in the years 1840 and 1841, with the value, at invoice price, exclusive of freight and charges, as entered in the books of the custom-house, for the port of Sydney, derived from the Sydney Morning Herald :—

	1841.		£	s.	d.
Rum,.....gallons	256,100—valued at.....		57,091	11	6
Brandy,.....	339,821 “		69,403	10	0
Gin,.....	101,952 “		22,940	3	0
Wine,.....	524,113 “		97,826	10	0
Beer and ale,.....	987,876 “		120,000	0	0
Arrack, Liqueurs, &c.,.....	39,872 “		5,722	16	0
	2,149,734		372,975	11	1
	1840.		£	s.	d.
Rum,.....gallons	254,000—valued at.....		38,419	0	3
Brandy,.....	270,142 “		68,970	17	0
Gin,.....	75,930 “		22,930	0	0
Wine,.....	624,396 “		76,605	0	0
Beer and ale,.....	870,036 “		268,300	0	0
Arrack, Liqueurs, &c.,.....	10,264 “		3,869	0	0
	2,113,875		479,093	17	3

NOTE.—The great decrease in the revenues has left the Treasury deficient \$5,000,000, up to the close of the present year. This deficit is to be supplied, under existing laws, by the issue of \$5,000,000 of Treasury notes, bearing a nominal rate of interest, say 1 mill per cent, in denominations of \$50 and upwards, redeemable in specie on demand, in the city of New York, and receivable for all government dues. It is supposed that this issue will be of great service to the mercantile community, in supplying a medium for remitting small sums of money to points where facilities for drawing do not now exist, while it will supply the wants of the government without causing any additional charge to the Treasury. The amount is limited to \$5,000,000, and probably that sum may command a small premium for exchange purposes.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

NEW ORLEANS LEVEE DUES.

THE following ordinance, amendatory of existing ordinances concerning levee dues, in and for the port of New Orleans, was ordained by the General Council, and approved by the mayor May 26, 1843 :—

1. That from and after the 31st day of August next, the levee or wharfage dues on ships and other decked vessels, and on steam vessels arriving from sea, shall be as follows :—

On each vessel under 75 tons,.....	\$15
“ of 75 and under 100 tons,.....	20
“ 100 “ 125 “	25
“ 125 “ 150 “	30
“ 150 “ 200 “	40
“ 200 “ 250 “	50
“ 250 “ 300 “	60
“ 300 “ 350 “	70
“ 350 “ 400 “	85
“ 400 “ 450 “	100
“ 450 “ 500 “	115
“ 500 “ 550 “	125
“ 550 “ 600 “	130
“ 600 “ 650 “	135
“ 650 “ 700 “	145
“ 700 “ 750 “	160
“ 750 “ 800 “	175
“ 800 “ 900 “	190
“ 900 “ 1,000 “	205
“ 1,000 “ 1,100 “	220
“ 1,100 “ 1,200 “	235
“ 1,200 and upwards,	240

2. That from and after the 31st day of August next, the levee dues on steam vessels navigating on the river, and which shall moor or land in any part of the incorporated limits of the port, shall be as follows :—

On each steamer under 75 tons,.....	\$12
“ of 75 and under 100 tons,.....	15
“ 100 “ 150 “	22
“ 150 “ 200 “	30
“ 200 “ 250 “	37
“ 250 “ 300 “	45
“ 300 “ 350 “	52
“ 350 “ 400 “	60
“ 400 “ 450 “	67
“ 450 “ 500 “	75
“ 500 “ 550 “	82
“ 550 “ 600 “	90
“ 600 “ 650 “	97
“ 650 “ 700 “	105
“ 700 and over,	120

3. That hereafter it shall not be lawful for any pirogue, flatboat, bargeboat, or keelboat, to remain in port longer than twelve days, as fixed by the thirteenth article of an ordinance approved the 21st October, 1839, under a penalty of \$25; and it shall be the duty of the wharfingers of the several municipalities to cause to be removed beyond the limits of the port any pirogue, flatboat, barge, or other craft, found in violation of this ordinance, within the limits of their respective municipalities. The fines arising from any violation hereof shall be recoverable, before any court of competent jurisdiction, of the owner, agent, or consignee of such pirogue, flatboat, or other craft, for the benefit of the municipality within which the offence may be committed.

4. That hereafter it shall not be lawful for any flatboat, keelboat, barge, or old hull, to remain within the limits of the port longer than twenty-four hours after the discharge of its cargo, under a penalty of \$25, recoverable as aforesaid; and after the expiration of said twenty-four hours, it shall be the duty of the wharfinger of either of the municipalities to cause to be removed beyond the limits of the beat, or to turn adrift, without delay, any such flatboat, keelboat, or other craft in contravention.

5. That in case any captain, owner, or person in command of any steamboat, flatboat, barge, keelboat, or other craft, shall neglect or refuse to obey the orders of the wharfinger to conform to the ordinances regulating the port, he or they shall be liable to a fine of \$25 to \$50 for each offence, recoverable as aforesaid.

6. That from and after the 31st day of August next, all ships and other decked vessels, and steam vessels, arriving from sea, which shall have landed or moored in front of one municipality, and shall have paid or be liable to pay the levee dues to such municipality, and which shall afterwards remove from such municipality to one of the other municipalities, shall pay to the municipality to which they remove, the following dues:—

All vessels over 750 tons,.....	\$3 00 per day.
“ 500 “ and less than 750,.....	2 50 “
“ 300 “ “ 500,.....	2 00 “
“ 100 “ “ 300,.....	1 50 “
All vessels under 100 “	75 “

Such daily levee dues to be collected for every day such vessel may remain in the port of the municipality to which they may have removed, the days of removal and departure excepted.

7. That so much of all existing ordinances as is inconsistent with the provisions of this ordinance, is hereby repealed.

LAWS OF LOUISIANA RESPECTING THE PACKING OF BEEF AND PORK.

MESS PORK—Must consist of the sides of well-fattened, corn-fed hogs, weighing not less than two hundred pounds; and the flanks, with the flabby pieces cut off, may be admitted.

PRIME PORK—May be composed of three shoulders, three half heads, without the ears, snout, or brains; three tail pieces; some flanks and sides, sufficient to form the first and last layers in the barrel.

M. O. (MESS ORDINARY) PORK—Contains too small or lean pork, flabby pieces, or too much of the shoulder, or bony pieces.

P. O. (PRIME ORDINARY) PORK—Is an inferior quality, rendered so by lean meat, bad handling, or too many bony or bloody pieces.

SOFT PORK—Is such as is made from hogs fattened from mass or still slops, or sometimes by being heated. Each barrel must contain two hundred pounds of pork, be filled with the strongest brine, and then fifty pounds of Turk's island salt added.

MESS BEEF—Must be composed of the choicest sides of well-fattened, stall-fed cattle, only one choice sirloin of rump may be admitted.

PRIME BEEF—May consist of the flanks, half a neck, and legs cut above the knee, and the balance good pieces, with sides enough to form the first layer.

Beef requires more salt than pork.

The charges for inspecting pork and beef are seventy-five cents per barrel, and storage eight cents per month, after the first three days. Sometimes, when the pork has been put up by experienced hands, and is of a superior quality, and contains the amount and quantity of salt required by law, the inspectors will brand the lot by inspecting one-tenth; and then their charges are only twenty cents for branding.

All beef and pork sent to New Orleans for sale, in barrels, is liable to be forfeited if sold without inspection. It may be shipped without inspection, if notice to that effect be lodged at the custom-house within twenty-four hours after its arrival.

TONNAGE DUTIES IN LONDON.

For every ship or other vessel entering inwards or clearing outwards in the port of London, from or to any of the following countries or places, there shall be paid for every ton of her burthen, viz :—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Africa,.....	0	4	Holland, or any other of the United	0	4
America, any part of,.....	0	4	Provinces,.....	0	4
Antwerp,.....	0	4	Holstein,.....	0	4
Azores, any of,.....	0	4	Lapland, any part of,.....	0	4
Baltic sea, any country or place	0	4	Livonia,.....	0	4
within,.....	0	4	Louisiana,.....	0	4
Brabant,.....	0	4	Madeira islands, any of,.....	0	4
Bremen,.....	0	4	Mediterranean or Adriatic sea, any		
Canary islands, any of,.....	0	4	country, island, port, or place		
China,.....	0	4	within, or bordering on or near,.	0	4
Courland,.....	0	4	Mexico,.....	0	4
Denmark,.....	0	4	Norway,.....	0	4
East Indies,.....	0	4	Pacific ocean, any country, island,		
Finland,.....	0	4	port, or place within, or border-		
Flanders, or any other part of the			ing on or near,.....	0	4
Netherlands,.....	0	4	Poland,.....	0	4
Florida,.....	0	4	Portugal,.....	0	4
France, within Ushant,.....	0	4	Prussia,.....	0	4
" any other part of,.....	0	4	Russia, any part of,.....	0	4
Germany, any part of, bordering on			Spain, any part of,.....	0	4
or near the Germanic ocean,....	0	4	Sweden,.....	0	4
Gibraltar,.....	0	4	West Indies,.....	0	4
Greenland,.....	0	4	And any other country, island, port,		
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark,			or place, to the southward of		
or Man,.....	0	4	twenty-five degrees of north lati-		
Hamburgh,.....	0	4	tude,.....	0	4

COASTWISE.

For every ship or other vessel trading coastwise between the port of London and any port or place in Great Britain, Ireland, the Orkneys, Shetland, or the western islands of Scotland, for every voyage in and out of the said port, one half-penny per ton.

EXEMPTIONS UNDER THE ABOVE ACT.

Any ship or vessel coming to or going coastwise from the port of London, or to any part of Great Britain, unless such ship or vessel shall exceed forty-five tons register tonnage.

Any vessel bringing corn coastwise, the principal part of whose cargo shall consist of corn.

Any fishing smacks, lobster and oyster boats, or vessels for passengers.

Any vessel or vessels, or craft, navigating the river Thames above and below London bridge, as far as Gravesend, only.

Any ship or vessel entering inwards or outwards in ballast.*

EXEMPTIONS UNDER TREASURY AND BOARD'S ORDERS.

Any vessel whose cargo shall consist only of flour and malt. T. O. March 30, 1818.

Any vessel whose cargo shall consist principally of corn and flour. C. M. Dec. 15, 1828.

EXEMPTIONS UNDER ACT 5 and 6 Vict. cap. 47, sec. 26.

Any vessel entering inwards, or clearing outwards, in cases where the cargoes are reported for exportation, and ultimately leaving the port without breaking bulk, or taking in merchandise for exportation.

* Slate, and slates and chalk, laden on board any ship bound to foreign parts, shall be deemed to be ballast; and if, on the return of any such ship, any slate, or slates and chalk, shall be remaining on board, the same shall be deemed to be the ballast of such ship. 4 and 5 Wm. IV, cap. 89, sec. 3.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

WHEAT AND FLOUR.

Comparative statement of Flour and Wheat shipped at Buffalo, Black Rock, and Oswego, and also of the quantity arrived at tide-water to 1st August in each year from 1839 to 1843.

Years.	Shipped at Buffalo.		At Black Rock.	
	Flour. Barrels.	Wheat. Bushels.	Flour. Barrels.	Wheat. Bushels.
1839,.....	158,681	431,530	29,366	2,183
1840,.....	340,984	310,812	33,412	3,094
1841,.....	367,154	386,171	50,052	27,925
1842,.....	278,697	386,475	43,677	16,263
1843,.....	435,120	727,347	39,018	10,994

Years.	Shipped at Oswego.		Arrived at tide-water.	
	Flour. Barrels.	Wheat. Bushels.	Flour. Barrels.	Wheat. Bushels.
1839,.....	56,672	54,077	324,624	108,028
1840,.....	46,358	36,294	628,850	214,451
1841,.....	35,742	40,958	624,624	117,090
1842,.....	42,499	5,187	535,894	230,936
1843,.....	61,577	37,355	672,803	191,051

Taking flour and wheat together, (the wheat being reduced to barrels of five bushels,) the shipments at Buffalo, Black Rock, and Oswego, and the arrivals at tide-water to the 1st of August, are as follows :

Years.	Shipments equal to barrels	Arrivals equal to barrels
1839,.....	342,277	346,224
1840,.....	478,795	671,740
1841,.....	544,719	648,042
1842,.....	424,458	582,081
1843,.....	690,854	711,013

The above statement shows that the arrival in each year at tide-water to the 1st of August, since 1838, has exceeded the import from the western states, as follows:—

Of the arrival at tide-water there was—

Years.	From West. States.	From this State.	Total.
1839,.....bbls.	342,277	3,947	346,224
1840,.....	475,792	195,495	671,740
1841,.....	544,719	103,323	648,042
1842,.....	424,458	157,623	582,081
1843,.....	690,854	20,159	711,013

These excesses of arrivals of flour at tide-water in each year to the 1st of August, over the imports from western states to the same time, represent the surplus of our own state coming to tide-water in each year.

MERCHANDISE.

Statement of the tons (2000 pounds) of Merchandise sent from tide-water, and of the quantity received at Oswego, Black Rock, and Buffalo, to 1st of August in each year, from 1839 to 1843.

Years.	Shipped at Albany and W. Troy.	Oswego.	Delivered at Black Rock.	Buffalo.
1839,.....	59,779	5,230	58	20,789
1840,.....	43,255	2,766	47	10,139
1841,.....	55,972	5,174	39	13,681
1842,.....	39,258	4,189	28	10,652
1843,.....	44,666	3,899	5	14,980

CANAL TOLLS.

Amount of tolls received on all the canals of this state during

Years.	First week in August.	Total to 7th August.	Years.	First week in August.	Total to 7th August.
1839.....	\$33,048	\$794,471	1842.....	\$28,535	\$779,486
1840.....	36,541	753,067	1843.....	59,130	917,614
1841.....	44,947	957,171			

CANAL COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The following official comparative statement of leading articles from the east, taken off the Pennsylvania improvements at Pittsburgh during the first four months of navigation in each of the years 1842 and 1843, is derived from the collector's office, Pittsburgh, August 9, 1843:—

	1842.	1843.
Merchandise, including brown muslins.....lbs.	5,841,832	11,036,051
Groceries, including coffee.....	1,126,274	5,349,179
Hardware.....	1,067,963	2,131,478
Queensware.....	581,279	913,013
Drugs, dyestuffs, &c.....	93,512	531,219
Copper and tin.....	45,241	171,664
Leather.....	11,866	172,117
Clay and gypsum.....tons	78	107
H. H. goods.....lbs.	523,000	651,125
Tobacco, manufactured.....	173,342	221,632
Provisions not specified, and sundries.....	264,305	743,719
Blooms.....	5,208,218	9,018,721
Fish.....bbls.	1,709	5,651

Statement showing the amount of the leading articles shipped upon the Pennsylvania Improvements, at Pittsburgh, and cleared Eastward, during the first four months of navigation in each of the years 1842 and 1843.

	1842.	1843.		1842.	1843.
Flour.....bbls.	59,653	101,814	Cotton.....lbs.	837,111	1,009,636
Bacon.....lbs.	9,367,331	20,281,436	Hemp.....	87,293	1,292,100
Tobacco.....	8,022,623	12,988,682	Furs and peltry.....	51,487	71,265
Butter & cheese,...	78,474	392,919	Whiskey.....gals.	22,193	69,748
Lard and tallow,...	782,536	1,562,684	Groceries.....lbs.	592,854	846,855
Provisions not specified, and sund.,	723,637	1,318,916	Oil.....	3,348	31,654
Feathers.....	121,811	136,714	Furniture.....	197,649	237,515
Wool.....	229,335	1,586,505	Rags.....	99,346	215,077

In the above statement for 1843 the articles shipped eastward are, in the aggregate, over the whole tonnage of the same in 1842. The articles of bacon, lard, tallow, wool, cotton, furs and peltry, oil, rags, whiskey, provisions not specified and sundries, largely overrun their entire shipments of 1843.

Of the eastern freights it may also be remarked that, during the above period for the present year, groceries, drugs, dyestuffs and leather, are considerably over their amount for the whole of last year; while hardware, copper, tin, and various other articles not named in the above list, are about equal. One month's business, says Mr. McElroy, the collector at Pittsburgh, such as that of last May, will make the freights from the east exceed those of the whole of last year. These statements have been carefully prepared, and may be relied upon as strictly accurate.

WESTERN RAILROAD FARES.

A correspondent of the American Traveller furnishes the following statement in relation to the low-fare policy, and its effects upon this road:—

In March and April last, the expediency of reducing the rate of fare on this great line

of communication was elaborately discussed in the public prints, and two tickets were run for directors, one of which was styled the low-fare ticket. The election having resulted in the choice of a majority of the low-fare party, the first and second class rates for through-travellers were reduced in April last from \$5 and \$3 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ to \$4 and \$2 70. The measure has been silently in progress; and while little gain appears in the way-travel, as compared with the corresponding months of last year, an increase of nearly *one hundred per cent* occurred in the number of through-travellers, materially augmenting the revenue of the road, although a disproportionate share is paid to the Boston and Worcester railroad company, who would not concur in the reduction.

Number of through-passengers for May, 1843,.....	2,659 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ “ “ “ 1842,.....	1,482 $\frac{1}{2}$
Gain 79 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent,.....	1,177
Number of through-passengers for June, 1843,.....	3,813 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ “ “ “ 1842,.....	1,866
Gain 105 per cent,.....	1,947 $\frac{1}{2}$
Aggregate for May and June, 1843,.....	6,473
“ “ “ “ 1842,.....	3,348 $\frac{1}{2}$
Gain 90 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent,.....	3,125 $\frac{1}{2}$

These passengers being way-billed, having no tickets, except for the first stage, and no privilege to stop on the line, except while the train stops, cannot convert their tickets into way-tickets.

In addition to the great increase of numbers, this measure has given (as predicted) an impulse to the freight, the through-freight from Boston to Albany having been trebled in May and June last, as compared with the same months of the preceding year. The low fare is succeeding equally well with the way-travel on the Worcester railroad, as evinced by the remarkable success of the special train at 2 and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per mile between Boston and Newton.

Since the above was written, we learn from the *Miners' Journal*, of 29th July, that the managers of the Philadelphia and Reading railroad have reduced the fare for through-passengers from \$3 50 to \$2 50.

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM ALBANY TO BOSTON, 200 MILES.

In *first class* cars, through, \$7 per ton, or 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton per mile, for enumerated articles, and \$4 per ton, or 2 cents per ton per mile, for other articles in *second class* cars. When in quantities of 6000 lbs. or over, and notice is given beforehand that there will be as much as 6000 lbs., a deduction of 20 per cent is made from the above rates on certain specified articles.

Flour to Pittsfield, 27 cents; to Springfield, 33 cents; to Worcester, 34 cents; and to Boston, 30 cents; it being less trouble to take it through than to leave it on the way.

Live stock, horses and horned cattle, not over four, by special contract. The same, over four, at first class rates. All other live stock will be charged, between

Greenbush and Brighton,.....	\$8 per 2000 lbs.
Pittsfield “ “	7 “
Springfield “ “	5 “

and in proportion from intermediate places.

Sheep and lambs are estimated at 100 and calves at 125 lbs.

Swine, in quantities less than 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons in one consignment, to be charged at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons; live stock to be fed at the owners' cost.

PROGRESS OF THE DOCTRINE OF LOW FARES.

It was not without quite an effort, says the Railroad Journal, that this doctrine was adopted this season on the Western railroad, from Worcester to Albany, but its friends finally prevailed, and the result is as we anticipated, a large increase of passengers, equal, during the month of May, to 79½ per cent, and, during the month of June, to 105 per cent over the corresponding months of 1842. The Boston and Providence road also adopted the doctrine; the Paterson road followed; and now several of the southern roads *south* of Washington city, as we learn from a gentleman in Richmond, Va., have adopted lower rates. He says that the fare is now only \$20 from Washington to Charleston, S. C., while it is an *eighth* of that amount, or \$2 50, from Baltimore to Washington—forty miles, or over six cents a mile on one of the greatest thoroughfares in the United States. This is a sad mistake, as we understand the laws of trade, and will inevitably lead to an opposition line of stages, which, though it may not be successful, will injure the railroad by exciting a spirit of hostility not only to that road, but also to the whole system for a time. We would not have a company reduce their rates so as to injure the stockholders, or to prevent their receiving a fair income upon their investment; we know of no capitalists who are better entitled to liberal dividends than those who invest in works designed to facilitate communication between distant points, as they make neighbors and friends of strangers; and it is precisely on this account that we advocate a system which we believe has, in nine cases out of ten where adopted, tended directly to increase the receipts and dividends; and hence it is we desire to see the fare reduced between New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington city, on all of which roads the charges are exorbitantly high when compared with other railroads, and the travel over them.

The charge from New York to Philadelphia, \$4, Philadelphia to Baltimore, \$4, and from Baltimore to Washington, \$2 50, or \$10 50 for two hundred and thirty-four miles, is, in *these* days, on *such* a route, entirely too high, and *must* come down.

It will be said, perhaps, that the Camden and Amboy railroad company charge only \$3 in the morning to and from Philadelphia, and that, by the way of Newcastle and Frenchtown, only \$2 is charged between Philadelphia and Baltimore. True; and it is because they can *afford* to carry passengers between New York and Philadelphia, and Philadelphia and Baltimore at lower rates and *do not*, only when *obliged* to, that we complain. Their own interest would, as we contend, be ultimately, if not immediately, promoted by adopting lower rates. Of this we have not a shadow of doubt.

SCHENECTADY AND TROY RAILROAD.

We have never passed over a better laid railway-track, than that between Troy and Schenectady, connecting with the line of railroads between Troy, Schenectady, and Buffalo. The distance, twenty-one miles, is invariably run in less than an hour, including stops. The cars, of Troy make, are, we believe, unsurpassed by any in the United States, being spacious, elegantly furnished, and of the most recent and approved model, both for safety and comfort; and we do not know a more careful or efficient superintendent than C. L. Lynds, Esq.

The number of passengers which passed over this road in July of the present year, as we learn from an authentic source, was twelve thousand two hundred; and in August, twelve thousand eight hundred—showing an increase of passengers, in a single month, of six hundred. "All that is wanting at present," says the Troy Whig, "is the completion of the Troy and Greenbush road, making a continuous railroad, without ferriage, from Buffalo to Boston, Buffalo to Bridgeport, and, ere long, Buffalo to New Haven."

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.
LOUISVILLE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

WE take great pleasure in laying before our readers, by request, the third semi-annual report of the board of directors of the Louisville (Kentucky) Mercantile Library Association, entire. It exhibits that institute in a prosperous condition, and will, we hope, encourage the rising generation of American merchants at every commercial and business point of the Union, to the establishment of similar institutions.

The establishment of this association upon its liberal basis, was the offspring of enlightened mercantile munificence, and deserves honorable pre-eminence over every example for the same purpose in any city in the Union. The just pride and fame of our city is involved in its prosperity, if the means already appropriated to it have not been perverted or misapplied. If the golden ore so bountifully bestowed has not been converted into standard coin, rendered more valuable by the stamp of truth and taste, attractive to every lover of truth and learning, and worthy the approval and confidence of every one, then could hesitation and even indifference be justified. But the concurrent testimonies of the various committees of learned and practical men, who have from time to time reported upon the library; the observations of distinguished visitors, and the judgment of our discriminating and learned critics and divines, all confirm the declaration that the selection and character of the books in the library, and the periodical literature in the news-room, entitle this institution to the encouragement and support of every reflecting citizen. The library is not designed for the merchant only; it is open to all citizens and strangers, of every age, sex, and condition in life; and we esteem it our duty, as it is our ambition, to send a clear stream of knowledge through every channel of society, to build up our institution upon the basis of unchangeable love—love of knowledge, and love for the highest and purest faculties of our natures.

It is the intention of the board to supply regularly the current literature of the day, and to keep pace with this and other wants, our list of members and subscribers should be increased. Not a city in the Union, numbering the population of Louisville, but sustains liberally an institution precisely similar to this, with a library and reading-room, lectures, and classes for general improvement. Everywhere, mercantile library associations flourish vigorously, and are productive of incalculable good. They meet the wants of society, and enlist every energetic spirit in their behalf from among the clerks and young merchants. What will be said of us—what indeed could we say for ourselves, if we should permit this association to falter even in the fulfilment of that honorable destiny which we trust awaits it?

THE LIBRARY AND CATALOGUE.

At the period of the last report the library contained volumes.....	2,820
Added during the year, by purchase chiefly,.....	218

Making the present number of volumes,..... **3,038**

We refer with confidence to the books themselves for particulars as to the character of the selection.

It is with great pleasure, also, that we direct your especial attention to the catalogue. It is well arranged for exact reference, and furnishes satisfactory evidence of the success and extent of our labors in the collection of a valuable library, for the promotion of a high standard of literary and scientific merit, and a healthful course of general reading. Great care has been taken to secure works of permanent value, and attractive in character. A reference to the record book, exhibiting the works which have been in the hands of readers during the current year, will satisfy any one that we have correctly ministered to the tastes and wishes of our readers.

The number of volumes recorded during the year as having passed through the hands of members and subscribers is four thousand two hundred and seventy.

At no period of time have such great advantages been presented for the collection of a large and valuable library at moderate cost. If we persevere, with commendable industry, no work that would be agreeable to readers in any pursuit, but may soon grace the shelves of the library. Books of reference should not be overlooked; and we already number in our collection many rare and valuable works of this description. We have

received from the department of state, public documents of an interesting and important kind in a desirable form.

In the course of the last six months fifty volumes, chiefly standard works, have been bound in a substantial manner. These comprise all the books injured by usage, and most of them never before bound. No books of value have been destroyed or materially injured, which clearly demonstrates the high estimate placed upon them by the readers, and the regard paid to the regulations of the library.

At the last annual meeting the number of members and subscribers was..... 167
 The number at the present time is..... 175

The Reading Room should commend itself to every man of business in the city. The board consider this department of great importance, as is well attested by the sum expended on it. Daily papers of the most approved character, from every section of the Union, are found upon our table at an early hour of the morning. Periodical literature is acknowledged to possess at this time remarkable merit and vigor, and to the lovers of good reading, the best magazines published in England and the United States are offered in profusion. Those who visit the reading-room will cheerfully attest its usefulness, convenience, and comfort; and the great cost of supplying daily papers from distant sections, call for more extended patronage from our friends. *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* alone, will repay the merchant for a daily visit, and we particularly commend it to the members. The distinguished ability and taste of the editor, Freeman Hunt, Esq., places this magazine at the head of every production of the kind known to the merchant. The reading room contains—

American and foreign newspapers,	29
“ periodicals,	9
Foreign “ 	7

Whole number of publications,..... 45

Lectures.—The late period of our removal to this hall, and other attendant circumstances, delayed the commencement of the course of popular lectures to the 12th day of December. It is, therefore, a source of just pride to the association that, notwithstanding all adverse events, the first course of lectures was well encouraged, and has been pronounced as eminently instructive and entertaining. The course embodied thirty lectures, which were delivered two a week, as follows :—

- One Introductory : On the Philosophy of Eloquence, by Rev. E. P. Humphrey.
- Twenty-one on Chemistry, by E. A. Willard.
- Two on Natural History, by J. B. Flint, M. D.
- One on the most brilliant periods in the history of mind, by T. H. Shreve, Esq.
- One on National Character, by Rev. J. H. Haywood.
- One on Education and Common Schools, by H. Barnard, Esq., of Connecticut.
- One on Revolution, by Prof. Noble Butler.
- One on Comets and Shooting Stars, by President Harney.
- One on Education, politically considered, by S. S. Bucklin.

Mr. Willard received, as compensation, \$132 25.

The board earnestly recommend a continuance of attention to public lectures, and trust that all future courses in the hall will be crowned with deserved success. We would recommend also a strict adherence to the preference already manifested for lectures of a practical and scientific character.

The Treasury.—The board feel great satisfaction in announcing, on the authority of the treasurer's report, herewith submitted, that the association is entirely free from debt, and a balance in the treasury of \$480 15.

A balance of \$655 from donations remains uncollected. Of this sum, \$450 is considered good, and will be paid in instalments of twenty per cent every three months.

The Chamber of Commerce.—The early obligations conferred upon us by the Chamber of Commerce, and other ties which have bound us to it, together with the obvious utility of an institution for the regulation of commercial affairs and the union of commercial men, render the announcement of its discontinuance a source of great regret. Should the energy of our merchants at any time reinstate it, we trust that our debt of gratitude will not be forgotten by us, and that our co-operation will be prompt and efficient.

Conclusion.—In conclusion, we would announce to the association, that the nominating members have again declined the exercise of the right conferred by the constitution

to nominate candidates for directors. You will, therefore, be untrammelled in the selection of officers for the ensuing year.

With ordinary prudence in the conduct of our affairs, the issue of this experiment is far from a matter of doubt. It will continue to improve and increase, inspiring a love of mental culture, and scattering countless benefits far and wide over society. If our great enemy, indolence, should be overcome, and ignorance contemned, it may prove a great highway to the sanctuary of knowledge, where all may travel harmoniously for fame, for pleasure, or for profit, no one interfering with his neighbor, but each one gathering that imperishable reward which will be found a grateful refuge in adversity, and the best provision in old age.

SHOPS AT ST. THOMAS.

The great trading street of St. Thomas extends in a broad line, parallel with the water, for about a mile and a half. Here, and generally on the harbor side, lie what they term the fire-proofs—stone buildings into which you enter by large iron case doors, not unlike, in form and size, those in the towers of old churches: these admit you to a sort of superterrene vault, where long coffin-like trunks are seen in niches, or piled together almost to the roof. Such edifices, besides the defence afforded by them against an element that rages here but too frequently, have the further merit of being cool and airy from their size and loftiness. True, they cut but a sorry figure, as well in front as in their internal arrangements. Here is none of the display made at the shop windows on Ludgate-hill, nothing of agaceries within; to the street they present, when closed, the aspect of so many dungeons, and open, make just the lugubrious show one sees at an undertaker's. Articles of sale are exhibited fresh from the packages in which they arrive, to be consigned there again if declined by the customer. Canton shawls emerge in this way from their figured cases, artificial flowers bloom in plain deal boxes, and fine linen tempts you from a hair trunk. This, however, chiefly prevails in the principal stores; those of less note expose, at least, some of their goods.

MANUFACTURE OF BAGGING.

The Louisville Journal states that 14,000 tons of hemp were produced in Kentucky the past year. From this it required 8,500 tons to supply her factories, which manufactured 6,500,000 yards of bagging, and 7,000,000 lbs. of bale-rope; sufficient to rope and cover 1,100,000 bales of cotton. This leaves Kentucky 5,500 tons of hemp for exportation, which, if properly water-rotted and transported to this city, would bring \$200 per ton.

WATERMELON TRADE OF VIRGINIA, ETC.

The Richmond Compiler says it is calculated that, in the height of the watermelon season, \$500 a day are carried from Richmond to Hanover, of this description of fruit. One gentleman informed the editor that he received for watermelons sold in Richmond market, \$800 in one year. This is a small sum compared with the amounts which are received annually by some of those who grow watermelons in New Jersey, and principally for the Philadelphia and New York markets.

BANK CIRCULATION OF MAINE.

The Bank Commissioners of Maine, in their annual report, say that a sum equal to the entire aggregate circulation of their bank passes through Boston, and is redeemed there five times every year. From this it appears that the average time which a bill issued from a Maine bank is in circulation, until it is again returned to the bank for redemption, is only about two months.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Letters from New York*. By L. MARIA CHILD, author of the "Mother's Book," "Philothea," etc. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This volume, issued from the retirement in which its gifted authoress has resided among us, bears a beautiful testimony to her loving sympathy with our race, and her devoted admiration of Nature. It is replete with the sublimest reflections on the varied history of *man*;—his errors and his goodness, his duties and his neglects, his capacities for happiness and his endurance of misery; his high and lofty aspirations and his dark and gloomy despair, are portrayed in its pages with a graphic vividness, such as genius alone can draw from real life. The thronged streets of our commercial emporium, with their palaces and wretched hovels; the proud and meek, affluent and destitute, busy and idle, which crowd each avenue, are grouped here in a picture that will startle the unobserving passer through the crowd, and find deep response in the bosom of those who, with a head and heart like Mrs. Child's, contemplate the life that is evolving itself around them. But when we follow her footsteps beyond the precincts of our crowded city into the holy shrine of nature—when we ramble with her through the beautiful scenery which girds our island town, our hearts must be seared indeed by wealth or toil if, from our inmost soul, we do not respond to the joyous strains in which she pours forth her ardent admiration of the beauty and harmony of creation; and, in reading her descriptions, we feel that the deepest source of her enjoyment flows from the consciousness of fulfilled duties in the darker paths of life, among the dreary abodes of that mass of brick and mortar which she has left behind. Our space admits of no extracts, nor does it allow us a full expression of our appreciation of the work before us; but to all who, in the language of its motto,

"Would aught behold of higher worth
Than that inanimate, cold world allow'd
To the poor, loveless, ever-anxious crowd,"

we commend to peruse it for themselves, and we are convinced that none will turn from its pages without a higher view of life, its duties and its destiny.

- 2.—*The Churchman's Companion in the Closet; or, a complete Manual of Private Devotion*. Collected from the writings of Archbishop Laud, Bishop Andrews, Bishop Ken, Dr. Hicks, Mr. Kettlewell, Mr. Spenckes and other eminent Divines of the Church of England. With a preface by the Rev. Mr. Spenckes. Edited by FRANCIS E. PAGET, M. A., Rector of Elford, and Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Oxford. From the sixteenth London edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is another volume of the "Churchman's Library," uniform in every respect with "Learn to Die" and others that have preceded it. The "Churchman" will require no higher recommendation of this volume than that which he will find in the title page above quoted. It is one of the very few of the devotional works of the seventeenth century which continued to be in constant demand during the eighteenth. The elegant style of printing adopted by the Messrs. Appleton, in all their works, is worthy of high praise, as it is at once creditable to their liberality and the public, who evidently appreciate their efforts by affording adequate encouragement to their enterprise.

- 3.—*Nina*. By FREDERIKA BREMER, authoress of the "Neighbours," "the Home," etc. Translated by Mary Howitt. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is the first American edition from the advance sheets, purchased of Mrs. Howitt by the American publishers. It is scarcely necessary to say that it sustains in every respect the reputation of both author and translator. No one, who has read the former works of Miss Bremer, will forego the pleasure of enjoying the rich treat, this is so well calculated to afford.

4.—*Death, or Medorus' Dream.* By the author of "Ahasuerus." New York : Harper & Brothers. 1843.

It is very difficult for an editor of a political journal to write a notice of this little work, on account of the peculiar situation of its author. The writer of this has read several editorial criticisms, but they have all been so closely interwoven with political jabber, (and politics and poetry, of all things, are certainly the most unsisterly beings,) that it was a task to find any thing in them but attempts at vulgar ridicule. Having no particular predilection for Clayism, Van Burenism or Tylerism, being in fact rather ignorant of all that, we can approach the author without exposing ourselves to the charge of either courting smiles or fearing frowns. As for the book itself, it discovers a fine imagination, which, however, at times, carries the author so far up in the air, that the music, like that of certain larks, becomes barely audible, though once in a while a melodious note reaches the ear and fills the soul with ecstasy. The black terror of *Death* is set forth in ghastly shapes. In all places, at all times and seasons, death will come. Now *Medorus* is guided by the spirit into "star lit vales" and "shaded glens,"—now the spring and now the summer airs fan his brow—now the wintry blasts utter shrill complaints across chill fields of garish snow; in all, death alike reigns, and when he appears, his chill breath and bony hand dispel all sweet fancy's dreams. Still, when at last death has loosed the sympathies of life, from this vision of despair shall rise loftier thoughts of love and gratitude. "What then," *Medorus* concludes,

"What then is death but change, a pleasing change,
Which down the troubled stream of earth conducts
To the vast ocean of unceasing joys?
No care, no sorrow, no disease, no pain;
No restless pillow of ill fated crime;
No voice to tempt, nor tyranny to bind;
A land of song, where thrilling harp-strings ring;
A land of peace, where life perennial blooms."

It is truly a poem, and worthy of a better reception than party enmities have felt disposed to give it. That the author is young, and has not yet experienced many changing scenes of sorrow or despair himself, is easily seen; but we look forward confidently to the time when many things in his mind, now in embryo, will bud and unfold into a luxurious bloom. Success to the book.

5.—*Disce Vivere. Learn to Live.* By CHRISTOPHER SUTTEN, D. D., Late Prebend of Westminster. First American Edition. New York : D. Appleton & Co.

The Oxford edition (of which this is a reprint) of the present work, was printed from the last edition in the author's life-time, 1620. It was written after "Disce Mori," or "Learn to Die," and before "Godly Meditations on the Lord's Supper," and it may be said to come between them also in respect to the depth and seriousness of tone in which it is written. It forms one of the series of the "Churchman's Library," in course of publication by the Appletons. As specimens of American typography this Library is unrivalled.

6.—*Polynesia; or, an Historical Account of the Principal Islands in the South Sea, including New Zealand.* By the Right Rev. M. RUSSELL, LL. D., and D. C. L. New York : Harper & Brothers.

This volume forms the one hundred and fifty-eighth number of the Family Library. Its main object is to throw light on the introduction of Christianity, and the actual condition of the inhabitants in regard to industry, commerce, and the arts of social life, in those islands. It presents a clear and comprehensive view of the whole subject, and is evidently the production of one who is perfectly familiar with all the more interesting facts and details that are calculated to impart the desired information. It must necessarily take a high rank among the many useful and valuable works embraced in the admirable series of works comprising the collection.

7.—*Wanderings on the Seas and Shores of Africa.* By D. FRANCIS BACON, M. D. Part I. New York: Joseph W. Harrison.

We have only had time to glance at the first part of this new serial; but we have read and known enough of the author to satisfy us that it will afford the reader a rich fund of amusement and instruction. It is replete with incidents of deep and often thrilling interest, and is written in a graceful, but nervous style. The descriptions are generally graphic, and the information imparted exhibits the author in the light of an acute observer, and an accurate and faithful chronicler of all that met his observation on the "seas and shores" of Africa. It is neatly printed in a clear and beautiful type, and on paper and in a style far superior to the ordinary cheap literature of the day. It is to be completed in not less than five, nor more than eight semi-monthly parts, of sixty-four pages each, at twenty-five cents per part. The second number will be published on or before the fifteenth of October. It will, as we learn from Dr. Bacon, the author, contain among other things—A Narrative of Three Months' Adventures in Africa, at Cape Montserrat—Early Difficulties with the Colonists—Exposures of Hypocrisy and Fraud—Description of the country, Topographical and Geological—Climate, Soil, Productions, Modes and Means of Living—Peculiar Chronic Diseases, their causes, treatment, and cure—Sketches of Character—A Daughter of Thomas Jefferson—Negro Preaching and Practice—Historical Criticisms—Notices and Corrections of the Life of Ashmun, from the testimony of eye-witnesses—Visits to the Different Settlements—Character of Tropical Scenery—Colonial History and Statistics, illustrating the scheme of African Colonization, its prospects, degree of success, and probable ultimate fate.

8.—*The Dream of Day, and other Poems.* By JAMES G. PERCIVAL. New Haven: S. Babcock. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This beautiful volume is composed, for the most part, of a series of shorter pieces, part of which have been published in a fugitive form, at different intervals, since the publication of Mr. Percival's last volume, more than fifteen years since. The "Dream of Day," the first poem from which the volume takes its name, occupies eighteen pages, and is marked with all the author's characteristic genius. Some of the pieces in the present volume have been published in a fugitive form, and many of them, written at different intervals, have never appeared in print. Great variety of measure pervades the present collection, (more than one hundred and fifty different forms or modifications of stanza,) much of which, we are informed, is borrowed from the verse of other languages, particularly the German. Mr. Percival possesses, what he so correctly describes as the requisites of a poet, viz: a full knowledge of the science of versification, not only in its own peculiar principles of rhythm and melody, but in its relation to elocution and music; a deep and quick insight into the nature of man, in all its varied faculties, intellectual and moral—a clear and full perception of the power and beauty of nature, and of all its various harmonies with our own thoughts and feelings. He has, moreover, that sustained and self-collected state of mind that gives him the mastery of his own genius, and at the same time presents to him the ideal as an immediate reality, not as a remote conception. The traces of genius, scattered over the pages of the present volume, place beyond all cavil Mr. P.'s claim to a very high rank among the poets of modern times, and we earnestly hope he may be induced ere long to furnish a complete collection of his poetical works in one uniform edition, and thus give permanency to the fragmentary and scattered productions of his transcendent genius.

9.—*Two Discourses on Prophecy; with an Appendix, in which Mr. Miller's Scheme concerning our Lord's second advent is considered and refuted.* By SAMUEL FARMER JARVIS, D. D. LL.D. New York: James A. Sparks. 1843.

The subject of this volume, briefly expressed in the title-page, is learnedly discussed in the two discourses and the numerous and copious notes that follow, which occupy a larger space in the volume than the text.

10.—*The Double Witness of the Church.* By the Rev. WILLIAM INGRAHAM KIP, M. A., author of "The Lentient Fast." 18mo. pp. 466. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume forms one of the series of the Appletons' "Churchman's Library." The religious excitement of the time, among the different denominations throughout our land, embracing, of course, the Protestant and Catholic controversy, elicited from the author the present work; and his object, it appears, is to draw the line between what he conceives to be the two extremes—"showing that the church bears her *double witness* against them both;" and he points out "a middle path as the one of truth and safety." His views are conservative—being guided, as he assures the reader, in all cases by the principle laid down by Tertullian, that "whatever is first, is true—whatever is more recent, is spurious." The volume is divided into ten parts, under the following general propositions:—1. Introductory—Necessity for knowing the reasons why we are Churchmen. 2. Episcopacy proved from Scripture. 3. Episcopacy proved from History. 4. Antiquity of Forms of Prayer. 5. History of our Litany. 6. The Church's View of Baptism. 7. The Moral Training of the Church. 8. Popular Objections against the Church. 9. The Church in all ages the Keeper of the Truth. 10. Catholic Churchman.

11.—*Memoirs of the Life of the Rev. John Williams, Missionary to Polynesia.* By EBENEZER PROUT, of Halsted. First American Edition. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The present volume furnishes a beautiful tribute to the memory of one of the most successful and devoted missionaries of modern times. Throughout the work, it appears to have been the object of the writer, not only to trace the history of an individual, but to show the importance and glory of the principles by which he was governed, in his labors among a race of men, having as it were, "no hope and without God in the world." Those who have read the "Missionary Enterprises" of the lamented Williams, will not forego the pleasure this work cannot fail of affording them, containing as it does a mass of new and deeply interesting matter. The volume is replete with information at once interesting to the Christian and the student, who would "meekly learn and digest" the philosophy of modern missions. It is beautifully printed, and illustrated with a portrait of Mr. Williams, and the monuments erected to his memory at Rarotonga, the region of his labors, and the scene of his tragic death.

12.—*The Twin Brothers.* New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

We have not read this tale, but we are informed by one who has, that it possesses more than an ordinary share of merit. Indeed, the fact of its being sent to the publishers without the author's name, and adopted by them after a careful and critical reading, solely on its own intrinsic worth, entirely unaided by the usual qualification of established reputation, would seem a sufficient recommendation in its favor. It has, moreover, thus far received the consenting praise of the newspaper press, which is some indication, at least, of its excellence.

13.—*Alhalla, or the Lord of Talladega.* A Tale of the Creek War. With some selected Miscellanies, chiefly of early date. By HENRY ROWE COLCROFT. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

The scope for the pen of the poet and the novelist, in illustrating the character and genius of the aborigines of America, is at once rich and ample. The interest thrown around the red race will be found to assume a higher and more imaginative cast, connected with the advancing state of letters and the fine arts, as we recede from the historical era when these tribes were confessedly the lords and rulers of the land. "Their names and semblance are, in truth, infiltrated into the very elements of the American landscape, which can scarcely be contemplated without bringing out, from the latent depths of the imagination, the image of the lithe Indian, with his Robin Hood arms and his picturesque costume." The tale is not without interest; and although, as a poem, it is far from faultless, it possesses considerable merit. The versification is easy and natural, and it has some beautiful passages and graphic descriptions.

THE
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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1843.

ART. I.—THE BOOK TRADE OF GERMANY.*

THE book trade, when carried on, as it ought to be, for the intellectual and moral improvement of mankind, is certainly the most noble and most beneficial of all branches of commerce. The height at which it stands at the present time, has only been reached by degrees. The object of the following statements is to show its development, progress, and successive changes. The history of the book trade may be divided into three different periods:—

1. From the earliest records of a trade in manuscripts to the invention of the printing-press, or from B. C. 1040 to A. D. 1440.

2. From the invention of the printing-press, and the establishment of the Frankfort and Leipzig book-fairs, (1440–1545,) to the first German booksellers' association, (1765.)

3. From the formation of the first booksellers' association, (1765,) to the foundation and erection of the German booksellers' exchange at Leipzig, (1836,) and the greater development of the book trade.

In several parts of the Old Testament we find traces of the existence and circulation of books—that is, manuscripts—among the Hebrews in the time of David; but it remains doubtful whether the copyists of the laws and genealogies of the Jewish people, (who were chiefly priests,) also made copies *for sale*.

Among the *Greeks*, we find that the copyists of manuscripts made it their business not only to sell copies, but also to keep particular writers for the purpose of copying. Diogenes of Laertes mentions that there were, at Athens, public shops, in which manuscripts were sold. It appears also to have been a general custom among the learned to meet in these shops, in order to hear the reading of manuscripts, (probably for a remuneration,) or to hold lectures on new manuscripts. Hermodorus, a dis-

* An Historical and Statistical Account of the Book Trade, from the Earliest Records to the year 1840, with particular reference to Germany. By M. HENRY MEDINGER, Foreign Member of the Statistical Society of London.

eiple of Plato, is said to have carried on a considerable trade in Plato's works, but without the consent of that philosopher, and to have extended their sale as far as Sicily.

In Alexandria, then a central point for men of letters, and a seat of learning, the trade in manuscripts must have been very considerable, since there was a particular market established there for the sale of manuscripts, which was chiefly carried on by Greeks. That trade, however, soon sunk to a mere manufacturing business. A great number of manuscripts were only copied for sale—that is, hastily, without comparing them with the original; and even intentional additions were made in them, of which Strabo complains.

Of the mercantile literary intercourse of the *Romans*, we have more ample and accurate information. In the time of the republic, the Romans of distinction had copies made by their slaves, or by freedmen, of all works which they wished to possess.

These copyists were called *librarii*, or *bibliopolæ*, which name was afterwards only bestowed on the *sellers* of manuscripts. The *bibliopolæ* are first mentioned under the reign of the emperors, by several contemporary writers. They belonged, probably, to the freed class of people, who had before solely attended to the copying business.

Cicero, Horace, Martial, Catullus, &c., state the following persons as *bibliopolæ*:—The “speculative” Tryphon, the “prudent” Atrectus, the “freedman,” Tul. Lucensis, the brothers Sosius, Q. Pollius Valerianus, Decius, Ulpus, &c. They took particular care to have the copies of manuscripts carefully compared and examined—a task which was often done by the authors themselves. Yet at Rome, also, cheating took place with celebrated names, as we are informed by Galenus. The shops of the *bibliopolæ* were in public places, or frequented streets; as, for instance, in the vicinity of the Temple of Peace, the Forum, Palladium, the Sigilarii, the Argilletum, and principally in the Via Sandalinaria, as stated by Gellius. Here, as at Athens, the learned often met for discussion and lectures. Advertisements of new works were stuck up at the entrance, or upon the pillars in the interior. It appears, also, that certain sums of money were sometimes paid to the authors, and that several works were the exclusive property of some *bibliopolæ*. Those public sellers of manuscripts were not only to be met with in Rome, but also in provincial towns; and it is highly probable, though it is not recorded, that there were also many of them at Constantinople,* where literature and the arts were much cultivated.

The *Arabs* were famous for their learning; and it was particularly at the time of the Khalifs Haroun al Raschid and Mamoun, (at Bagdad.) that men of letters were cherished and favored, without distinction of religious confession. These enlightened princes caused many Hebrew, Syrian, and Greek manuscripts, to be translated into Arab; and the costly collections of manuscripts found in later years at Tunis, Algiers, and Fez, as well as those in the library of the Escorial in Spain, show that great activity must have prevailed at that time in the sale of manuscripts.

* The book-bazaar, at Constantinople, in the nineteenth century, seems to be much the same as in times of old, where some writers are employed in copying manuscripts, and other persons in coloring and glazing them. There is only one bookshop at Galata, (a suburb of Constantinople,) for European printed books.—*Vide Michaud, Voyage en Orient.*

After the fall of the Roman empire, the sciences took refuge in the rapidly increasing monasteries, where many of the monks were constantly occupied in copying manuscripts, and thus laid the foundation of valuable libraries. But the freedom of intercourse was wanting, and it was only in the twelfth century that science again ventured to leave the cloister-walls. With the rise of the University of Paris, an increase of sellers of manuscripts, particularly on the theological subjects, soon became visible in that city. Pierre de Blois mentions a "publicus mango librorum;" and, in the year 1259, special regulations were imposed by the University on these public sellers, called "librarii, id. stationarii," respecting the sale and lending (or letting-out) of manuscripts. New and more severe laws were published in 1323, from which we learn that by the name of "stationarii" were chiefly meant the booksellers, (manuscript-sellers,) and by that of "librarii," only book-brokers.

Those laws were sworn to by twenty-nine booksellers and brokers, among whom were two women. At the University of Bologna, also, similar laws, bearing the dates of 1259 and 1289, are on record; and the same existed at Vienna, and probably at Salerno, Padua, Salamanca, &c., though they are not recorded.

Not only at the universities, however, but in other towns, likewise, the sale and letting-out of manuscripts were carried on extensively, till a stop was put to the trade by an invention which enabled two men to produce, in one day, more copies than two hundred and fifty writers could have done in the same time. We mean the *printing-press*, which has so eminently contributed to raise Europe to that high station which gives her the ascendancy over all other parts of the globe.

The art of printing seems to have been exercised in China and Japan long before the time of Gutenberg. The Chinese claim to have been acquainted with it as early as the reign of their emperor Wu-Wang, B. C. 1100; but, if it be so, it has never reached a great development, since it still continues there in its primitive imperfection. It may be that it was brought to Europe by way of Venice, and that Gutenberg acquired the secret, in some way or other, during his travels and his long absence from Mayence; but, as long as the fact is not proved, he must, in Europe, be considered as the sole inventor.

Neither has it been proved that Laurence Janszoon, (Koster,) of Haarlem, introduced that art into Haarlem in the year 1430, and consequently before the time of Gutenberg. On the contrary, the result of several investigations on the subject is wholly in favour of Gutenberg.*

John Gutenberg's† great invention, which he seems to have first applied at Strasburg, between the years 1436 and 1442, but which he more extensively developed a few years later in his native town, (Mayence,) in partnership with John Fust, (Faust,) a man of fortune, who advanced the necessary capital for the printing establishment, could not fail to be hailed with welcome by all enlightened men in Europe. The Chronicle of Cologne records the year 1440 as the time of the invention, which has been

* Vide "Geschichte des Buchhandels und der Buchdruckerkunst," (History of the Book Trade and the Art of Book-Printing, by Frederick Metz.)—Darmstadt, 1834.

† He was descended from a noble family of the name of F. zum Gensfleisch, but he adopted the name of his mother, who also came from a noble family in Mayence, called zum Guten Berg.

generally adopted as the year in which the first book was printed by Gutenberg, although the work itself is without any date.

Book printing was at first executed by means of wood tables, (made of hard box-wood, or pear-tree-wood,) in which the alphabet was cut out; but Gutenberg himself soon discovered the tediousness and imperfection of that mode of proceeding, and, by dividing the alphabet, took the single letters out, and used them separately, supplying the decayed letters, from time to time, by new blocks.* The cutting out of each letter being, however, still attended with great loss of time, Gutenberg made forms of lead, into which he poured some hot metal, which were thus moulded into letters; and Peter Schoeffer, (born at Gernsheim, on the Rhine, who was at that time caligraph at the Academy of Paris, for painting the capital letters in manuscripts,) when he entered the service of Gutenberg and Fust, and married Fust's daughter, invented a steel stamp, with which he stamped the forms in copper tables, and into these forms, so cut out, he poured the liquid metal, and formed the metal letters.

In the year 1452, Gutenberg and Fust began their great enterprise of printing the Bible (in Latin) with such letters; and, after three years' laborious exertion, they finished it in splendid style. After that, some disputes arose between the partners, and they separated. Gutenberg published, in 1457, an astrological-medical calendar, with the date upon it; and Fust and Schoeffer continued the printing of bibles. Fust went several times to Paris to sell his bibles, and made a good business of it; but was at length persecuted by the monks and manuscript-sellers, and in 1466 died suddenly in Paris, which induced the monks to spread the report that the Evil One had taken him off.

The inventors at first kept their art a secret; but, in the year 1462, when Mayence was taken by storm, and half burnt by Adolphus of Nassau, many of the printers' assistants fled; and the art of printing soon spread to other parts of Germany, and subsequently to Switzerland, Italy, France, Holland, England, &c.

In the year 1530, there were already about two hundred printing-presses in Europe. The first introduction of this invention into Italy was at Subbiaco, in 1465; into Paris, in 1469; into England, (Westminster,) in 1474; into Spain, (Barcelona,) in 1475; into Abyssinia, in 1521; into Mexico, in 1550; into the East Indies, (Goa,) in 1577; into Peru, (Lima,) in 1586; into North America, (Cambridge, Boston, and Philadelphia,) in 1640, &c. Bibles, prayer-books, works on ecclesiastical history, and school-books, were most in demand at this epoch.

One of the most active printers and booksellers of this period was Ant. Kober, at Nuremberg, (1473–1513,) who had twenty-four presses, and nearly one hundred workmen in his employ, and kept open shops at Frankfort, Leipzig, Amsterdam, and Venice, all conducted with the greatest regularity and order. He had on sale not only works of his own publication, but also works of other publishers. At Ulm and Basle, there were likewise several booksellers carrying on an extensive trade. The many pilgrimages (Wallfahrten) to holy places in the interior of Germany, (which were then as much frequented as the sacred shrines in India, and

* A number of *fac similia* of the earliest prints are about to be published by Dr. Falkenstein, under the title of "Entstehung und Ausbildung der Buchdruckerkunst," (Discovery and Progress of the Art of Book-Printing.) Leipzig, printed for B. G. Teubner.

are so still in some Roman Catholic countries,) offered them good opportunities for disposing of their books, particularly of those having a religious tendency, which were then printed on cheap linen paper, instead of the expensive parchment formerly in use. But it was chiefly at Frankfort-on-Maine, where so many strangers and merchants assembled at the time of the fair, that the book trade flourished. Ant. Kober, of Nuremberg, Christ. Plantin, of Antwerp, and Stephanus, (Etienne,) of Paris, are recorded as booksellers visiting the Frankfort fair, as early as the year 1473.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the principal booksellers came from Basle, in Switzerland. One of them, Christ. Froschauer, wrote to Ulrich Zwingli, in 1526, informing him of the rapid and profitable sale of his books at Frankfort, to persons who had sent for them from all parts. In 1549, Operin, of Basle, publisher of the classics, visited Frankfort, and made a profitable speculation. At this period appeared Luther, the great champion of the Protestant world, protesting loudly and openly, both in speech and in writing, against the many abuses that had crept into the church of Rome; and the great cause of the Reformation, while it derived great assistance from the printing-press, repaid this benefit by contributing largely to its development and extension. Saxony, with its enlightened universities, (Wittenberg and Leipzig,) now became the seat and central point of free theological discussion and investigation, and the booksellers soon found it worth their while to visit also the Leipzig fair. Besides, the literary intercourse in that country was free and unfettered; whilst at Frankfort it had to contend, in later years, with several difficulties, arising from the peculiar situation of a smaller state, and the restrictions and vexations of an Imperial Board of Control, (Kaiserliche Bücher Commission,) established by the German emperor, through the influence of the Catholic clergy. Archbishop Berthold, of Mayence, had previously (in 1486) established a similar censorship in his dominions. The chief object of that Board was to watch and visit the book-shops, which in Frankfort were all situated in one street, still called the *Buchgasse*, seizing forbidden books, claiming the seven privilege copies, and, in fact, exercising the power of a most troublesome police, against which the booksellers often remonstrated, but without success. At length the principal part of the book trade withdrew to Leipzig. The last visit of any Saxon bookselling house of renown to Frankfort, was made by the *Weidmannsche Buchhandlung*, in the year 1764.

The first accurate information respecting the Leipzig book fair begins with the year 1545, when the booksellers Steiger and Boskopf, of Nuremberg, visited the fair. In 1556, Clement, of Paris, and in 1560, Pietro Valgrisi, of Venice, resorted thither.

In 1589, the number of new works brought to the fair was three hundred and sixty-two; of which two hundred were upon theological subjects, forty-eight on jurisprudence, and forty-five on philosophy and philology. Of the whole number, two hundred and forty-six, or 68 per cent, were written in the Latin language.

In 1616, the number of new works was exactly doubled. Of the whole number, (seven hundred and thirty-one,) three hundred and sixty-nine were upon theology, sixty-seven on jurisprudence, and ninety-nine on philosophy and philology. The number of works on history, geography, and politics, had increased from twenty-five to seventy-eight, and those on physics and medicine from nineteen to forty.

In 1616, there were fourteen printers and booksellers residing in Leipzig. The chief publishers there were—Jac. Apel, Joh. Boerner, Elias Rehfeld, Joh. Eyering, Christ. Ellinger, Henning Grosse, jun., Grosse, sen., Abr. Lamberg, Casp. Klosemann, Barth. Voigt, and John Perfert, who brought to the catalogue of the Easter fair, in 1616, one hundred and fifty-three new works, which they had published at Leipzig. The number of publishers, of some consideration, in other German towns, in 1616, is stated as follows :—In Frankfort-on-Maine, 8 ; Nuremberg, 7 ; Jena, 4 ; Ulm and Hamburg, each, 3 ; Wittenberg, Strasburg,* Gotha, Cologne, and Breslau, each, 2 ; Lubeck, Goslar, Rostock, and Luneburg, each, 1.

The number of publishers from abroad is not mentioned in the Leipzig catalogue, but the number of their publications is given, viz :—From Venice, 57 new works ; from France, 47, (including Lyons, with 13 ;) from Holland, 38 ; from Switzerland, 22 ; from England, 4. Unfortunately, the thirty years' war checked the book trade of Leipzig, and of all Germany. After that most calamitous war, the trade in books between Leipzig and the Roman Catholic countries of Europe, including Italy, (Venice,) almost ceased, and with France it greatly diminished. On the other hand, a new extension took place with Protestant countries, particularly with Holland, (Leyden and Amsterdam,) and the interior of Germany.

This is exhibited in a marked manner by a comparison of the year 1616 with 1716, after an interval of a century. The number in the latter year was only five hundred and fifty-eight. The greatest decrease was in theological works advocating Roman Catholic doctrines, which had dwindled from one hundred and thirty-five to one. Protestant theological works, on the other hand, had maintained their former number. At this period, the proportion of Latin works had very much diminished—out of five hundred and fifty-eight, only one hundred and fifty-seven, or 28 instead of 68 per cent, were written in that language. It is worthy of remark that, at the three periods mentioned, not a single work on philosophy or philology, written in the German language, is enumerated. Latin alone was used in treating of those subjects. At the next period, which will presently be noticed, such works in German are very numerous.

A partner of the Weidmannsche Buchhandlung at Leipzig, Phil. Erasmus Reich, gave, in 1765, the first impulse to the German Booksellers' Association, (Deutschen Buchhandler Verein.)

The laws and regulations of that association were drawn up in the same year, and signed by fifty-nine booksellers. A secretary was elected annually, and their meetings were held at the "Quandt's Hof," in Leipzig. Its chief object was directed against all counterfeit works, (Nachdruck,) and particularly against an Austrian bookseller at Vienna, of the name of J. Thom. Edler von Trattner, who carried on the counterfeit business openly and extensively.

After the death of Reich, in December, 1787, a temporary stop took place in the intercourse of the booksellers at Leipzig ; but P. G. Kummer, of Leipzig, renewed it in 1792, by hiring several rooms in Richter's Coffee-house for the meetings of the Leipzig booksellers ; and C. C. Horvath, of Potsdam, another active bookseller, founded a similar establishment in

* At that period Strasburg and all Alsace still belonged to Germany, and the German language had prevailed there from a remote age.

1797, in the Pauliner Hof, (Paulinum,) for all other booksellers from Germany, and from abroad.

How far the establishment of this association contributed to the rapid increase of the book trade of Leipzig at this period, and to what extent that increase was owing to the general development of knowledge in Germany, and a greater thirst for literary and scientific acquirements, cannot be separately distinguished; but in 1789, after an interval of sixty-three years, the number of new publications brought to the Leipzig fair had nearly quadrupled, having risen from five hundred and fifty-eight to two thousand one hundred and fifteen; and, compared with 1616, it had trebled. Theological works continued to be very numerous, although their proportion, from the greater increase of other publications, was diminished. The proportion of Latin works had fallen off, from the same cause, to 9 per cent; their actual number had increased from one hundred and fifty-seven to one hundred and ninety-three. In this year, German works on philosophy and philology are first mentioned. Several other classes of publications, also, which were not brought to the fair, or were not distinguished, in 1716, are noticed in this year. They consist of books on mathematics, natural history and agriculture, German poems, novels, and theatrical publications, works on education, and critical journals.

In this year, the following towns produced the greatest number of the new works noticed in the Leipzig catalogue:—

Leipzig,.....	355	Breslau,	48
Berlin,.....	261	Strasburg,	41
Vienna,.....	101	Dresden,	36
Frankfort,	100	Hanover,.....	36
Halle,.....	61	Erlangen,.....	35
Gottingen,	56	Brunswick,.....	30
Hamburg,	56	Gotha,.....	29
Nuremberg,.....	55	Tubingen,.....	27
Augsburg,.....	50	Jena,.....	24

and of foreign countries—

Switzerland, (Basle, Zurich, Berne, St. Gall, Winterthur,).....	91
France, (Paris, Lyons, Strasburg,).....	52
Denmark, (Copenhagen, Flensburg,).....	45
Poland, (Warsaw,).....	12
Hungary, (Presburg, Pesh,).....	12
Liefland, (Riga,).....	9
Holland, (Amsterdam, Leyden,).....	9
Italy, (Turin, Pavia,).....	6
England, (London,).....	2

In 1778, the number of sellers of books, prints, and music, in Germany and the adjacent countries, in connexion with Leipzig, is stated to have been two hundred and eighty-two. In 1795, it had increased to three hundred and thirty-two; and in 1822 it was five hundred and sixty-six.

We may insert here a classified list of the new works brought to Leipzig in 1789, and in the years previously noticed, which has been extracted from the fair catalogue, and published in Koehler's "Beiträge zur Ergänzung der Deutschen Literatur," (Contributions to a complete Exposition of German Literature,) vol. i., p. 234.

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS.	1589.	1616.	1716.	1789.
Theology, Latin, Protestant,.....	44	72	51	22
——— German, ".....	76	162	192	251
——— Latin, Roman Catholic,.....	65	117	1	14
——— German, ".....	15	18	...	74
Jurisprudence, Latin,.....	45	63	23	32
——— German,.....	3	4	10	127
Physics and Medicine, Latin,.....	17	33	16	66
——— German,.....	2	7	42	142
History, Geography, and Politics, Latin,.....	18	47	22	17
——— German,.....	7	31	72	301
Philosophy and Philology, Latin,.....	45	99	41	40
——— German,.....	155
Mathematics,.....	57
Natural History, Agriculture, &c.,.....	131
Poems, Latin,.....	12	30	3	2
——— German,.....	35
Novels and Theatrical Works,.....	276
Education,.....	69
Critical Journals,.....	136
Works on Arts, and Miscellanies,.....	13	48	85	168
Total,.....	362	731	558	2,115

At the end of the eighteenth century, and the beginning of the nineteenth, the French intrusion, and the oppressive system of the new Imperial French government, spread over Germany, checking all freedom of literary intercourse. A respectable bookseller of Nuremberg, (J. Phil. Palm,) was shot on the 26th August, 1806, by order of Napoleon, merely for having forwarded a political pamphlet directed against the despotism of the French. After the downfall of Napoleon, the German press soon recovered from its forced lethargy, and has since produced works which will always rank high in the estimation of nations.

At the Easter fair of 1825, the German booksellers' corporation was, by the exertions of Fred. Campe, of Nuremberg, of Horvath, and others, united into one public body, under the name of "Boersenverein der Deutschen Buchhandler," (Exchange Union of the German Booksellers.) Campe drew up their regulations, which were revised in 1831, and at the anniversary meeting, in 1838, published as the "Statuten für den Boersenverein vom 14 Maerz, 1838," (Statutes of the Exchange Union, 14th March, 1838.)

The number of its members was 409 in 1832, and 611 in 1839, an increase of one-half. The number in each of the intermediate years was as follows:—

1833,.....	432	1836,.....	570
1834,.....	454	1837,.....	606
1835,.....	504	1838,.....	607

On the 26th October, 1834, the first stone was laid at Leipzig of the new exchange building for booksellers. (Deutsche Buchhandler Boerse,) which was opened in April, 1836. Each member pays two dollars annually, and five dollars upon admission. Before he is received, he must prove his establishment as a bookseller by a printed circular, signed by himself and the authorities of his town, and must send to the secretary a written obligation to adhere to the regulations of the society, not to meddle with counterfeits, and, in case of a dispute, to submit to arbitrators

named by the committee. They have a printed journal of their own, "Boersenblatt für den Deutschen Buchhandel," published, from the 1st January, 1834, weekly; from the 1st January, 1837, twice a week; and during the Easter fair, daily; containing all government publications respecting the book trade in Germany and abroad, many statistical accounts, advertisements of new works, of old works wanted, &c.

The first printed catalogue of all the books brought to the Frankfort fair, appeared at that town in the year 1564, published by Geo. Willer, of Augsburg. That catalogue was continued till 1597, when it was followed by a general Fair catalogue, "Allgemeines Messverzeichniss aller Bücher, so zu Frankfurt am Main verkauft worden," (General Catalogue of all the books which were sold at the fair at Frankfort-on-Maine,) published by Peter Kropf, up to 1604.

At Leipzig, a similar catalogue was printed in 1598, to which a special privilege was granted in 1600. From that time, it has appeared annually; and since the middle of the eighteenth century it has been edited by one house, (Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.) It is published in two parts. The first part appears at Easter, and the second part in autumn, under the following title:—"Allgemeines Verzeichniss der Bücher, welche von Michaelis 1839 bis Ostern 1840, neu gedruckt oder neu aufgelegt worden sind, mit Angabe der Verleger, Bogenzahl, und Preise, nebst einem Anhang von Schriften die künftig erscheinen sollen," (General Catalogue of the books which have been printed or reprinted from Michaelmas, 1839, to Easter, 1840, with the names of the publishers, the number of sheets, and the prices; together with an Appendix, containing a list of the works which are about to appear.) "Leipzig, in der Weidmannschen Buchhandlung."

This catalogue contains an alphabetical list of the publishers, and of the new works published by them, with the number of sheets, and the shop prices—also, an alphabetical register of the names of the authors, and a separate list of all new novels, and of new works printed abroad, (foreign literature.)

Another and more correct catalogue is that of Hinrichs, which also, since 1797, has appeared twice a year, (at the Easter fair, and at the autumn, or Michaelmas fair,) and contains only the books that have really appeared, (excluding those merely advertised, which are inserted in the Weidmannsche catalogue,) though in Hinrichs's, also, the same works are sometimes inserted under two or three different titles. The Hinrichssche catalogue appears under the following title:—"Verzeichniss der Bücher und Landkarten, welche vom Jan. bis Juni, 1839, (und vom Juli bis Decbr. 1839,) neu erschienen oder neu aufgelegt worden sind, mit Angabe der Bogenzahl, der Verleger, der Preise, &c., literarischen Nachweisungen und einer wissenschaftlichen Übersicht, Leipzig, 82te und 83te Fortsetzung, 1839," (Catalogue of the books and maps which have appeared or been reprinted from January to June, 1839, and from July to December, 1839,) with a specification of the number of sheets, the publishers and prices, &c., together with literary intelligence, and a scientific review. J. C. Hinrichs, Leipzig, 82d and 83d part, 1839.)

The following lexicons serve as guides (to booksellers) for works already published:—

Theophili Georgi.—"Allgemeines Europäisches Bücher Lexicon," (General European Book Lexicon,) published by Georgi, Leipzig, 1742,

fol. ; containing all the older works, with their dates and prices, and number of sheets.

Kayser.—"Bücher Lexicon," (Book Lexicon,) Leipzig, 1835, 6 vols. 4to., published by Louis Schumann ; containing all works from 1750 to 1832.

Heinsius.—"Allgemeines Deutsches Bücher Lexicon oder vollstaendiges Alphabetisches Verzeichniss aller von 1700 bis zu ende 1834, in Deutschland und in den angrenzenden mit Deutschen Sprache and Literatur verwandten Laendern, gedruckten Bücher," (General German Lexicon of Books, or a complete Alphabetical Catalogue of all Books printed in Germany, and in the adjoining countries, connected with the German Language and Literature, from 1700 to the end of 1834,) published by Heinsius since 1793.

It may not be uninteresting to give an insight into the mode in which the book trade of Germany is carried on.

It is divided into—

1. The publisher's business (Verlagsgeschäft.)
2. The bookseller's business (Sortimentshandel.)
3. The agencies (Commissionsgeschäft.)

The first two branches are frequently united, and often all three are carried on together. The business of the publisher needs little description. He buys the manuscript from the author, and gets it printed, either by his own presses or by other parties for his account, and sends copies to such booksellers as he thinks likely to sell the work. The invoice is put on the outside of the parcel, half-folded up, so that only the head, bearing the name of the bookseller to whom it is directed, and the name of the publisher from whom it comes, is to be seen. The parcels are all put in one bale, and sent to the publisher's agent in Leipzig, who distributes them to the different agents in that town. It will be seen, in one of the accompanying tables, that every respectable bookseller of Germany employs an agent in Leipzig. Such copies of new works are called "Nova ;" on the invoice is put "pr. Nov.," (*pro Novitate*.) They are sent "*à condition*," (*à cond.*) that is, with the option to keep them, or to send them back (*zu remittiren*) after some time.

By these conditional consignments, private persons have the advantage of being able to look into the merit of a work before they are called upon to buy it, whereby new publications get to all parts of Germany, and at the same price as at the place of publication—a system which is quite peculiar to the German book trade, and which has certainly much contributed to the diffusion of knowledge in Germany. The prices are put down either at the shop price or net price. On the shop price, (*ordinair*,) a discount of one-third, or 33½ per cent, is usually allowed by the publishers to the trade for books ; and for prints and journals one-fourth, or 25 per cent. Books already published for some time are seldom sent out *à condition*, but must be ordered ; which is done by sending a small slip of paper, (*Verlangszettel*,) containing the name of the publisher, the name of the bookseller who orders, and the title of the work, to the agent of the publisher, who transmits the work by the first opportunity, and, if quickly wanted, by post.

Every publisher of note sends some copies of his publications to his agent in Leipzig, in order that he may execute, without delay, any orders

which may come in ; so that the shortest and cheapest way of procuring a work is generally by sending to Leipzig for it.

The book trade of Germany is divided into the *northern* and *southern* districts. Many of the northern publishers have a separate agent at Berlin, and many of the southern have agents at Nuremberg, Frankfort, Vienna, Stuttgart, &c. The latter town at present enjoys a high reputation for the activity of its booksellers, and the number of men of letters who reside there.*

The book trade of Stuttgart has had a gazette of its own since 1837, intended particularly for the south of Germany, (*Süddeutsche Buchhändler Zeitung*;) and there is some intention of establishing a book-fair also at Stuttgart, for the booksellers of the south of Germany and of Switzerland, many of whom do not visit Leipzig, on account of its being so distant.

The book department is so very intricate, that the chief booksellers of Germany consider it best, for the sake of facility to all parties concerned, to visit the fairs of Leipzig personally, or to send a confidential clerk to settle their accounts there with their agents, and with other booksellers from the interior and from abroad, with whom they are connected, and whom they usually meet at the Easter fair, (Leipzig has three fairs annually, but the Easter fair has been fixed upon for regulating the bookseller's accounts,) or to arrange with them respecting new publications, &c.

About fifty years ago, the new publications were only forwarded to Leipzig at the time of the Easter (*Jubiläummesse*) and autumn fair, (*Michaelismesse*), which has now been changed to monthly, or even more frequent transmissions. Many thousand bales of printed books arrive annually at Leipzig, and are again sent away from it. The books taken or ordered conditionally (*à cond.*) were regularly returned at the Easter fair, whilst now many booksellers take the liberty to extend that period, and to return such books, called "Remittenden," or, jocosely, "Krebse," (crabs,) after two or three years, to the publishers ; so that several of the latter are almost inclined not to send out any more of their publications unless they be ordered ; which, however, cannot be done without injury to themselves and to the trade at large, or without a total change in the present system.

In the first part of the eighteenth century, several means were resorted to, by some publishers, to dispose of publications, either by lowering the

* Among the former was J. G. Cotta, a name of high renown in Germany, and throughout Europe. He was a descendant of an old Italian family established at Tübingen, where his family carried on the book trade for nearly two hundred years. He received a good education at the University of Tübingen, and possessed an enlightened understanding, and a liberal, generous mind. He patronized Schiller, whose "Horen" he published in 1795. In 1797, he published Schiller's "Musen Almanach," and, later, the works of Goëthe, Herder, Johannes Müller, &c. In the year 1795, he first published a political paper, called "Posselt's Europäische Annalen," (Posselt's European Annals,) which name was afterwards (in 1798) changed into that of the "Allgemeine Zeitung," which still enjoys the reputation of being the first political paper of Continental Europe, with regard to the accuracy of its information and the number of its foreign correspondents. He left, after his death, in 1832, four establishments—at Tübingen, Stuttgart, Augsburg, and Munich—in the first three towns, under the name of J. G. Cotta'sche Buchhandlung, (Cotta's book-shop,) and in the latter (Munich) under the name of "Literarische Artistische Anstalt," (Literary and Artists' Institution.) He likewise published a literary paper of renown, "Das Morgenblatt," (since 1806,) to which are added as supplements, "Das Kunstblatt," and "Das Literaturblatt."

prices, or by selling the books by lotteries, or through Jews and brokers. But a still greater evil arose from the numerous counterfeits of works of renown. Several privileges were granted for the protection of publishers—the first, in 1496, by the German emperor. A privilege was also granted in 1527, by Duke George of Saxony, to Dr. Emser, for his “New Testament,” published by Wolfgang Stoeckel, Dresden; and Luther received likewise a full privilege for his “Translation of the Bible,” printed by Hanns Lufft, at Wittenberg, in the year 1534.

The nefarious copying of printed works was, however, carried on for years, to the great detriment of respectable publishers. These counterfeits were principally produced at Vienna, and at Reutlingen, in Würtemberg.

It is only between the years 1832 and 1836 that the counterfeiting of such works has been prohibited in Austria, Prussia, Würtemberg, Baden, and most of the minor states of Germany; and strong hopes are entertained that it will soon be abolished throughout the whole of Germany. The year 1842 was fixed upon by the Diet for that purpose.

The number of booksellers has so much increased within the last twenty years, that many respectable booksellers are complaining of swindling, underselling, and other irregularities in the trade; but in that respect the book trade may be said to suffer under the same evil as nearly all other branches of commerce, arising from an increasing population, and from a more general competition.

Many circumstances have of late operated in favor of the book trade, viz:—

1st. The extension and improvement of instruction among all classes of people.

2d. The scientific pursuits of many unlettered persons.

3d. The cheap publication of classical works, and particularly the penny literature.

4th. The encyclopedias, reviews, magazines, and journals of all kinds.

And, finally, the more elegant appearance of books adorned with steel engravings, wood-cuts, and lithographic illustrations.

But one great and important check and hindrance to literary productions still exists in Germany, viz: the censorship of the press, which is exercised in every state belonging to the German confederation. Each journal and publication under twenty sheets, whatever be the subject of which it treats—politics, literature, arts, or science—must be sent in manuscript to the censor, who strikes out what he thinks proper, before the printing of it is allowed. The delay, and frequently arbitrary or capricious interference, arising from this system, are evident; nor can it be denied that much bad feeling and discontent are thereby created. Moreover, not only all German books published in the country are subject to this censorship, but in some of the states all books imported from other states belonging to the German confederation are similarly treated. In Austria, for instance, all books coming from Prussia, or from the minor states of Germany, are considered as foreign books, and are subject to a second censorship in that country. They are either admitted free by the word “Admittitur,” or admitted with the restriction not to be advertised, “Transeat.” Sometimes they are to be delivered only to certain persons to whom the censorship has given special leave to receive them, “Erga schedam;” or they are totally prohibited, “Damnatur.” In Prussia, all

books printed out of Germany, in the German language, must be laid before the College of Upper Censorship (Ober Censur Collegium) before the sale of them is allowed.

We will now proceed to exhibit the progress of the book trade of Germany during the last few years, in a series of tables, which leave scarcely any point of information to be desired, and which afford a very complete view both of the progress of literary production and of the activity of the publishers in different parts of Germany. These statements are drawn in general from the publications emanating from Leipzig, which will, in each case, be referred to; and as almost every publisher and bookseller of any consideration in Germany is in correspondence with that town, and has an agent there, the information may be considered as complete and trustworthy.

The number of sellers of books, prints, and music, in Germany and the adjacent countries, (Switzerland, &c.,) *in connexion with Leipzig*, is stated to have been—

In 1778,.....	282		In 1822,.....	566
1795,.....	332			

According to the Directories of Müller and Schulz,* the number in each year, from 1830 to 1839, was as follows :—

In 1831,.....	830		In 1836,.....	1,210
1832,.....	985		1837,.....	1,318
1833,.....	1,010		1838,.....	1,330†
1834,.....	1,048		1839,.....	1,381
1835,.....	1,085			

From this statement, it appears that the number of booksellers in connexion with Leipzig has increased 66 per cent, or two-thirds, since 1831, and 144 per cent, or nearly one and a half times, since 1822.

The number in each of the principal towns in Germany, in 1839, was as follows :—

Leipzig,.....	116		Nuremberg,.....	28
Berlin,.....	108‡		Dresden,	27
Vienna,	49		Breslau,.....	23
Frankfort-on-Maine,	37		Munich,	20
Stuttgardt,	35§		Hamburg,.....	20

* "Verzeichniss der Buch-kunst-und-Musikalienhandlungen nebst Angabe der Commissionaire in Leipzig, Berlin, Augsburg, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Stuttgardt, und Wien," (Catalogue of book-print and music sellers, with the names of their agents in Leipzig, Berlin, Augsburg, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Stuttgardt, and Vienna.) "Liepzig, Immanuel Müller, 1840." (Published since 1817.) And "Allgemeines Adressbuch für den Deutschen Buchhandel, den Musikalien-kunst-und Landkarten Handel, und verwandte Geschäftszweige." (General Directory of the German book trade, of the music, print, and map-trades, and of the branches connected therewith.) "Edited by Otto Augustus Schulz, Leipzig, Schulz and Thomas, 1840."

† According to Schulz, the number in 1838 was only 1,298.

‡ In Berlin there were 73 booksellers, 35 printers, 34 print-sellers, 22 music-sellers, 65 lithographers, and 43 engravers and copperplate printers; but it must be observed that one firm often unites several branches.

§ In Stuttgardt there were, in 1839, 28 booksellers, including two second-hand dealers; 26 printers, possessing 19 power-presses, and 102 hand-presses, and employing 500 assistants and workmen; 5 letter-founders; 2 stereotype-founders; 48 bookbinders, with 80 assistants; and 249 authors and men of letters, exclusive of editors of newspapers. In the whole of Würtemberg there were 60 paper-mills, of which 20 were for the manufacture of "machine" paper.

Cologne,	19	Mayence,	11
Augsburg,	18	Heidelberg,	10
Prague,	18	Carlsruhe,	10
Halle,	16	Munster,	9
Gotha,	16	Darmstadt,	8
Brunswick,	13	Mannheim,	7
Magdeburg,	12	&c., &c., &c.	

Thus Leipzig, with a population of 48,000, and Berlin, with a population of 20,000, appear to have each twice as many booksellers as Vienna, with a population of 340,000, and four times as many as Dresden, which has a population of 66,000; but, owing to various circumstances, these numbers may possibly not represent the total number of booksellers in each place.

There were in Germany, in 1839—

- 212 printers.
- 28 letter-founders, and stereotype establishments.
- 92 lithographers.
- 78 map-sellers.
- 272 print-sellers.
- 230 music-sellers.
- 206 second hand booksellers.
- 116 paper manufacturers, including paper-mills.
- 243 circulating libraries and reading-rooms.

The total number of booksellers in Germany, exclusive of sellers of prints and music, at the end of the year 1836, was nine hundred and forty-one; the number of towns in which they resided was three hundred. The following is a list of the number in each country of the German confederation at that period:—

	Number of Booksellers.	Number of the towns in which they live.
1. Austria, (exclusive of her Italian dominions,).....	95	32
2. Prussia,	323	110
3. Bavaria,	102	34
4. Saxony,	142	19
5. Hanover,	17	11
6. Würtemberg,	50	15
7. Baden,	31	10
8. Electorate of Hesse,	12	7
9. Grand Duchy of Hesse,	24	6
10. Holstein,	6	4
11. Luxemburg, (belongs, as regards the book trade, to France,)
12. Saxe-Weimar,	14	5
13. Saxe-Meiningen-Hildburghausen,	4	3
14. Saxe-Altenburg,	7	3
15. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,	15	3
16. Brunswick,	12	4
17. Mecklenburg-Schwerin,	11	8
18. Mecklenburg-Strelitz,	3	3
19. Oldenburg,	1	1
20. Nassau,	7	4
21. Anhalt-Dessau,	6	2
22. Anhalt-Bernburg,	1	1
23. Anhalt-Köthen,	1	1
24. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen,	3	2
25. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,	2	1
26. Hohenzollern-Hechingen,	1	1
27. Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen,

	Number of Booksellers.	Number of the towns in which they live.
28. Lichtenstein,
29. Reuss, elder branch,.....	1	1
30. Reuss, younger branch,.....	3	2
31. Lippe-Detmold,.....	1	1
32. Schaumburg-Lippe,.....
33. Waldeck,	2	2
34. Hesse-Homburg,
35. Lübeck,.....	2	1
36. Frankfort-on-Maine,.....	24	1
37. Bremen,	5	1
38. Hamburg,.....	13	1
Total,	941	300

The number of new publications which appeared in each of the principal of those countries, and the proportion which they bore to the number of booksellers, will be seen in the following table, relating to the year 1837 :—*

	New Publications in 1837.	Average Number of Publications in 1837, to each Bookseller, in 1836.
Prussia,	2,169	6·7
Saxony,.....	1,342	9·4
Bavaria,.....	889	8·7
Württemberg,.....	609	12·
Austria,.....	491	5·1
Baden,.....	263	8·5
The four Duchies of Saxony,.....	309	7·5
The two States of Hesse,.....	263	7·3
Hanover,.....	177	10·4
Hamburg,.....	185	14·2
Frankfort-on-Maine,.....	128	5·3
Bremen,.....	33	6·6
Lübeck,.....	7	3·5
Holstein,	68	11·3
Oldenburg,	65	21·6
Mecklenburg,	46	3·3

The number of German publishers, according to the Fair Catalogue of 1836, was five hundred and thirty—in the preceding year, it was four hundred and ninety-six. The following is a list of the principal publishers, with their address, and the number of new publications which they sent to Leipzig in 1836. †

	New Publications.		New Publications.
Schlosser, at Augsburg, with.....	52	Herold, Hamburg,.....	33
Arnold, at Dresden,.....	49	Hahn, Hanover,.....	31
Manz, at Regensburg and Landshut,.....	47†	Kollman, Leipzig,.....	31
Brockhaus, Leipzig,.....	43	Barth, Leipzig,.....	30
Reimer, Berlin,.....	43	Dunker and Humblot, Berlin,.....	28
Cotta, Stuttgart,.....	42	Steinkopf, Stuttgart,.....	28
Basse, Quedlinburg,.....	40	Fried. Fleischer, Leipzig,.....	27
Metzler, Stuttgart,.....	40	Hinrichs, Leipzig,.....	27
Voigt, Weimar,.....	39	Verlags Comptoir, Grimma (Saxony)	27
Voss, Leipzig,.....	34	Baumgärtner, Leipzig,.....	24

* Taken from the Boersenblatt, 23d August, 1839.

† Taken from the Boersenblatt, 15th April, 1836.

‡ Chiefly Catholic works.

	New Pub- lications.		New Pub- lications.
Campe, Nuremberg,.....	24	Sauerlander, Frankfort-on-Maine,.	22
Riegel and Wiessner, Nuremberg,...	24	Asher, Berlin,.....	21
Heymann, Berlin,.....	23	Franz, Munich,.....	21
Kollman, Augsburg,	23	Halberger, Stuttgart,.....	21
Brodhagen, Stuttgart,.....	22	Fleischman, Munich,.....	20
Dümmler, Berlin,.....	22	Hermann and Langbien, Leipzig,.	20
Hofman and Campo, Hamburg,.....	22	Reiger and Co., Stuttgart,.....	20
Rawache Buchhandlung, Nuremberg,	22	Leske, Darmstadt,.....	20

The following are the principal booksellers at Leipzig who acted, in 1839, as agents for German and foreign booksellers :—

	Houses. (Firms.)		Houses. (Firms.)
Anstalt für Kunst und Literatur,*...	21	Leich,	27
Arnold,	7	Liebeskind,	34
Barth,	66	Magazin für Industrie,.....	7
Böhme,	7	Meissner,	16
Börenberg,.....	6	Michelsen,.....	28
Brockhaus,	43	Mittler,	29
Central Comptoir,.....	8	Muller,.....	34
Caobloch,.....	11	Nauck,.....	4
Dyksche Buchhandlung,.....	40	Peters,	3
Eisenach,.....	10	Polet,	12
Engelmann,.....	30	Reclam, sen.,.....	6
Fischer and Fuchs,	9	Reinsche Buchhandlung,.....	45
Fried. Fleischer,	68	Schmidt,	13
Fort,	14	Schubert,	13
Friese,.....	20	Schumann,	3
Frohberger,	13	Steinacker,	62
Gebhardt and Reisland,.....	5	Delvecchio,.....	19
Wm. Härtel,	8	Vogel,	20
Hartknoch,.....	4	Volckmar,.....	53
Herbig,	53	Voss,	7
Hermann,	68	Weber,	7
Hinrichsche Buchhandlung,.....	3	Weidmannsche Buchhandlung,....	2
Hofmeister,.....	16	Weigel,	7
Kayser,	11	Weygaudische Buchhandlung,	17
Kirchner and Schwetschke,.....	10	Wienbruck,	35
Kirtner,	12	G. Wigand,	11
Köhler,	59	Otto Wigand,.....	4
Kollman,.....	34	Weittig,	10
Lauffer,.....	5		

Besides these, there were twenty-one others of less importance, making, in all, seventy-eight houses who acted as agents, at Leipzig, for the German and foreign book trade. †

The extent of the book trade of Southern Germany, and of Berlin, is in some measure shown by the following amount of the number of booksellers who employ agents at the latter place, and at Augsburg, Frankfort-on-Maine, Nuremberg, Stuttgart, and Vienna, as well as at Leipzig :—

96	booksellers have an agent in	Augsburg.
363	“	“ Frankfort.
219	“	“ Nuremberg.
318	“	“ Stuttgart.
129	“	“ Vienna.
77	“	“ Berlin.

* Institution for Art and Literature.

† Taken from the Allgemeine Adressbuch, (General Directory,) by Schulz.

The number of separate firms at each place, acting as agents, is not exhibited.

That part of Switzerland in which the German language is spoken, is, in its literature, wholly German, and intimately connected with Germany. The same may be said of Liefland, Courland, and Esthland, under the Russian dominion, and of Strasburg, which now belongs to France, although its affinity to Germany, as regards both its language and literature, has considerably decreased since its connexion with that country.

All the ten booksellers at St. Petersburg, in connexion with Leipzig, are German firms; at Paris, eight; at Warsaw, five; and at many of the other places a considerable proportion of the whole number are German.

We shall now proceed to lay before the readers of this Magazine the number of new publications which have appeared during the last twenty-five years, and the nature of those works during the latter part of that period.

The first table is a statement, which, of course, cannot lay claim to strict accuracy, but may be considered as the best possible approximation to an account of all works, including new editions, which have been published in Germany and in the adjacent countries, by publishers in connexion with Leipzig, during each year, from 1814 to 1839. The numbers from 1814 to 1831 are taken from "Menzel's Literaturblatt," a supplement to the "Morgenblatt," printed for Cotta, at Stuttgart. Menzel asserts that he has carefully made his abstracts from the Leipzig fair catalogues. His list continues to the year 1833; but, as it does not agree with two statements published by Wigand* and Otto Aug. Schulz,† which appear to be more correct; and the subsequent years of which agree better with the number which we have extracted for the year 1839, we have substituted their statement, and placed Menzel's figures in brackets at their side. Wigand's list is brought down to 1837—the figures in brackets, by the sides, from 1833 to that year, are extracted from the Leipzig "Börsenblatt für den Deutschen Buchhandel—Chronik des Buchhandels." (Exchange Gazette for the German Book Trade—Chronicle of the Book Trade.‡) The statement for the year 1838 is taken from this latter source; and that for 1839, being only given in round numbers in that publication, has been specially prepared from Hinrich's catalogue.

Number of New Publications and New Editions noticed in the Leipzig Fair Catalogues from 1814 to 1839.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1814.....	2,529	1828.....	5,654
1815.....	2,750	1829.....	5,314
1816.....	3,197	1830.....	5,926
1817.....	3,532	1831.....	6,389 (5,658)
1818.....	3,761	1832.....	6,929 (6,275)
1819.....	3,916	1833.....	6,310 (5,888)
1820.....	3,958	1834.....	7,202 (6,074)
1821.....	3,997	1835.....	7,146 (5,903)
1822.....	4,283	1836.....	7,529 (6,453)
1823.....	4,309	1837.....	7,891 (7,120)
1824.....	4,511	1838.....	8,662
1825.....	4,836	1839.....	9,738§
1826.....	4,704		
1827.....	5,108		
		Total.....	140,101

* "Buchhandel Zusammen gestellt und mitgetheilt." By Otto Wigand. Börsenblatt. 23d August, 1839.

† In Schiebe's Universal Lexicon, under the title, "Buchhandel," p. 255.

‡ Of 24th April, 1835, 11th March, 1836, 23d August, 1839, and 14th April, 1840.

§ Not including 133 maps and collections of maps.

The progressive rate of increase will be best exhibited in the following abstract, taken chiefly in quinquennial periods :—

				<i>Increase, per cent.</i>	
Annual average of 5 years, from 1814 to 1818,.....				3,158	
“ 5 “ 1819 to 1823,.....				4,092	29
“ 5 “ 1824 to 1828,.....				4,962	21
“ 5 “ 1829 to 1833,.....				6,013	21
“ 6 “ 1834 to 1839,.....				8,028	33

The increase of the last six, compared with the first five years, is 154 per cent ; but if the last year alone be compared with the first period, the increase is 176 per cent ; and, if compared with the first year alone, it is 285 per cent, or nearly quadruple. The average of the whole period is 5,388.

Among these numerous publications, are many of an insignificant value, and an ephemeral nature, such as pamphlets, journals, novels, &c. ; but the subjoined table will show what proportion belongs to each class of literature ; and an acquaintance with the contents of a large portion will afford ample ground for admiring the sound reasoning, the diligence and perseverance in examining and sifting, the extensive knowledge, deep erudition, and productive spirit of German authors.

A similar account has already been given for a remote period, and it may be interesting to trace the changes which have since occurred. The subjoined statement, as far as regards the five years from 1831 to 1835, is taken from an article on the book trade, by O. A. Schulz, in Schiebe's "Universal Lexicon of Commercial Science," which contains much valuable information upon the subject. The numbers for the year 1838 are taken from the "Börsenblatt," (14th April, 1840,) already quoted ; and those for 1839 have been abstracted from the Leipzig Fair Catalogue for that year.

The whole will afford a very fair view of the state of different branches of literature in Central Europe, since it exhibits an account of all new works, and of new editions of old works, published in Germany, Hungary, Switzerland, and the German provinces of Russia, during the principal part of the last nine years :—

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1838.	1839.
1. Scientific Theology, (Wissenschaftliche Theologie,)	954	1,008	887	500	531	790	870
2. Sermons and Books of Devotion,.....	Included in No. 1.			464	473	590	678
3. Law Books, (Jurisprudence,).....	243	266	216	243	239	450	343
4. State Affairs and Politics, (Staats-und Cameral Wissenschaften,).....	783	788	572	666	563	710	701
5. Medicine, Surgery, and Midwifery,....	378	342	369	374	355	481	508
6. Cholera and Influenza,.....	195	203	35	Included in No. 5.			
7. Homœopathic, (and treatment by spring water, "Wassercur," in 1839,)	Included in No. 5.			69	45	29	58
8. Veterinary Science,.....	27	36	27	36	32	38	45
9. Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	63	86	72	68	72	91	88
10. Philosophy,	149	203	212	230	248	310	346
11. Education and School Books, (Pædagogik,).....	365	441	396	185	225	209	300
12. Juvenile Books,.....	Included in No. 11.			275	252	275	267
13. Philology,.....	464	477	455	509	495	652	769
14. History,	567	576	563	491	486	389	645
15. Biography,	Included in No. 14.			171	153	155	231
16. Mythology and Antiquity,.....	68	68	50	70	81	94	96

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS—Continued.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1838.	1839.
17. Geography, Travels, and Statistics,....	209	239	284	230	333	396	429
18. Natural History and Physical Science,.	313	284	279	342	365	420	452
19. Mathematics,	125	162	153	180	194	224	241
20. Military Works,.....	134	135	113	162	159	154	209
21. Commerce, Mining, Currency, &c.,....	79	108	111	144	113	154	194
22. Handicraft, Manufactures, (Technol- ogic,)	166	216	234	284	250	307	333
23. Agriculture and Rural Economy,.....	234	225	189	194	203	268	261
24. Forest and Hunting Matters,.....	Included in No. 23.			45	36	36	57
25. Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	443	594	540	572	545	660	784
26. Music,.....	Inc. in No. 25.	77	70	80	82	97	
27. Novels and Romances,.....	227	261	257	302	342	350	352
28. Theatre,	68	72	104	144	117	174	197
29. Miscellaneous,	135	144	117	162	149	174	187
	6,389	6,929	6,312	7,202	7,146	8,662	9,738

The first result of interest to be drawn from this table, is the comparative number of works published in each branch of literature; and this is shown in the following abstract of the per centage proportion in which each branch contributes to swell the catalogue:—

	Per cent.		Per cent.
1. Scientific Theology,.....	9	15. Juvenile Books,.....	2·8
2. Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	8	16. Agriculture and Rural Economy,	2·7
3. Philology,.....	7·9	17. Mathematics,	2·5
4. State Affairs and Politics,.....	7·2	18. Biography,.....	2·3
5. Sermons and Books of Devotion,.	7	19. Military works,.....	2·1
6. History,.....	6·6	20. Theatrical works,.....	2
7. Medicine and Surgery, &c.,.....	5·2	21. Commerce, &c.,.....	2
8. Natural History and Physical Sci- ence,.....	4·7	22. Miscellaneous,	1·9
9. Geography, Travels, and Statis- tics,	4·4	23. Music,.....	1
10. Novels and Romances,.....	3·6	24. Mythology and Antiquity,.....	1
11. Philosophy,.....	3·6	25. Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	0·9
12. Jurisprudence,.....	3·5	26. Homœopathy and "Wassercur,".	0·6
13. Handicraft and Manufactures,....	3·4	27. Forest and Hunting matters,.....	0·6
14. Education and School Books,....	3	28. Veterinary Science,.....	0·5
		Total,.....	100

Of the theological works, which include religious school-books, in 1839, two hundred and thirty-five, or 27 per cent, were Roman Catholic publications; and of the sermons, and books of devotion, two hundred and eighty-nine, or 42 per cent, were of the same class. The number of poems, included among *belles lettres*, was two hundred and fifty-one, or 2·6 per cent of the whole number of works.

In comparing the year 1839 with 1789, the following are the prominent changes. The proportion which theological works bore to the total number, in 1789, was 17 per cent; in 1839, it was 17 per cent. The proportion of Roman Catholic to Protestant works was 23 per cent at the former, and 34 per cent at the latter period. Works on jurisprudence had decreased from 7·5 to 3·5 per cent; on medicine, &c., from 9·9 to 7·2—and it is worthy of note that novels and theatrical works had diminished from 13 to 5·6 per cent. On the other hand, history, geography, and politics, had increased from 15 to 18·2 per cent; natural history, agriculture, &c., from 6·2 to 8 per cent; educational works, from 3·2 to 5·8 per cent; and poems, from 1·7 to 2·6 per cent.

The account, however, for the years 1831 to 1839, affords the means of a stricter comparison, as it is made out for the whole period on the

same principle ; and the actual number of books published in each branch of literature, in different years, can be compared, instead of the mere relative proportion which they bear to the whole number, as in the preceding comparison. Contrasting, therefore, the last year of the series, 1839, with the first year, 1831, it appears that there has been an increase in every branch but state affairs and medicine, which have decreased, the former 10, and the latter 1 per cent. The increase among the other branches has been as follows :—

Increase between 1831 and 1839.

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Theatrical Works,.....	190	Military works,.....	56
Commerce, &c.,.....	143	Novels and Romances,.....	55
Philosophy,.....	132	History,.....	54
Geography, Travels, and Statistics, .	105	Natural History, and Physical Sci-	
Handicraft and Manufactures,.....	100	ences,.....	47
Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	100	Jurisprudence,.....	41
Mathematics,.....	92	Mythology and Antiquity,.....	41
Veterinary Science,.....	66	Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	40
Philology,.....	65	Agriculture and Rural Economy,.....	36
Theology, Sermons, and Books of			
Devotion,.....	62	Increase of books of all kinds,.....	52

It will be seen, from the above statement, that by far the greater proportion of the works published in Germany are, as far at least as regards their subjects, of a standard character ; and that, with the exception of theatrical works, the increase, during the last nine years, has been greatest among works of that class. These results are creditable to the spirit and the literary taste of the people of Germany. It would be exceedingly curious to draw a similar comparison for other countries—for England, the United States, or France ; particularly for the two former, where the liberty of the press is unrestrained, and where it would be highly interesting to observe the influence of great commercial activity, and political freedom, upon the mental energies and literary taste of the population.*

ART. II.—MASSACHUSETTS AND HER RESOURCES.

THOUGH Massachusetts, territorially considered, is among the small states in the Union, yet her commerce, manufactures, and fisheries, her literary and benevolent institutions, together with the enterprise and industry of her population, place her among the first in point of importance. It is true that nature has been less bountiful to her than to many of her sister states. She has no large navigable rivers, carrying commerce into the heart of her territory—no inexhaustible mountains of iron and coal—no rich, fertile plains, which bring forth spontaneously. Though nature, like an angry step-dame, instead of bread, has given her stones, yet the industry of her population has converted these stones into bread ; and, though the frosts of winter close her ports, and seem to threaten a gen-

* An account of the book trade in England, France, the United States, and other countries, will appear in a future number of the Merchants' Magazine. We trust the publishers and booksellers of the United States will aid us in this matter, by furnishing us with all the information on the subject it may be in their power to give.

eral stagnation of business, yet the very ice which closes up her rivers becomes an article of commerce, and is shipped even to the Indian ocean.

In many respects, Massachusetts furnishes us with a striking example of what industry and perseverance can accomplish. The Hudson river seems designed by nature to pour the rich products of the west into the lap of the great "commercial emporium." The White and Green mountain ranges, which pass through the commonwealth in separate ridges, interspersed with deep valleys, seem to forbid the idea of any artificial communication between the capital of Massachusetts and the rich and growing west; and yet, by the enterprise of her citizens, and the liberal policy of her government, "these valleys have been exalted, and these mountains and hills have been made low," so that a direct communication has been opened between Boston and Albany, and the Western railroad is now competing with the Hudson for the trade of the western lakes. But in nothing is the industry and perseverance of her population more strikingly illustrated, than in her fisheries. The eastern shore of the state is comparatively barren and unfruitful, and in many places incapable of supporting any considerable population; but the enterprise of the people supplies what the soil has denied them. They go down to the sea in ships, and draw treasures from the mighty deep. Wherever the finny tribe are found, there will be seen the hardy sons of the capes of Massachusetts; and the alewives in Taunton river, the cod on the Grand Banks, and the whales in the Pacific and Southern oceans, seem to know intuitively that it is in vain to contend with these adventurous fishermen—these knights of the net, the line, and the harpoon. In fact, we can say of them almost literally what the poet said figuratively of Britannia—

"Their march is o'er the mountain wave,
Their home is on the deep."

But it is not our purpose to eulogize Massachusetts, or to draw any invidious distinctions between her and her sister states. She stands a lively monument of the truth of the principle that a sterile soil and an ungenial climate tend to excite industry, and to give to the inhabitants an energy of character.

"Man is the nobler growth our realm supplies,
And souls are ripen'd in our northern skies."

AGRICULTURE.—Being a rough, mountainous country, Massachusetts is not remarkable for her agriculture. The Green mountain range, running across the state, and several isolated peaks in other sections, together with the sands on Cape Cod, render a considerable portion of her soil unimprovable. By a return made to the legislature, in 1840, for the purpose of fixing the state valuation, it appears that 158,000 acres of her territory were covered with water; 90,000 acres occupied by roads; 730,000 acres were woodland; 956,000 unimproved, and 360,000 acres unimprovable—while only 260,000 acres were improved as tillage, and 440,000 acres as English, or upland mowing; the remainder being either improved as pasturage, or fresh swamps or salt-marsh mowing. It appears, by the census returns, that the number engaged in agriculture is 87,837; being 1 to 8.39 of the population, which is a less per cent than any other state in the Union. When we consider that the soil is comparatively sterile, and that only 11.91 per cent of her population are engaged in agriculture,

while in the whole country those engaged in agriculture amount to 21.74 per cent of the entire population, we cannot expect that the agricultural products of this state will come up to the average of the nation. The live stock and products of agriculture may safely be put down as follows :—

Number of horses,.....	61,500
“ neat cattle,.....	283,000
“ sheep,.....	378,000
“ swine,.....	143,000
“ bushels of wheat,.....	210,000
“ “ Indian corn,.....	2,203,000
“ “ barley,.....	156,000
“ “ rye,.....	563,000
“ “ buckwheat,.....	102,000
“ “ potatoes,.....	4,850,000
“ tons of hay,.....	683,000
“ pounds of wool,.....	942,000
“ “ cocoons,.....	21,300
“ “ sugar,.....	549,000
“ “ hops,.....	255,000
“ tons of broom-corn,.....	600
Value of poultry,.....	\$178,000
“ the products of the dairy,.....	2,374,000
“ “ orchards,.....	390,000
“ “ market-gardeners,.....	384,000
“ “ nurseries and florists,.....	112,000

Such are the principal agricultural products of Massachusetts. She has no great staple, like the cotton of the south, or the wheat of the middle and western states. What she raises, she consumes at home; and she procures large supplies of some of these articles from her sister states, as we shall show hereafter. But, although Massachusetts is not distinguished for her agricultural products, the attention paid to agriculture has increased within a few years. The agricultural societies which have been established in the different counties, and which have enjoyed, to a small extent, the patronage of the government, have exerted a salutary influence. Several papers devoted to this subject are published within the commonwealth, and are well sustained. Within a few years, an agricultural and a geological survey of the state have been made by gentlemen well qualified for those purposes, who were appointed by the government, to which they made their reports. These reports, having for their object a development of the agricultural resources of the state, were published by the order of the legislature, and distributed in all parts of the commonwealth; and have contributed, with other causes, to give to the agriculture of the state a more scientific character. New systems of husbandry have been introduced—swamps, formerly useless, have been reclaimed—the nature of soils, and the kind of manure best adapted to each, are beginning to be better understood—an improved race of animals has been introduced or reared up, and great improvements have been made in most of the implements of husbandry; from all which, we infer that the cultivation of the soil in this ancient commonwealth will keep pace with the improvements of the age.

But the leading business characteristics of Massachusetts are her manufactures, her commerce, and her fisheries, which we will present in the order in which they are here arranged.

MANUFACTURES.—Immediately after the first settlements in New England, the people were compelled by necessity to turn their attention, in some degree, to some species of household manufacture, such as shoes and hats. As early as 1700, the people in Massachusetts commenced manufacturing in their families coarse woollens, for men's wear, and a mixed article of flax and wool, called *linsey woolsey*, principally for women's wear. These articles were dyed with maple, walnut, butternut, and other kinds of bark, moss from rocks, &c. Some attempts were made to manufacture paper, iron, and other necessary articles; but the condition of the colonies, and especially the policy of the mother country, prevented any considerable progress being made in manufactures before the revolution. But when the tie that bound us to Great Britain was sundered, the manufacturing enterprise of the people of Massachusetts began at once to develop itself.

The first manufactory of cotton in the United States was established at Beverley, Essex county, Massachusetts, in 1788. In the year following, this company was incorporated by the legislature. Great expectations were entertained, from the introduction of manufactures into the country at so early a period, on so extensive a plan. A periodical of the day, describing this factory, says, "that an experiment was made with a complete set of machines for carding and spinning cotton, which answered the warmest expectations of the proprietors. The spinning-jenny spins sixty threads at a time, and with the carding-machine forty pounds of cotton can be well carded in a day. The warping-machine, and the other tools and machinery, are complete, performing their various operations to great advantage, and promise much benefit to the public, and emolument to the patriotic adventurers." But this company, like other pioneers, were doomed to meet disappointment. They soon abandoned the business as a body corporate, and it was carried on by individuals, who subsequently erected a mill for the purpose of spinning cotton by water; but the enterprise proved an unprofitable one.

Immediately after the establishment of this factory at Beverley, a more successful effort was made by Samuel Slater, Esq., (who has justly been denominated "the father of American manufactures,") at Pawtucket, a village situated on the boundary line between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Here was produced the first cotton-cloth in the country by water-power machinery. After the Beverley company, the next two corporations which were created were the Newburyport Woollen Manufactory, in 1794, and the Calico-Printing Manufactory, in 1796. But, as we have no account of these companies, we conclude that their creation is to be taken rather as an indication of what the people desired, than of what they were able to accomplish. In 1800, the Salem Iron Factory Company was chartered, with power to hold real and personal estate to the amount of \$330,000; and two years subsequently, the Danvers and Beverley Iron Company was incorporated, with an equal amount of capital. In 1805, the Amesbury Nail Factory Company was chartered, with a capital of \$450,000. But it should be remembered that the power to hold property to the amount mentioned in their charters is no evidence that they invested that sum. These were the first chartered companies in the

iron department of manufactures. In 1809, two companies were chartered for the manufacture of glass. From 1805 to 1815, there were some fifty manufacturing companies incorporated; but most of them were for the manufacture of cotton, or of cotton and wool. But many of the cotton mills at that day only manufactured the cotton into yarn, and then put it out to hand-loom weavers to weave; and most of the companies which manufactured cotton and wool did little more than to make sattinets, a cheap article composed of cotton and wool.

In 1812, the Waltham Manufacturing Company was incorporated, with a capital of \$450,000. This company went into successful operation, and was the only company of much note at the close of the war, in 1815. This establishment has continued to the present day, and the Waltham goods are well known both in this country and in Europe.

Though several efforts were made, in different parts of the state, it was not until about 1812 that the woollen manufactures were permanently established in Massachusetts. The country was forced into this business by the restrictive measures which preceded the late war with Great Britain, and by the war itself; during the continuance of which, the manufacturers were barely sustained. Peace came, and the business was prostrated, and most of the owners ruined. The establishments generally passed into other hands, at from one-third to one-fourth of their original cost. From the close of the war to 1828, the woollen manufactures met with great reverses. The tariffs of 1828 and 1832 induced many to embark in the woollen business; but the reductions of duty upon imported woollens, which took place under the provisions of the act of 1833, commonly called the Compromise Act, have, in a great degree, paralyzed their efforts. Though, from 1835 to 1838, the business was prosecuted with some success, the great reductions which took place in 1841 and 1842, by the provisions of the act abovementioned, stopped a great part of the woollen mills in Massachusetts. The late tariff has already produced some improvement in the business; and it is believed that, if it be permitted to remain undisturbed, this department of manufactures may yet prosper, and the public be furnished with woollen goods, from our own mills, at a cheaper rate than they have been from foreign countries.

Though, by the census of 1840, Massachusetts was the seventh state in the Union, in point of population, and (allowing the annual increase to be the same per cent in each state, since 1840, that it was from 1830 to 1840,) is now the tenth state, yet, with reference to manufactures, she may justly be considered the first state in the Union. And it is worthy of special remark that, while New York, according to the census returns, has twice as many persons employed in manufactures and trades as Massachusetts, the product of Massachusetts manufactures, in most of the leading articles, is greater, or at least equal, to that of the empire state; and while Pennsylvania has 23 per cent more persons thus employed, her product generally falls below that of Massachusetts. In fact, if we strike from the list of manufactured articles *flour* and *lumber*, which hardly deserve the name of manufactures, the annual product of Massachusetts will equal that of New York. In the woollen department, the value of the goods produced in Massachusetts is twice as great as in any other state, and amounts to more than one-third of the entire product of the country. In cotton goods, no state produces half as much; and her product amounts to more than half the aggregate of all the other states.

Massachusetts stands first in the manufacture of boots and shoes, soap and candles, hardware and cutlery, refined sugar, paper, powder, and fire-arms. She is second to none but the great states of New York and Pennsylvania in the manufacture of machinery, of drugs, paints and dyes, and of furniture. No state, except Kentucky, manufactures so much cordage; no state, except New York, so large an amount of musical instruments, hats, caps, and bonnets; no state, except Connecticut, so much silk. She is the third state in the manufacture of glass, leather, flax, and salt. In capital invested in manufactures of all kinds, Massachusetts is second only to the great state of New York, and owns nearly one-sixth of the aggregate manufacturing capital of the country. And in this connexion it may be worthy of remark, that several of the principal manufacturing establishments in Maine and New Hampshire are owned, to a considerable degree, by Massachusetts capitalists.

The comparisons we have made have been drawn from the statistics connected with the late census of the United States; but, in giving the details of her manufactures, we shall adopt the state statistics, because they are more in detail, and, we have reason to believe, more correct.

A Statement of the Manufactured Products of Massachusetts in 1837, taken from the statistics published by order of the Legislature.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED.	Value.	Hands employed.	Capital invested.
Anchors, chain-cables, &c.,.....	\$114,125	36	\$80,500
Axes, scythes, snaths, &c.,.....	325,956	387	196,938
Beer, bellows, blacking, boats, wherries, &c.,....	152,321	273	55,300
Bonnets, (straw,) and palm-leaf hats,.....	1,902,803
Books, stationery, pocket-books, and school apparatus,.....	1,048,140	1,023	909,800
Boots and shoes,.....	14,642,520	39,068
Brass and copper,.....	1,469,354	297	635,800
Britannia and block tin,.....	66,300	59	7,000
Brushes, brooms, and baskets,.....	289,512	350	103,095
Buttons of all kinds,.....	246,000	358	147,200
Candles (sperm and tallow) and soap,.....	1,620,730	266	697,300
Candlesticks, playing cards, chocolate, chair-stuff, and coffee-mills,.....	66,914	81	29,840
Cards, (wool,).....	254,420	139	148,340
Carriages, wagons, sleighs and harnesses, &c.,....	679,442	945	278,790
Casks and hoops,.....	202,832	194	81,250
Chairs and cabinetware,.....	1,262,121	2,011
Clothing, neck-stocks, and suspenders,.....	2,013,316	3,939	780,159
Combs,.....	268,500	444
Cordage and twine,.....	481,441	439	285,375
Cotton goods, (cloths,).....	13,056,659	19,754	14,369,716
Cotton batting, thread, warp, wicking, &c.,.....	169,221	151	78,000
Cotton-printing,.....	4,183,121	1,660	1,539,000
Cutlery,.....	186,200	193	92,033
Drugs, medicines, and dye-stuffs,.....	371,019	97	98,995
Fishery, (whale, cod, and mackerel,).....	7,592,290	20,126	12,484,078
Fur caps, and other manufactures of fur,.....	73,000	100	55,000
Gas,.....	100,000	40	375,000
Glass,.....	831,076	647	759,400
Glue,.....	34,625	18	19,700
Gold and silver leaf,.....	43,000	36	11,200
Gunpowder,.....	246,357	77	160,800
Hats,.....	698,086	867
India rubber,.....	18,000	13	10,000
Iron castings, bar and rod, &c.,.....	1,658,670	1,311	1,516,025

A Statement of the Manufactured Products of Massachusetts, etc.—Continued.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED.	Value.	Hands employed.	Capital invested.
Jewelry, silver, and silver-plate,.....	\$325,500	207	\$161,550
Lead manufactures,.....	201,400	43	6,400
Leather, including morocco,.....	3,254,416	1,798	2,033,423
Looking-glasses,.....	165,500	58	61,600
Lumber, shingles, and staves,.....	167,778	121	27,750
Machinery of various kinds,.....	1,235,390	1,399	1,146,775
Muskets, rifles, pistols, swords, &c.,.....	288,800	394	65,943
Nails, brads, and tacks,.....	2,527,095	1,095	1,974,000
Oil, (refined whale and other oils,).....	2,030,321	145	1,133,500
Organs and piano-fortes,.....	324,200	239	172,000
Paper,.....	1,544,230	1,173	1,167,700
Ploughs,.....	54,561	73
Saddles, trunks, and whips,.....	351,575	758	109,825
Salt,.....	246,059	708	801,753
Shovels, spades, forks, and hoes,.....	264,709	284	225,523
Silk,.....	56,150	125	137,000
Spectacles, starch, stone and earthenware,.....	35,560	47	20,974
Spirits,.....	1,238,789
Stone, (granite, marble, slate and soap-stone,)....	680,782	1,177	209,950
Stoves and stove-pipes,.....	31,000	13	11,815
Sugar, (refined,).....	976,454	92	303,653
Snuff and cigars,.....	184,601	396	33,300
Tin-ware,.....	394,322	377
Tools, (carpenters', joiners', and shoemakers',)...	258,531	297	110,807
Types and stereotypes,.....	157,000	215	140,000
Umbrellas,.....	104,500	136	56,000
Upholstery, including bed-binding, curtains, hair, and paper-hangings,.....	55,483	86	13,160
Vessels built annually,.....	1,370,650	2,834
Varnish and beeswax,.....	52,600	8	9,000
Window-sashes, blinds, and doors,.....	74,166	93	8,350
Wire,.....	84,770	53	44,200
Wooden ware, including boxes, rakes, shoe-pegs, yokes, helves, &c.,.....	174,692	313	26,950
Woollen goods,.....	10,399,807	7,097	5,770,750
Engravings, essences, hosiery, lamp-black, me- chanical instruments, mustard, razor-straps, lather-boxes, pumps, blocks, &c.,.....	63,460	117	19,078
Total,.....	\$85,742,927	117,352	\$52,008,865

Here we have a grand total of about eighty-six millions of dollars, of the annual product of the manufactures of Massachusetts in 1837. The capital invested is fifty-two millions; and it will be perceived that in some cases the amount of capital is not given. If the amount of capital had been given in every case, it would have increased this sum to at least fifty-four or five millions. The depressed state of business of all kinds, and the heavy importations of foreign fabrics, have contributed to diminish the quantity of goods and wares manufactured; so that the amount of manufactures must be considerably less at the present time than it was in 1837, and the fall of prices has reduced the value of the annual product in a still greater proportion; though, at the present time, the effects of the recent tariff are beginning to be felt, and a new impulse is given to our manufactures.

To show the variety and character of the manufactures of Massachusetts, we will give an abstract of a single town:—

ATHOL, WORCESTER COUNTY.

Population in 1837, 1,603.

Cotton mill, 1; cotton spindles, 1,024; cotton consumed, 81,700 lbs.; cotton goods manufactured, 316,100 yards; value of same, \$33,000; males employed, 10; females employed, 45; capital invested, \$15,000.

Boots manufactured, 16,312 pairs; shoes, 38,333 pairs; value of boots and shoes, \$58,741; males employed, 79; females, 37.

Tanneries, 2; hides tanned, 3,850; value of leather, \$17,700; hands employed, 7; capital invested, \$9,270.

Paper mill, 1; stock manufactured, 56 tons; value of paper, \$9,000; males employed, 4; females, 2; capital invested, \$5,000.

Cupola-furnace, 1; iron castings made, 62 tons; value of same, \$7,130; hands employed, 4; capital invested, \$3,000.

Scythe manufactory, 1; scythes manufactured, 7,200; value of same, \$4,200; hands employed, 8; capital invested, \$2,100.

Manufactories of cabinetware, 2; value of cabinetware, \$2,700; hands employed, 4.

Plough manufactory, 1; ploughs manufactured, 100; value of same, \$650; hands employed, 1.

Straw bonnets manufactured, \$1,225; value of same, \$1,455.

Palm-leaf hats manufactured, 123,580; value, \$24,010.

Machine manufactory, 1; value of machinery manufactured, \$4,100; hands employed, 4; capital invested, \$1,500.

Pail manufactory, 1; pails manufactured, 12,200; value of same, \$2,440; hands employed, 2; capital invested, \$1,000.

Value of sashes, doors, and blinds manufactured, \$4,200; hands employed, 5; capital invested, \$1,000.

Value of cooperage, \$250; capital invested, \$250; 1 hand employed.

Value of shoe-pegs manufactured, \$3,100; hands employed, 5 males and 9 females; capital invested, \$3,800.

Value of harnesses manufactured, \$1,000; capital invested, \$500; 1 hand employed.

Shoe and hat boxes manufactured, 8,625; value of same, \$3,960; hands employed, 2; capital invested, \$2,500.

We have selected this town rather for the variety than the amount of its manufactures, though an annual product of \$158,000 is no inconsiderable sum for a town comparatively agricultural, and containing 1,600 inhabitants. This example will show another distinguishing feature in the manufacturing industry of Massachusetts, viz: that the females contribute their share to swell the amount of manufactured products.

LOWELL.

But Lowell is the great centre of Massachusetts manufactures, and may with propriety be denominated the Manchester of America. By authentic statistics, it appears that there are in this city manufactures of machinery, sheetings, shirtings, drillings, prints, flannels, broadcloths, cassimeres, carpets, rugs, and a variety of other articles. The amount of business may be inferred from the following table:—

Number of incorporated manufacturing companies,.....	11
“ mills, exclusive of print-shops,.....	32
Amount of capital,.....	\$10,700,000
Number of spindles,	194,333

Number of looms,	6,048
" females employed,.....	6,375
" males employed,.....	2,345
Yards of cloth per annum,.....	70,275,400
" printed or dyed per annum,.....	14,196,000
Bales of cotton consumed per annum,.....	56,940
Gallons of oil consumed per annum,.....	80,189
Cords of wood consumed per annum,.....	3,000
Tons of hard coal consumed per annum,.....	12,400
Bushels of charcoal consumed per annum,.....	600,000
Barrels of flour, for starch, consumed per annum,.....	4,000

The Locks and Canals' machine-shop, included in the thirty-two mills, can furnish machinery competent for a mill of five thousand spindles in four months; and lumber and materials are always at command, with which to build or rebuild a mill in that time, if required. When building mills, the Locks and Canals' Company employ, directly and indirectly, from one thousand to twelve hundred hands.

To the above principal establishments, may be added the Lowell Water-Proofing, connected with the Middlesex Company; the extensive powder mills of O. M. Whipple, Esq.; the Lowell Bleachery, with a capital of \$50,000; flannel mill, blanket mill, batting mill, paper mill, card and whip factory, planing machine, reed machine, foundry, grist and saw mills; together employing five hundred hands, and a capital of \$500,000. We may also add to the above the manufacture of carriages and harnesses, tinware, boots and shoes, and a variety of household manufactures. Lowell, though the greatest manufacturing place in the country, is a city of recent date. The first mill was erected in 1823; before which time, what now constitutes Lowell was a barren corner of the towns of Chelmsford and Tewksbury, containing not more than one hundred inhabitants. The city, in 1840, numbered 20,796 souls.

COMMERCE.—Massachusetts may justly be regarded as a highly commercial state. Though the late war drove a large share of her capital from the ocean, and induced many of her citizens to embark in manufactures, yet she stands the second state in the Union in point of commerce. There were imported into Massachusetts in the commercial year 1841, goods, wares, and merchandise to the amount of \$20,318,000, being nearly one-sixth of the whole amount brought into the country, and about twice as much as was imported into any other state, with the exception of New York, whose importations amounted to \$75,713,000. But though we cheerfully yield to New York the honor of being the "great commercial emporium," there are several facts and considerations which furnish a drawback upon her commercial greatness; which, as they tend to show the resources of Massachusetts, we feel called upon to state. We have seen that the importations into New York are more than three times as great as into Massachusetts; but it appears, from authentic accounts, that the importations into New York during that year were about 74 per cent on foreign account, while the importations into Boston were only about 17 per cent on foreign account—making a difference of 57 per cent in favor of Boston. This fact alone would bring the American commerce of New York down to nearly the standard of the same character of commerce in Massachusetts. Nor is this all: a considerable share of the commerce of New York is on Massachusetts account; while very little, if any, of the Massachusetts commerce, is on New York account.

Another considerable share of New York commerce is carried on by Massachusetts ships, navigated by Massachusetts seamen. These remarks will apply with peculiar force to the East India trade, as will be seen by the following statement:—

The number of vessels which arrived in New York from Canton and Manilla was—

In 1839,.....	21, of which 7 belonged to Massachusetts.
1840,.....	29, " 14 " " "
1841,.....	15, " 4 " " "
1842,.....	26, " 11 " " "
Total,.....	91 36

Here it will be seen that more than one-third of the commerce of New York, from 1839 to 1842 inclusive, from the places mentioned, was on Massachusetts account, or carried on in Massachusetts vessels.

In the trade with Calcutta about 20 ships are required to supply the United States with Bengal products. The whole number of arrivals were—

In 1840,.....	18, of which 15 arrived in Massachusetts.
1841,.....	20, " 17 " " "
1842,.....	26, " 21 " " "

From the above statement, it will be seen that about four-fifths of the supply of Bengal goods in the United States is furnished by Massachusetts ships and capital. During the same years several cargoes arrived at New Orleans from Calcutta, on Massachusetts account.

From fifty to seventy cargoes enter the United States annually from Russia, a large share of which are on Massachusetts account. In 1839, the number of American vessels which arrived at St. Petersburg was 52, of which 37 were on Massachusetts account. The whole number of arrivals in the United States from St. Petersburg and Riga the same year was 53, of which 26 came into Massachusetts, and 23 into New York. Of the 23 which came into New York, 10 were Massachusetts vessels, and a portion of these cargoes were on Massachusetts account. In 1840 there were 64 American vessels which arrived at St. Petersburg, of which 49 were on Massachusetts account. In the same year the arrivals in the United States from Russia were 65, of which 32 came into Massachusetts, and 12 into New York; of which 12, five were Massachusetts vessels, and a portion of their cargoes was on Massachusetts account. The great supply of foreign sugars into St. Petersburg for the Russian empire is chiefly from Cuba; of this supply nearly one-half is carried in Massachusetts vessels, and a considerable portion on Massachusetts account. The United States are supplied with pepper almost entirely by Massachusetts ships; and a large portion of the exports from Sumatra to Europe is carried in Massachusetts vessels, and on Massachusetts account.

We have mentioned these things to show the real state of the commerce of Massachusetts. The annual document from the secretary of the treasury, detailing the commerce and navigation of the country, shows only the imports into the different states, without designating on whose account the importation is made; and it will be seen at once that such tables do not show the exact commerce of each state. One state may

be situated inland, as Indiana, for example, and hence be represented as having no commerce; and another state, as Louisiana, which happens to be the outlet of the great Mississippi Valley, may be so situated as to have the credit for much that is owned and shipped by the people of other states. The facts we have already presented, clearly demonstrate that these tables do not do full justice to the state of Massachusetts. Her vessels, which enter at New York and clear from the same port, are set down to the credit of New York, though the vessel be owned in Massachusetts, the crew are from Massachusetts, and the cargo is on Massachusetts account. It will also be seen, by the facts above presented, that a large share of the distant, and in some respects the most important commerce, is carried on by the Massachusetts merchants. A cargo which is the result of a long voyage, is in one respect, more important to the country than any other. A cargo from the West Indies, worth \$100,000 at the port where it is entered, might require for its purchase \$95,000 of specie or our domestic products; and so the cargo would be a drain upon the country to that amount. But a cargo from the East Indies, worth \$100,000 at the port where it is entered, may draw from the country but \$90,000. I do not profess to be accurate in the amounts, but state them merely to illustrate the principle, that a merchant who is engaged in distant commerce draws a less per cent on the worth of his cargo from the country, than the merchant who is engaged in commerce with nations less remote. In the latter case we must take from the country, in money or its equivalent, a sum nearly equal to the value of the cargo, while in the former case, a much greater amount of the value of the cargo, on its arrival in this country, is the result of the labor of the officers and crew, and the capital invested in the vessel, and hence a less per cent of its value is drawn from this country in specie or its equivalent. Massachusetts commerce, as we have seen, is, to a great extent, with the most remote nations, and hence more productive of the interests of the country than any other.

We have already seen that the importations into Massachusetts, during the last commercial year, amounted to \$20,318,000—her exports during the same year were \$11,487,000, being nearly one-tenth of the whole export of the country, and more than was exported from any state except New York and Louisiana; and it is worthy of remark that both of these states, from their local situation, export a larger amount of the products of other states than Massachusetts. The amount of tonnage owned in Massachusetts, as compared with other states, shows at once that she performs a large share of their carrying. The entire registered and licensed tonnage of Massachusetts, as compared with several of the great states, is as follows:—

Massachusetts,.....	545,900 tons.		Pennsylvania,.....	118,900 tons.
New York,.....	474,700 "			Louisiana,.....

Here it will be seen that Massachusetts owns 71,200 tons of shipping more than New York; 427,000 more than Pennsylvania; 400,200 more than Louisiana; and about one-fourth of the aggregate tonnage of the United States. As Louisiana exports about three times as much as Massachusetts, and owns but about one-fourth as much shipping, it would seem to follow, with a good degree of certainty, that much of the carrying trade of Louisiana was performed by Massachusetts; and every per-

son acquainted with the subject, knows that Massachusetts vessels are largely engaged in the cotton, flour, pork, bacon and lard trade of New Orleans.

The number of vessels which entered in Massachusetts in 1841, was 2,119—being twice as many as entered in any other state except New York, and more than one-sixth of the aggregate shipping which entered in the United States. The number of ships built in Massachusetts in the same year was 112, with an aggregate tonnage of 28,653, being a larger amount of tonnage than that produced by any other state, and nearly one-fourth of the aggregate of the whole United States, as will be seen by a comparison of Massachusetts with some of the principal ship-building states :—

Massachusetts,.....	28,653 tons.	Ohio,.....	7,178 tons.
Maine,.....	26,874 “	Pennsylvania,.....	6,970 “
New York,.....	17,438 “	The United States,.....	118,893 “
Maryland,.....	10,737 “		

From a comparison of the ships built in the several states, with the ships owned in the states respectively, it will be seen that Massachusetts not only owns more shipping than any other state, but that her territory is, to a considerable extent, the ship-yard, and her laborers the shipwrights, of several of the commercial states. In seamen, Massachusetts is still more prolific. By the returns of registered seamen, made to the secretary of state annually, it appears that Massachusetts furnishes more than twice as many as any other state, and more than one-third of the whole number furnished by the whole country. By the returns for 1841, the only one on which we can at this time lay our hands, it appears that the registered seamen stand as follows :—

Massachusetts,.....	4,031	Maryland,.....	383
New York,.....	1,815	Louisiana,.....	338
Maine,.....	1,026	All other states,.....	1,764
Pennsylvania,.....	706		

From this view of her commerce, it will be seen that Massachusetts is second only to New York, if indeed she does not rival that great state. The opening of the Western railroad, which connects Boston with Albany and the great west, and the establishing of the line of packets between Boston and Liverpool, must inevitably increase the commercial importance of Massachusetts.

FISHERIES.—In this department of national industry, Massachusetts stands unrivalled. The whale fishery commenced in Massachusetts as early as 1672, and has gone on increasing until it has assumed its present importance. In 1840, it appears from authentic accounts that there were 588 vessels engaged in the whale fishery, of which 425 belonged to Massachusetts. It is not our purpose to give a history of the fisheries—we intend only to state the amount of business in this department of industry at the present time. It appears, by the last annual return of the commerce and navigation of the United States, that the amount of tonnage employed in the cod fishery was 66,551 tons; of which 29,529, being about the same as the state of Maine, and about four times as much as all the rest of the Union, belonged to Massachusetts. From the same document, it will be seen that Massachusetts has 10,000 tons of shipping engaged in the mackerel fishery, while that owned by all the rest of the

Union amounted to only 1,200 tons. It further appears that the tonnage employed in the whale fishery, in the United States, is 157,405 tons; and of this, Massachusetts employs 120,474, being more than three-fourths of the whole.

It will also be seen, by the statistics connected with the census, that Massachusetts has invested in the fisheries \$11,725,850, and employs 16,000 men. To show the relative importance of this branch of industry in this state, we will present, at one view, the total product of the country, of Massachusetts, and some of the principal states, always taking those which stand highest:—

Quintals of Smoked or Dried Fish.

United States,.....	773,947	New Hampshire,.....	28,257
Massachusetts,.....	389,715	Rhode Island,.....	4,034
Maine,.....	279,156		

Barrels of Pickled Fish.

United States,.....	472,359	Maryland,.....	71,293
Massachusetts,.....	124,755	Maine,.....	54,071
North Carolina,.....	73,350		

Gallons of Spermaceti Oil.

United States,.....	4,764,708	New York,.....	400,251
Massachusetts,.....	3,630,972	Connecticut,.....	183,207
Rhode Island,.....	487,268		

Gallons of Whale and other Fish Oil.

United States,.....	7,536,778	New York,.....	1,269,541
Massachusetts,.....	3,364,725	Rhode Island,.....	633,860
Connecticut,.....	1,909,047		

Value of Whalebone, &c.

United States,.....	\$1,153,234	Connecticut,.....	\$157,572
Massachusetts,.....	442,974	New Jersey,.....	74,000
New York,.....	344,665		

Hands employed.

United States,.....	36,584	Maine,.....	3,610
Massachusetts,.....	16,000	Connecticut,.....	2,215
Maryland,.....	7,814		

Capital invested.

United States,.....	\$16,429,620	Rhode Island,.....	\$1,077,157
Massachusetts,.....	11,725,850	New York,.....	949,250
Connecticut,.....	1,301,640		

From this glance at the subject, it will be seen that, of dry fish, Massachusetts produces as much as all the rest of the United States; of pickled fish, more than one-quarter of the whole amount; of spermaceti oil, more than three-quarters; of whale and other oils, nearly one-half; of whalebone, more than one-third; and of capital, nearly two-thirds of the whole amount invested in the United States. It would be no exaggeration therefore to say, that taking the different kinds of fisheries, Massachusetts fisheries were equal in amount to those of all the rest of the Union.

The value of these fisheries will be seen by the fact, that in addition to all that is consumed in the country, they furnish a large surplus for export, amounting, in 1840, to more than \$3,000,000, being an amount greater than that of any other article exported, except cotton, tobacco, and flour. But these fisheries are important, not only as they increase our commerce, but they furnish one of the best nurseries for seamen.

They also furnish a market for a large amount of our agricultural products. It has been estimated, by those familiar with the subject, that the whale fisheries alone consume annually 54,000 barrels of beef and pork, being equal to one-half of the average export of these articles for the last ten years. They also require a large amount of flour, corn, butter, cheese, rice, &c. &c. The oil and whalebone brought into the country in 1841, has been estimated to be worth \$7,360,000; and what renders this and the other fisheries of great importance is, that it is drawing treasures from the deep, which would otherwise be lost to the country. Whatever the value of these fisheries may be, one-half of the sum, at least, may be set to the account of Massachusetts.

We have now presented the resources or productions of Massachusetts, as connected with the great departments of industry. There is one fact more, which, as it casts some light upon the business of the state and country, we will mention the amount of postage paid into the General Post Office from Massachusetts, in the year 1841, was \$237,655, being more than that paid by any other state, except New York and Pennsylvania, and about one-twelfth of the entire income of the department.

It may perhaps be well, in a paper of this kind, to notice some of the natural resources of the state. Massachusetts is not peculiarly rich in her mineral treasures. *Iron*, the most useful of metals, is found in various parts of the state, and is manufactured to a small extent. This business employs \$1,232,800 of capital, and about 1,000 hands, producing 9,300 tons of cast, and 6,000 tons of bar iron annually. *Granite*, of an excellent quality for building, is found in vast quantities in Quincy and vicinity, and is extensively quarried, and shipped to every Atlantic city in a greater or less degree. The Astor House in New York, the front of the Tremont House in Boston, and Bunker Hill Monument, are built of this material. Granite, suitable for building, is also found in large quantities at Gloucester, Fall River, Fitchburg, and many other places. The quantity of this building material in the state is inexhaustible. *Gneiss*, nearly allied to granite, and answering the same purpose, is found in many parts of the state. *Serpentine*, a rock of richness and variety of colors, suitable for ornamental architecture, exists in Middlefield, in the county of Hampshire, Westfield, in the county of Hampden, Newbury, in the county of Essex, and in several other places, but it has not been wrought to any extent.

Limestone, suitable for quicklime, is found in various places, and is particularly abundant in the county of Berkshire. But the limestone of Berkshire is best known for the fine marble which it produces. It is all of the variety denominated primitive marble. Its prevailing color is white, and this is the variety most extensively wrought. Some of the varieties of the snow white, admits of a very fine polish. From the pure white the color changes, by imperceptible gradations, to gray and dove color. More or less is quarried in almost every town in Berkshire, except a few on the eastern side. But it is most extensively wrought in West Stockbridge, Lanesborough, Ashfield, Sheffield, New Marlborough, and Adams. The City Hall in New York was built chiefly of this marble. The marble for the Girard College, in Philadelphia, is also obtained from the quarries in Berkshire.

Soapstone, which is remarkable for its softness and power to resist heat, is found in abundance in various parts of the commonwealth, but is not

extensively wrought. *Argillaceous*, or *roof slate*, is found in different sections of the state, but the quality is not remarkably good, nor is it extensively used for slating roofs. *Potter's clay*, used for common pottery, tiles, and bricks, abounds in almost every town; and *Porcelain clay* has been found in several places, but the experiment of its value has not been fully tested. *Peat* is used for fuel in many towns in the eastern portion of the state; and what adds to its importance is, it is generally located where wood is scarce, and commands a high price. *Anthracite coal* has been discovered, as at Worcester and Mansfield; but the mine at Worcester has not been thoroughly explored, and at Mansfield the vein is supposed to be too thin to justify the expense of mining.

In *internal improvements*, considering the topography of her territory, Massachusetts is not behind any other state. The first canal and the first railroad in the country, were opened in Massachusetts. Middlesex canal uniting the waters of the Merrimack river with Boston harbor, and the Quincy railroad, extending from the Neponset river to the Quincy quarries, were constructed before any other works of the kind in the United States. The canal, however, is nearly superseded by the Boston and Lowell railroad. In length and importance, the Western railroad stands at the head of the public improvements in the state. It extends from Worcester, forty-four miles by railroad from Boston, to Greenbush, on the Hudson, opposite to Albany, with which it is connected by a ferry. This noble structure traverses a rough and romantic portion of the state; crossing the high lands in Worcester county; the summit between Boston and Connecticut river, at an elevation of nine hundred and seven feet above tide water, and the Green Mountain range in Washington, the summit between the Connecticut and the Hudson, at an elevation of one thousand four hundred and fifty-nine feet above tidewater. The greatest inclination on this road is eighty-three feet per mile. The length of the road within the state is one hundred and eighteen miles; but as the road from the line of the state to Albany was built by this company, and as they have a long lease of it, and the pre-emption right of purchase, it may with great propriety be considered a part of the Western road, and as belonging to Massachusetts. The length of the road in New York is thirty-eight miles, making, in the whole, one hundred and fifty-six miles. At Worcester this road connects with the Boston and Worcester road, which is forty-four miles in length; so that the Western road opens a direct communication by railroad from Boston to Albany, making a continuous line of two hundred miles of road.

There are several other railroads, situated partly in the state and partly in the adjoining states, as the Norwich and Worcester, the Nashua and Lowell, and the Boston and Maine, which were built mostly by Massachusetts capital, aided by Massachusetts scrip. But we shall give the length, cost, &c., of that part of the road situated in Massachusetts, except in the case of the Western, for reasons already stated. The following table will give a general view of the different roads, and their productiveness:—

CORPORATE NAME.	Length in miles.	Cost of road in and appurtenances.	Cost of road per mile, including appurtenances.	Receipts for past year.	Expenditures past year.	Nett profits during past year.	Distance in miles, run by trains, during the past year.
Western,.....	156	\$7,566,792	\$48,505	\$512,688	\$266,619	\$246,069	397,295
Boston and Worcester,....	44	2,764,395.	62,827	364,284	164,510	199,774	241,319
Boston and Providence,..	41	1,892,831	46,166	236,464	112,825	123,639	132,229
Boston and Lowell,.....	26	1,978,286	76,067	278,311	131,013	147,298	143,607
Norwich and Worcester,..	90	646,334	32,316	46,318	40,465	5,653	48,306
Nashua and Lowell,.....	9	215,930	23,992	84,330	58,870	25,460	26,306
Eastern,	39	1,865,000	47,890	215,326	113,900	102,126	147,194
Boston and Maine,	21	550,000	26,142
N. Bedford and Taunton, ..	20	426,122	21,306	55,776	22,355	33,421	40,734
Taunton Branch,.....	11	250,000	22,727	77,171	57,778	19,393	21,904
Berkshire,	21	205,000
Charlestown Branch,.....	7	223,145	32,677	45,385	48,427	3 042 loss.	11,433
	415	\$18,583,835	1,212,397

The Boston and Lowell, and the Boston and Worcester roads, which cost more per mile than the others, have double tracks, the rest single. Owing to the imperfect return of the Boston and Maine company, we were unable to carry out its receipts and expenditures. The Berkshire road has not settled up all demands against it, and their rail being a plate instead of an edge rail, the cost of construction appears small. The Boston and Worcester, Boston and Providence, and Eastern roads have each a branch of a few miles, the cost and income of which are included in the sums stated. The Charlestown branch was constructed mainly for the transportation of ice, but the winter of 1841-2 being unusually open, that business almost entirely failed,—hence the loss to the company. Besides these railroads, there is the Quincy railroad, of a few miles in length, used only for the transportation of granite from the quarries to tidewater; and the West Stockbridge, about two and a half miles in length, which is an extension of the Hudson and Berkshire road. There is also the Fitchburg railroad, now in the course of construction, which, in connexion with the Charlestown branch, will make a continuous road about forty-five miles into the interior, in the direction of Vermont. These roads are all owned by private companies, except the Western, in which the state owns one-third of the stock. The state, however, has loaned its credit, in the form of scrip, to several of these corporations, and taken a mortgage as security. The railroads in Massachusetts are all built in the most thorough and durable manner; and for convenience, safety and despatch, will yield to none in the country.

BANKS.—The Banks in Massachusetts are believed to be in as sound a state as any in the country. The following table will show their condition :—

Whole number of banks in Massachusetts,.....	114
Capital stock paid in,.....	\$33,360,000
Bills in circulation,.....	9,509,112
Nett profits on hand,.....	2,792,114
Balances due to other banks,.....	4,413,506
Cash deposited, including all sums whatever due from the banks, not bearing interest, its bills in circulation, profits and balances due to other banks excepted,.....	7,144,900
Cash deposited, bearing interest,.....	1,459,822
Total amount due from the banks,.....	\$56,679,474

Resources of the Banks.

Gold, silver, and other coined metals,.....	\$3,111,838
Real estate,.....	1,238,191
Bills of other banks, in and out of the state,.....	2,314,437
Balance due from other banks,.....	4,461,047
Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stocks and funded debts, except balances due from other banks,....	47,553,961
Total amount of the resources of the banks,.....	\$58,679,474
Amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring the last dividend,....	992,145
Amount of debts secured by a pledge of stock,.....	941,790
Amount of debts unpaid, and considered doubtful,.....	1,043,166

The aggregate of dividends of all the banks for six months, a fraction over 297-100 per cent.

There are also in Massachusetts thirty-two institutions for savings, having nearly 42,587 depositors, and about \$7,000,000 of deposits.

STATE DEBTS.—Since several states in the Union are burdened with enormous debts, we cannot judge of the condition of any state without inquiring into her indebtedness. Massachusetts has a small debt of about \$175,000, which arose from extraordinary expenditures, incurred by the state during the last eight or ten years: such as revising her statutes, building a new state prison, and a state lunatic hospital; but the ordinary revenue of the state will soon extinguish it. It is not, therefore, worthy of being mentioned as a state debt. Massachusetts has loaned her credit, in the form of scrip, to the Norwich and Worcester, Eastern, and Boston and Maine railroad companies, to the amount of \$1,050,000, and as security has a mortgage upon each of those roads, with their appurtenances, which have cost the companies more than \$3,350,000. If these companies should fail to redeem the scrip when it shall fall due, the commonwealth would come in possession of a property worth at least three times as much as it would have cost her. There surely can be nothing in this which can impair her credit, or create alarm.

Besides this, the state has loaned \$4,000,000 of scrip to the Western railroad corporation, and as security has taken a mortgage on the road and all the property of the corporation, which cost, as we have seen already, \$7,566,000. And besides, the statute granting the scrip requires that all which is realized in its sale above its par value, together with 1 per cent on the amount of the scrip, shall, by the corporation, be set apart annually for a sinking fund, with which to redeem or to aid in the redemption of the scrip, when it becomes due. That fund already amounts to more than \$200,000; and as it must go on increasing from year to year, it will, in 1870, when the scrip is redeemable, be nearly sufficient of itself to discharge the debt the corporation owes to the state. With this fund in its own keeping, and a mortgage upon a property costing nearly twice as much as the amount of the scrip loaned, the state is perfectly secure.

The state is also indebted to the amount of \$600,000 for scrip issued to pay the assessments on its own shares of the stock of the Western railroad, and to purchase Charles' River bridge. So far as the scrip to purchase Charles' River bridge is concerned, the state can remunerate itself in the space of two years, at anytime, by tolls upon that bridge and Warren bridge; and to redeem the scrip issued to pay her assessments on her railroad stock, she has the income of one-third of the road, and more than two millions of acres of land in the state of Maine.

In speaking of the liabilities of the state, and her ability to meet them, we have said nothing of her resources from direct taxation; for direct taxation has become almost an *obsolete* idea in Massachusetts. Such has been the prosperous state of her finances, that for the last twenty years she has imposed upon the people only three small state taxes, the aggregate amount of which is less than one-sixth of the sum she imposed upon herself in 1782, when her resources were nothing compared with what they are at present. Nor have we alluded to the sums due and appropriated by the general government, growing out of the late treaty, and the sales of the public lands; for Massachusetts has resources of her own amply sufficient to meet all her liabilities. Let her impose, annually, a tax equal in amount to the average tax paid from the adoption of her constitution up to 1824, and she could meet all her liabilities from that source alone, if the security which she holds should, by any possibility, prove worthless. The valuation of the state, as fixed in 1841, shows the amount of taxable property to be \$299,878,300, being nearly one-third more than it was in 1831. With such an amount of taxable property, with the security she holds, with the business enterprise and industry of her people, and, above all, with their high character for punctuality, and the sacredness with which they have ever regarded plighted faith in contracts, it would be idle, nay, it would be madness, to countenance the idea for a moment that she would suffer her scrip to be dishonored, or even her credit to be suspected. Sharp-sighted capitalists, who are generally the best judges in such cases, have always preferred the stock of Massachusetts to that of any other state. In fact, while the stocks of some of the states have been selling at ruinous discounts, the stock of this state has generally commanded its par value, and has frequently sold at a premium.

There is another view to be taken of this state, which, although it cannot be classed with her resources, shows her importance in the Union. She furnishes one of the greatest home markets of any state in the Union. From the most thorough and extensive inquiry, we have no hesitancy in saying, that Massachusetts consumes, of the products of other states in the Union, an annual amount of more than \$40,000,000, being equal to one-half of the average of the domestic exports of the United States, if we except manufactured articles. In a national point of view, this is of great importance. Cut off the market of this commonwealth, and the effect would be sensibly felt in most of the states. We would go into this subject in detail, but our limits will not permit.

EDUCATION.—The venerable University of Cambridge stands at the head of the literary institutions of the country. Massachusetts is also blessed with Williams' College, and Amherst College, two highly respectable and flourishing institutions; besides which, we have a large number of incorporated and other academies. But in nothing is Massachusetts more distinguished than for her common schools, supported at the public charge, and open and free for all. By the last school abstract laid before the legislature, in 1843, the following facts appear:—

Number of common schools.....	3,198
“ persons between the age of 4 and 16,.....	185,058
Whole number of scholars who attend school in summer,.....	133,448
“ “ “ “ “ winter,.....	159,056
Sum expended for common schools,.....	\$579,190
“ tuition in academies and private schools,.....	309,067

From these facts it will be seen that there is expended annually in Massachusetts the sum of \$888,197, for the education of children and youth, independent of what is required to support the young men in the colleges.

Massachusetts has, also, a small school fund of \$472,676, which is accumulating, the interest of which is annually distributed among the school districts, in addition to the sums mentioned above.

In connexion with the subject of common school education, it may be proper to observe that Massachusetts has in operation, supported principally by the state, two Normal schools, designed expressly to qualify teachers for common schools. These schools have been in operation some three or four years, and have been well attended. One is designed exclusively for females, the other for both sexes. These schools were established as experiments, no institutions of the same kind having been tried in this country; and thus far the experiment has satisfied the reasonable expectations of its friends. Teachers educated in these institutions have generally been found more efficient than such as are educated elsewhere; and strong hopes are entertained that the noble example set by Massachusetts, may be followed by the other states of the confederacy.

STATE INSTITUTIONS.—In concluding this view of the state, we will mention her charitable institutions, and the sum she expends annually for the benefit of the poor and unfortunate. The Lunatic hospital, at Worcester, was built by the state at an expense exceeding \$100,000, and is sufficiently large to accommodate about two hundred and fifty patients; but it has been found to be insufficient to accommodate all who apply. The state has accordingly authorized the erection of an additional building, sufficient to accommodate one hundred and fifty more patients. This institution is sustained at an annual expense to the state of from \$5,000 to \$12,000. The state also sustains an institution for the blind, at an expense of from \$8,000 to \$10,000 annually, and contributes to the education of the deaf and dumb from \$3,000 to \$5,000 annually. She likewise grants \$2,000 a year to sustain the Eye and Ear infirmary, and from \$1,000 to \$2,000 as pensions or gratuities to old and wounded soldiers, or their widows. Such are some of the principal charitable institutions of the state; and it may justly be doubted whether any state in the Union does more to alleviate distress, and to promote the happiness of her own citizens and those who come within her territory, than the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

ART. III.—THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

THE subject of the mails, and the charge upon letters and newspapers, is one of great interest, and has long occupied the attention of the public, as well as those who have presided over the department. By the Constitution, power was conferred on Congress to establish post offices and post roads, and soon after the commencement of the general government, laws were passed carrying this power into effect. Since that period, the rapid increase of settlements over the whole United States has caused a corresponding increase in the number of offices and the extent of post roads. There does not appear to have occurred any essential change in

the general system for the conduct of the department since its first establishment. Rates uniformly high have been and continue to be charged, notwithstanding that the revolution which has attended commerce and the advancing state of the whole country, have left the charges much too high in proportion to all other expenses and values, if we except years of great paper inflation, such as those of 1836-7. The establishment of the post office by the Federal government was never with the view of deriving revenue from it as a trade, by giving the government a monopoly of that trade. The object was only to do that by government agency, which, although indispensable for public convenience and the transaction of business public and private, was, in that early period of our government, beyond the means of individuals, or associations of individuals. The post office arrangements, however, like the country and its population, began on a very small scale; and as the latter grew with great rapidity, it drew after it the necessity of as rapid an extension of the former. Hence, notwithstanding that the receipts of the department rose from \$37,935, in 1790, to \$4,546,246 in 1843, by a constant increase in each successive year, yet the expenditure always kept pace with, and of late years have exceeded them. The following is a table of the leading features of the department from the commencement of the government:—

POST OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNITED STATES—1790 TO 1843.

Years.	No. of offices.	Miles of post-roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Excess receipts.	Excess expenditures.
1790,.....	75	1,875	37,935	32,140	5,795
1791,.....	89	1,905	46,294	36,697	9,597
1792,.....	195	5,642	67,444	54,531	12,913
1793,.....	209	5,642	104,747	72,040	32,707
1794,.....	450	11,984	128,947	89,973	37,974
1795,.....	453	13,207	160,620	117,893	42,727
1796,.....	468	13,207	155,067	131,572	53,495
1797,.....	554	16,180	213,998	150,114	63,884
1798,.....	639	16,180	232,977	179,084	53,893
1799,.....	677	16,180	264,846	188,038	76,898
1800,.....	903	20,817	280,804	213,994	66,810
1801,.....	1,025	22,309	320,443	255,151	65,292
1802,.....	1,114	25,315	327,045	281,916	45,129
1803,.....	1,258	25,315	351,823	322,364	29,459
1804,.....	1,405	29,556	389,450	337,502	51,948
1805,.....	1,558	31,076	421,373	377,367	44,006
1806,.....	1,710	33,431	446,106	413,573	32,553
1807,.....	1,848	33,431	478,763	453,885	24,878
1808,.....	1,944	33,755	460,564	462,828	2,264
1809,.....	2,012	34,035	506,634	498,012	8,622
1810,.....	2,300	34,035	551,684	495,969	55,175
1811,.....	2,403	36,406	587,247	499,099	88,448
1812,.....	2,610	36,406	549,208	540,165	109,043
1813,.....	2,708	29,378	703,155	681,012	22,143
1814,.....	2,901	39,540	730,370	727,126	3,244
1815,.....	3,000	41,736	1,043,065	748,121	294,744
1816,.....	3,260	43,748	961,782	804,422	157,360
1817,.....	3,459	48,673	1,002,973	916,515	86,458
1818,.....	3,618	52,089	1,130,235	1,035,822	94,403
1819,.....	4,000	59,473	1,204,737	1,117,861	86,876
1820,.....	4,500	67,586	1,111,927	1,160,926	40,999
1821,.....	4,650	72,492	1,059,087	1,184,283	125,196
1822,.....	4,799	78,808	1,117,490	1,167,572	50,082
1823,.....	5,043	82,763	1,130,115	1,156,995	26,880

POST OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNITED STATES—1790 to 1843—Continued.

Years.	No. of offices.	Miles of post roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Excess receipts.	Excess expenditures.
1824,.....	5,182	84,860	1,197,758	1,188,019
1825,.....	5,677	84,860	1,306,525	1,229,043	77,482
1826,.....	6,150	94,052	1,447,703	1,366,712	80,991
1827,.....	7,003	105,336	1,524,633	1,468,959	55,574
1828,.....	7,651	114,526	1,664,759	1,691,044	26,285
1829,.....	8,050	114,780	1,773,990	1,879,307	105,317
1830,.....	8,450	115,176	1,919,300	1,959,109	35,809
1831,.....	8,730	115,176	1,997,811	1,936,222	61,589
1832,.....	8,830	115,200	2,258,570	2,266,171	7,601
1833,.....	9,170	118,130	2,617,011	2,930,414	313,403
1834,.....	9,200	112,224	2,823,749	2,910,605	86,856
1835,.....	10,730	108,324	2,993,556	2,757,350	244,206
1836,.....	10,770	105,674	3,408,323	2,841,766	566,559
1837,.....	12,099	142,877	4,100,605	3,303,428	797,177
1838,.....	12,519	134,818	4,235,077	4,621,836	386,760
1839,.....	12,680	133,999	4,477,614	4,654,718	177,104
1840,.....	13,468	155,739	4,539,265	4,759,110	219,845
1841,.....	13,682	155,026	4,379,317	4,567,228	187,920
1842,.....	13,733	149,732	4,546,246	4,627,716	81,470

The rates of postage are as follows, for a single letter composed of one piece of paper:—

Not exceeding 30 miles,.....	6 cents.
“ 80 “ and over 30,.....	10 “
“ 150 “ “ 80,.....	12½ “
“ 400 “ “ 150,.....	18½ “
Over 400 “	25 “

Each piece of paper composing the letter is charged with the postage until the package weighs an ounce, which is quadruple postage, and the same rates for heavier packets. Newspapers, carried out of the state, or, if out not over one hundred miles, one cent; over one hundred miles and out of the state, one cent and a half.* Magazines and pamphlets are charged as follows:—

	Periodical.	Not Periodical.
Not over 100 miles,.....	1½ cents per sheet.	4 cents per sheet.
Over 100 miles,.....	2½ “	6 “

The postage on ship letters, if delivered at the port of arrival, six cents; if conveyed by post, two cents in addition to the ordinary postage.

From this tabular statement it appears that the expenditures of the department up to 1820 were steadily increasing, and always were exceeded by the receipts. In the four succeeding years, during which a great extension took place in the mail service, there was a deficit of revenue. Up to 1830 the balance on either side was not large. After the year 1832, the department, like all other branches of business, began to be affected by the speculative spirit then so rife over the land, and a large surplus accrued during the years 1836–7. On the 30th June, 1836, the department had a clear surplus of \$641,842, which increased to \$756,208 on the 30th June, 1837. From 1827 up to 1834 the high rates of post-

* We cannot, we confess, see either the justice or propriety of the regulation by which a newspaper-sheet, no matter how large, is rated at 1½ cents over 100 miles, and a periodical or magazine is charged 2½ cents, for the same distance, for every sixteen octavo pages, in size about one-half of that of the ordinary sixpenny papers. It is, however, in keeping with the entire management of the whole system, which requires a radical and thorough reform in all its parts.

age began to bear with extreme severity upon the revenue of the department. Railroads and steamboats, running regularly between the great cities, began greatly to interfere with the business of the department on its most lucrative routes. The expenditures of the department were annually on the increase, yet the expensive means used to forward the mail in a great measure influenced a decline in its receipts. Upon the construction of a railroad between any important points the government is compelled to employ it, because it has no means of its own creation so expeditious. Of this the companies usually take advantage and charge high rates, which enhance the cost of transportation far above that in coaches. The following shows the different modes of conveyance, and the cost of each in two years :—

	1840.		1842.	
	Miles.	Cost.	Miles.	Cost.
By horse and sulkey,.....	12,182,445	789,668	11,634,693	737,605
stages,.....	20,299,278	1,911,855	18,767,036	1,700,510
steamboat and railroads,.....	3,889,053	595,353	4,424,262	649,681
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	36,370,776	3,296,876	34,835,991	3,087,796

This displays the immense cost to the department of the conveyance by steam, at the same time steamboats and railroads afford the greatest facility for carrying letters by private hand out of the mail, and therefore of evading the postage. Up to 1827, when the department generally yielded a surplus, the average cost of transportation per mile was \$9 50. In 1830 the rate had risen to \$12 25 per mile, and in 1842 was \$20 per mile, having more than doubled since 1827. The heavy expenditures caused by the increase of railroad and steam routes have left the department in debt, notwithstanding the extent to which the receipts have been swelled. The enormous charges of the railroads have frequently been subject of complaint by the executive, and President Jackson more than once recommended the interference of Congress in the matter. This is no doubt an evil under which the government has labored, and has stood in the way of that reduction of postages in favor of which the public has long expressed its voice. While the government is charged exorbitant rates for the transportation of the mails, individuals have great facilities for the conveyance of letters out of the mails. This, like all smuggling, will be carried on whenever the government charge is so high as to afford a premium for so doing. For fifteen years prior to 1839, when the present new system was introduced into England, the postage revenue had declined, notwithstanding the great increase of population and business. This was entirely ascribed to the facilities afforded by railroads in evading the high tax imposed by government. As in the case of all smuggling, means will be found to meet the wants of the community, whenever the government duties are too high. In the present stage of the world no pecuniary oppression upon a free people can be long continued. The utmost efforts of the English government could not sustain the high rates of postage against public opinion, which exhibited itself in a gradual decline in the revenues. The only resource was a prompt and large reduction in the rates of transportation. The state of affairs in this country is now precisely similar to that of England, when the reduction became inevitable. On all the railroad and steamboat routes, not only is a large proportion of letters sent by private hands, but regularly estab-

lished private expresses or "common carriers" are established, which transport, according to the authority of the secretary of the treasury, one-third of all the letters between New York and Boston. These expresses have become very important, and are constantly increasing. The first established was that of Harnden & Co., about the year 1835. He commenced as a package express, without any reference to letters, simply to carry small packages between New York and Boston, and deliver them promptly on arrival. Gradually he acted as a kind of commission merchant, being deputed to buy the goods he was to bring back with him. The great convenience of this express, and the high confidence reposed in Mr. Harnden by the mercantile community, made his business grow with great rapidity, and he soon made arrangements with the railroads and steamboats by which his business was conducted on a more permanent basis, mutually beneficial. On the establishment of Cunard's line of steamboats to Boston, Mr. Harnden was applied to, to undertake the freight-agency of the line, which he accepted, and to carry it out established a branch in Liverpool. Being thus situated, with expresses running through all the principal cities concentrating in Boston, and communicating with his branch in Liverpool through the government steamers, it became obvious that a safe, cheap and prompt channel for foreign letters to their destination was formed through his arrangements, and he was importuned to undertake the business. Under these circumstances Mr. Harnden made arrangements with the post office department, by which he was appointed a mail carrier. Thus empowered, he received foreign letters, took them to the post office, paid the postage to the government, put them in a separate mail bag, with a separate way bill, and delivers them promptly and regularly. An important object was thus effected. The department got its postage, and the merchants were assured of the prompt delivery of their letters; efficacy was given by individual enterprise to an important branch of the mail service, but still hampered by the government restrictions. Its usefulness was, however, carried out still further. The correspondence between this country and Europe is immense, far greater than between any country of Europe and the remaining portions of it. This arises from the immense number of immigrants which has been pouring in for half a century, leaving friends and relations behind them. These latter are mostly in poor circumstances, and those here, in writing home, wish to remit money in small amounts, and pay postage in advance. This never could be done until the establishment of Harnden's agency, by which a person in any of the atlantic cities may remit funds in small amounts, and pay postage to any place in Great Britain or Europe. The letter and money may be paid to Harnden's agent, and thence go free to its destination. For these purposes Mr. Harnden remits by each packet from \$20,000 to \$30,000 to his agent. Here is an establishment for public convenience constantly increasing in importance, and is checked in its advance only by the government monopoly of the post office, which operates as a heavy tax upon the business of Mr. Harnden. The ramifications of that business afford the means of destroying the post office ultimately altogether. The success of Harnden has induced the establishment of numerous other lines, of which there are twenty different ones running into Boston alone, and numerous others stretching as far west as Buffalo; although none of these are so extensive as Harnden's, they run upon all the routes between points which have the

greatest business connection. Hence all those merchants and others whose business lies in the same direction, make up their letters into packages, which are conveyed upon their lines for fifty cents, and have been known to contain letters on which the postage would have been \$20 to \$30. Most of the hotels have boxes to collect letters for their customers, and in merchant's stores packages are made up alternately. Thus, even without the knowledge of the carriers, immense quantities of letters are conveyed by these means without cost of postage; on one occasion a merchant sent from New York to Philadelphia \$45,000 in bills, enclosed in two pattern cards. The transaction was made public through the ignorance of the recipient of the package of its contents, until an outcry about the supposed loss of the money brought it to light. Independent of these common carriers, there are on the principal routes, employed by banks and brokers, special carriers, who bear mostly letters and money packages. The extent of this business is manifest in the fact that two, employed between New York and Philadelphia, pay each to the railroads for their fares alone \$1,200 per annum. These are the means by which letters are carried without the connivance of the agent. But by far the greater quantity is carried with their knowledge: for instance, on one occasion, Mr. Harnden stated that between Boston and New York he paid the department \$600 per month for a year, making \$7,200. Other lines, which convey nearly as many, did not pay one dollar. Under the operation of all these causes, the revenue of the office at Boston is fast decreasing, and the same influences are rapidly producing the same results at other points.

The great success of these undertakings is the surest indication that they "go with the people;" that they supply a want which the government arrangements do not supply. In this fact we have the proof that it is impossible to put a stop to it. Furthermore, the facilities granted by these routes for the dissemination of news matter, are of the highest importance. General Jackson, in his first annual message, describes the post office department as being "to the body politic what the veins and arteries are to the natural—conveying rapidly and regularly, to the remotest parts of the system, correct information of the operations of the government, and bringing back to it the wishes and feelings of the people. Through its agency, we have secured to ourselves the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free press."

This was in 1829, up to which time the department had in itself been prosperous, and nearly kept pace with the wants of the community. Since then, however, an immense revolution has taken place in the press of the country, which constitutes the vehicle through which the news of the operations of government is disseminated, and the wants and wishes of the people brought back to government. This revolution has been brought about by the small cash papers, the principle of whose circulation is essentially cheapness. From an insignificant commencement in 1833, it has grown to be the most important in point of circulation, which is to that of the large papers at the time of General Jackson's first message, as one hundred to one. The publication of cheap papers containing the latest information in a familiar form, whatever objections may be urged against the quality of the matter contained in some of them, has been of immense influence in increasing the number of readers, and consequently the demand for reading matter. With the success of the small papers

their character has become more elevated, and with it has improved the taste of the public. Numbers of magazines have also been established, the success of which depends upon the same principle, viz: low prices and extensive circulation. These small papers and magazines are, in all the cities, rapidly pushing those conducted on the old plan from existence, and forming the sole medium through which the "wishes and feelings" of the great mass of the people can be "brought back to the government." These papers are sold to the subscribers at two, and some of them at one cent, consequently a government tax of one to one and a half cent postage is in the highest degree burdensome, and is counteracting that desirable result on which General Jackson congratulated the public, viz: "the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free press." This tax has in a great measure been avoided, by the appointment of newspaper agents in most of the cities, and transmitting the necessary quantity of papers in one bundle by mail route under the clause of the act of 1825, which enacts as follows:—

"The 30th section of the act of 1835 provides that 'the postmaster-general, in any contract he may enter into for the conveyance of the mail, may authorize the person with whom such contract is to be made, to carry newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets, other than those conveyed in the mail: *Provided*, That no preference shall be given to the publisher of one newspaper over that of another, in the same place."

The conveyance of newspapers and magazines in this manner has greatly promoted the diffusion of knowledge, and 'until the present year the postmaster general has tacitly given his consent according to the law. The only effect of withholding it would be to impose a tax of near 100 per cent upon one half the readers of the small papers, and to deprive the other half altogether of information in regard to "the operations of the government." This is neither for the interest of the public or of the post office department. The importance of newspapers, in the view taken by General Jackson, peculiarly fit them to be the object of bounty on the part of government so far as to transport them free of postage, more particularly when the government, assuming to itself a monopoly of the mail business, has closed the door to the competition of individuals, by whom it could be done much cheaper. This is equally applicable to the postage on letters. If the government undertakes to transport them, it should do it on terms at least as low as individuals can do it. It is no argument whatever, to say the postages cannot be reduced because the revenue of the department does not now meet its expenditure; because the deficit in the revenue is clearly caused by the high rates of postage, which induce smuggling. It is obviously far more to the public interest that newspapers should travel free of postage, than that the franking privilege should be enjoyed at the extent it is. The report of the postmaster, for 1841, states that the number of free letters and packages sent from Washington in three weeks of the session was as follows:—

Number of letters and packets from the department,.....	22,038
" " " " members,.....	20,363
" documents and franked packets,.....	392,268
<hr/>	
Total number,.....	434,669
" weight of free matter,.....lbs.	32,689

At this rate for the year, the free matter would be in number 4,781,359, and the two cents each allowed to the postmasters for delivery would

amount to \$95,627. In the face of this enormous abuse of the franking privilege, the present postmaster has suppressed the transportation of packages on the mail routes, although that system has been allowed by all the postmasters since the passage of the act of 1825. A low uniform rate of postage would soon put an end to all the evils now complained of by the department, and give it an excess of revenue. This is not a theory, but the results of experience in the English system. The state of affairs in relation to the post office department in Great Britain, was, for many years, very similar to that now presented by that of this country. The revenue from the department in 1814, was £1,532,153, and in 1836 but £1,622,700, notwithstanding that the population had increased 50 per cent. The evils attending high rates of postage were so great and so apparent, that, on the appearance of the pamphlet, "Post Office Reform," by Rowland Hill, Esq., an impulse was given to public opinion which resulted in the establishment of the present system, which has been in full operation since January 10, 1840. The leading features of the system are, that, on letters, one uniform rate of postage is charged, being one penny for every letter weighing not more than half an ounce, to any part of the kingdom; letters of two ounces pay two pennies; and so on every additional half ounce an extra half penny, up to sixteen ounces, than which none heavier are allowed. These rates are doubled, if not paid in advance. Newspapers are sent free to any part of the kingdom, if mailed within eight days of publication; all foreign newspapers are charged two pence. The franking privilege is entirely abolished. There is also attached to the department a "money order office," where all sums under ten pounds are insured for a small premium. Drafts are drawn upon the post master at the point where money is to be remitted, and a day's notice of the draft given. The operation of this system has been in the highest degree beneficial to the public, and successful in relation to revenue. The illicit transmission of letters has entirely ceased with all the evasions practised under the old system to avoid postage, at the same time the number of letters transmitted by mail has increased five fold. The government undertook the reform at a time of low revenues, and the operation reduced it still further by £1,200,000, but it has now recovered itself. The following table will show the progress of the revenue:—

POST OFFICE REVENUE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5.

Years.	Gross revenue.	Cost of management.	Nett revenue.
1839,.....	£2,346,278	£696,768	£1,650,509
1840,.....	2,390,763	755,899	1,633,704
1841,.....	1,369,604	903,677	465,927

In the first of these years, there had been no change. In 1839 the 4*d.* rate was adopted. In 1840 the penny rate came into operation. In the first year the deficit amounted to £1,000,000, or 74 per cent, since when the rate of increase has been such, that the income will, in 1844, be restored to its former amount, thus establishing the entire success of the operation.

There is but little doubt that the pursuance of a similar policy here would produce even greater results; and that a uniform rate of postage as low as 5 cents on single letters, with an abolishment of the franking privilege, and free transport for newspapers and periodicals, would not only bring the department out of debt, but so increase its revenue as to

allow of a great extension of the mail service, and confer upon the community the freedom of the press to an extent as full as that enjoyed by the people of England. If that debt-covered government can transport papers free, how much better can it be done here !

ART. IV.—OUR SHIPPING.

THE shipping of the United States has already grown to a considerable magnitude and consequence to the country. In order to judge correctly of its general importance, we need only to take a broad survey of our docks and harbors. We find the quays of the principal cities of our coasts, from Maine to Louisiana, crowded with vessels of our own and other countries. Not only upon the sea shore, but the banks of our rivers exhibit an amount of tonnage of no inconsiderable value. Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, Mobile, and New Orleans, although they may perhaps be considered the headquarters of American commerce, constitute but a part of that shipping interest which has spread itself widely upon the navigable waters of the nation, both east and west.

It is an interest, moreover, which, in its various operations, involves the condition of a considerable bulk of our population. The numerous individuals who are employed in the construction of the ships in their separate departments, from the first cutting of the timber which composes the keel, to the last gilding of the figure head, are not alone interested in this branch of mercantile enterprise. The hundreds of thousands of persons who are employed in our navigation as seamen, are virtually involved in its successful prosecution. To those may be added the venders of the various materials required for the building and furnishing of vessels, besides the great number of merchants whose capital is invested in, and whose prosperity is derived from the success of its operations, and the agriculturists, manufacturers, and mechanics, who provide the staples of commercial transportation.

The fertility of our soil, and the industry of the people, have furnished, and will continue to furnish, abundant staples for commercial enterprise. In Maine we find the Kennebec and the Penobscot pouring down its lumber for domestic export ; the New England states supplying the manufactures of the coarser cotton cloths, and the main bulk of the fisheries of the country ; the South, the grand staple of manufacture, the cotton plant ; and the Western states, cargoes for the commerce of the lakes and the Mississippi, in their vast and constantly augmenting amounts of agricultural products, while the mechanic arts of the nation are continually increasing the supplies, if not for foreign export, at least for domestic consumption. To meet the wants of our seventeen millions of people, the import trade must be considerable, and it is well known that in manufactures of woollen cloths, this is now chiefly derived from Great Britain.

The rapid growth of our shipping has been exactly proportioned to the advance of other interests, and it has been unexampled. We propose to condense briefly the amount, as exhibited by the last report of the acting secretary of the treasury, made on the 23d of July, 1842. On the 30th of September, 1841, there were the following vessels, with their tonnage, as appears by the custom house returns :—

	Tons.
Registered vessels employed in foreign trade, for the year 1841,.	945,803 42.95ths.
<i>Enrolled and Licensed Vessels.</i>	
The enrolled vessels employed in coasting trade, for the year 1841,.	1,076,036 18.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in coasting trade,.....	31,031 70.95ths.
<i>Fishing Vessels.</i>	
Enrolled vessels employed in cod fishery,.....	60,556 05.95ths.
“ “ “ mackerel fishery,.....	11,321 13.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in cod fishery,.....	5,995 79.95ths.
The registered and enrolled tonnage employed in the whale fishery, during the year 1841, was.....	157,405 17.95ths.
Aggregate amount of the tonnage of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1841, was stated at.....	2,130,744 37.95ths.
Whereof permanent registered tonnage was.....	771,776 84.95ths.
Temporary registered tonnage,.....	174,026 53.95ths.
Total registered tonnage,.....	945,803 42.95ths.
Permanent enrolled and licensed tonnage,.....	1,146,141 57.95ths.
Temporary “ “ “ “	1,771 74.95ths.
Total “ “ “ “	1,177,913 35.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in the coasting trade,..	31,031 70.95ths.
“ “ “ “ cod fishery,.....	5,995 79.95ths.
Total licensed tonnage under 20 tons,.....	37,027 54.95ths.
Of enrolled and licensed tonnage, there were employed—	
In the coasting trade,.....	1,076,036 18.95ths.
“ cod fishery,.....	60,556 05.95ths.
“ mackerel fishery,.....	11,321 13.95ths.
	1,147,913 36.95ths.
Of enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, amounting to 1,076,036 18.95ths, as above stated, there were employed in steam navigation.....	174,342 44.95ths.

From various causes, the shipping interest is a subject which has recently received a good degree of the public attention, both in and out of Congress. Among those causes are its rapid increase and its present importance, and the fact that, owing to circumstances connected with our treaties, it is found that the commerce, both to and from our own country, is carried on in a good measure by British ships. The subject soon attracted the attention of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, and a lucid and able report proceeded from that body exhibiting the prominent facts of the case, with the legitimate inferences; and a more recent meeting has been held in the same city by the merchants of this quarter, with a view of remodelling, if practicable, our commercial intercourse with foreign nations, in order to place it upon a more prosperous and solid footing. The proceedings of this last meeting have not been made known to the public by a printed report. The more prominent facts, however, have been developed, throwing light upon the actual state of our commerce; and the labored document recently issued from the office of the late secretary of state, Mr. Webster, exhibits the present condition of our commercial intercourse with foreign nations. Without presenting any *ex parte* views of the matter, it will be our present attempt to sketch the general policy regulating the operation of our commercial system.

To those who view the apparently interlaced masses of shipping which crowd our ports, amid the tumult of our scenes of traffic, it would, at first view, hardly seem probable that this apparently confused interest is regulated by rigid, yet salutary laws, bearing upon every part of its operations.

Here is a large bulk of property, involving the condition of hundreds of thousands of enterprising men, whose interests and whose persons are transported across vast oceans, and to the four quarters of the globe; and all civilized nations have accordingly deemed it of essential importance to regulate the affairs of its own commerce, by searching and reasonable laws. The rights and duties of the master and mariners, during the progress of the voyage, as well as in foreign ports, are clearly laid down by the laws of the land, and certain requirements are exacted from the owners of ships before proceeding upon the voyage, in order to the obtaining of those advantages which every nation has seen proper to provide by law for its own commerce. The apparently complicated operations of commerce, it would seem, can be resolved into a few plain principles.

The vessel is the sole vehicle of foreign commerce, and the owners, supposing they let it out to hire, derive the same sort of profit as the landlord from the tenant, in the freight. The excess of the value of the freight over the wear and tear of the ship, and other necessary expenses, is the profit of the owner. On the other hand, the merchant, supposing that he possesses no property-interest in the ship, but merely hires and lades her with his own cargo, derives his profit from the excess of the value of the cargo, at its port of destination, over its original cost, insurance, freight, and other necessary expenses. Profit, therefore, derived from the one or the other source, or from both, is the grand motive of commerce. In conducting our own commercial operations, it is believed that there is no uniform plan observed in the transactions, as between the owner of the ship and the merchant. Sometimes the ship is altogether owned by the merchants who freight it, and sometimes it is merely hired for the transportation of a cargo. Without entering, however, into a consideration of those minute and well established legal principles which regulate the parties to a voyage, we proceed to the exhibition of those general rules which govern its prosecution.

In the first place, in order to identify our own ships, it is enacted, by a law of Congress, that the name of every registered and licensed ship, with the port to which she belongs, shall be painted on her stern, in white letters, not less than three inches in length, on a black ground. It is also required that each ship shall be either registered, enrolled, licensed, or recorded. 1. Those ships which are built within the United States, and owned wholly by citizens, and employed in foreign trade, are entitled to be registered. 2. Those ships which are built and owned in like manner, and employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, are entitled to be enrolled and licensed. These vessels are alone deemed vessels of the United States, and entitled to the benefits and privileges belonging to such ships. 3. Ships built in the United States, but owned either in whole or in part by foreigners, which are entitled to be recorded. 4. Ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, which are entitled to a certificate of ownership. All ships built out of the United States, and owned by foreigners, are entitled alien vessels. If, however, a ship engaged in the coasting trade and fishery, be under twenty tons, she need not be enrolled and licensed, but it is sufficient that she is licensed. These are the general rules regulating our shipping, which, however, have been subject to a few modifications.*

*For the laws of Congress appertaining to this subject, we have been indebted to the Appendix of Judge Story's edition of "Abbot on Shipping."

The general divisions of our commerce, so far as they are furnished to us by the government, consist of vessels that are engaged in foreign trade, or that commerce which is carried on between ourselves and foreign countries; the coasting trade, or that commerce which is prosecuted between different parts of our own coast, which includes some very elegant lines of ships; and the fishing, or those vessels which are employed in taking fish either upon our own coast or upon the ocean. These are the three general branches of commerce which are prosecuted from our own shores. In order to obtain the tonnage of these several classes of ships, our coast is divided into separate districts, each of which is under the charge of a collector of the customs, whose duty it is made to ascertain the facts, and to grant proper papers. These papers, thus issued from the offices of the custom house, are the warrant under which they sail, the certificate of character, and the badge of nationality. As the evidence of their actual position, they entitle them to the protection of their government wherever they may float, and to all those rights which have been stipulated either by definitive treaties or the law of nations.

It has long been a matter of question among politicians what commercial policy should be pursued by our own government, or whether commerce shall be left to take care of itself; but it is clear, that if any change of that system is advisable, there has never been a more auspicious time to effect it than the present. Heretofore we have not even known the actual product of the country, and thus we have had no data upon which to base any calculations as to our probable export. The recent census, and the compilation of valuable documents regarding our commercial relations, to which we have alluded, provide us all the materials that we require for such an object. There can be but little doubt that our soil will hereafter furnish a vast surplus of agricultural products, which would seem to be the natural subject for export; and it is equally clear that productive markets for these products abroad would supply a profitable market at home. Great Britain, doubtless, requires a considerable portion of this surplus for her stunted population, but she shuts her own doors against those products, while she continues to pour down upon us enormous quantities of her manufactures. While we are opposed to any partial and exclusive legislation, is it not right that the policy of Great Britain should be met by a like policy on our own part? Should the product of her looms and workshops be permitted to come in competition with our own, while she bars her own ports against the produce of our soil? We have at last discovered the amount of our products, our tonnage, and the exact condition of our commercial relations, and with these facts we are ready to meet other nations upon an equal footing.

It is difficult to conceive what objection could be urged against a reciprocity of commercial intercourse, supposing that reciprocity could be obtained. From the brief view that we have taken, it would also appear evident that a very large body of our productive population are deeply and increasingly interested in the subject; and those causes which tend to benefit any branch of our enterprise, necessarily benefits all who are connected with it. Foreign nations doubtless have, in their confidence and employ, men of remarkable astuteness and ability, who have made the subjects connected with commercial science matter of long and profound study; and there is an increasing motive with us to meet them with

a like acuteness of discrimination, in the rapidly increasing amount of our domestic products and the shipping of the country. We wish to see our commerce, manufactures, and agriculture flourish, and with them the people of the whole country. We wish to see our "canvass-winged birds of the ocean" floating to every port, and everywhere returning, like the dove with the olive-branch to the ark, not with the vices, but with the blessings of peace, prosperity, and civilization.

ART. V.—POLICY AND IMPOLICY OF COUNTERVAILING DUTIES.

IN the Merchants' Magazine for January, 1842,* appeared an able article, by Condy Raguet, Esq., on the impolicy of countervailing duties; and although generally pleased with the tone of the article, there are some parts of it to which I except, for it may be that the principles upon which his arguments are based are not true, or that they are not true in all cases, and that they will not always apply. And it certainly appears, as far as one can judge from facts, that there are cases in which they are not true, and do not apply. Even Adam Smith himself, who first arranged and applied the principles upon which the advocates of free trade rely, makes one or two exceptions. And political economists generally, exclude all idea of policy from their speculations, and inquire only of one thing—what effect has any course of policy upon national wealth? Now, for one, I object to wealth as being the grand end and aim of nations, and question whether even wealth itself would not increase in a greater proportion, if it were less sought after than it now is, and as political economists would desire to have it, the great beau ideal of national policy. Adam Smith never uttered a truer sentiment, nor one of which he seems to have thought less, than the following: "The people make the state; its real riches lie in its inhabitants."† If he had confined himself to the investigation and explication of this principle, he would have produced a system of political economy more perfect than any the world has yet seen, and more worthy of the attention of statesmen. He would have formed a school in which the brightest genius and the loftiest intellect would have been proud to have been learners. Religion, morality, and education, would have formed the ground work of his system; and inquiry into the cause and increase of wealth, with all its means of affording material gratification, would have been but one of its consequents. His inquiry would then have been, "*wherein consists, and how shall be attained, the true greatness of a state?*" It really seems strange that at this age of the world, wealth should be the object at which all seem to aim, the altar at which all do sacrifice, the idol to which all do homage. "The ancients," in the language of another, "placed Plutus, their fabled god of gold, under ground, and, I know not by what strange revolution, he is now raised and enthroned on high, amid the nations."‡

* The present paper, written more than a year since, was forwarded by private hand; and was not, in consequence of some inadvertence on the part of the bearer, received until within a few weeks past.—*Ed. Mag.*

† I do not recollect at present whether this sentiment is in the *Wealth of Nations*, or in the *Essay of Malthus on Population*.

‡ Rev. Horace Bushnell, P. B. K. Oration. Yale College, 1837.

I do not know that I can be placed in any one of the four classes into which Mr. Raguet has divided the advocates of the restrictive system in the United States. My endeavor always has been, to discover what is the truth; and when discovered, I hold myself bound, in all cases, as a lover of truth, to embrace it. It may happen, that because I found what I consider fallacies in the arguments of Adam Smith, and consequently in all those who have followed him, that therefore I have considered the whole system nearly wrong. But I think that I have not gone as far as that, for although I acquiesce in some of the conclusions of Adam Smith, yet I do not rely upon his premises in all cases for their establishment. If I am to be placed in any one of Mr. Raguet's four classes, it must be in the first one; and I am to be considered as belonging to that, thus far and no farther, in that I believe the following proposition to be true: That when a nation possesses the natural advantages for the introduction and carrying on of any branch of trade or manufactures, and one, too, which in the probable course of events, would be introduced, that it is good policy, and that it will in the end increase the national wealth, for the legislator so to arrange his duties, as by the protection those duties will afford, to introduce that branch of trade or manufactures into the country, before it would be introduced by the unassisted labors of individuals. This proposition, I think, can be proved from the principles and admissions of the author of the *Wealth of Nations* himself. I shall not now, however, stop to prove it, but will just refer to the following passage, taken from the second volume of the *Wealth of Nations*,* book v., chap. i., part 3d, article 1st, where he treats "Of the public works and institutions which are necessary for facilitating particular branches of commerce," where the author uses the following language: "When a company of merchants undertake, at their own risk and expense, to establish a new trade with some remote and barbarous nation, it may not be unreasonable to incorporate them into a joint stock company, and to grant them, in case of success, a monopoly of the trade for a certain number of years. It is the easiest and most natural way in which the state can recompense them for hazarding a dangerous and expensive experiment, of which the public is afterwards to reap the benefit. A temporary monopoly of this kind may be vindicated upon the same principles, upon which a like monopoly of a new machine is granted to its inventor, and that of a new book to its author. But upon the expiration of the term, the monopoly ought certainly to terminate; the forts and garrisons, if it was found necessary to establish any, to be taken into the hands of the government, their value to be paid to the company, and the trade to be laid open to all the subjects of the state. By a perpetual monopoly, (this I should not claim,) all the other subjects of the state are taxed very absurdly in two different ways; first, by the high price of goods, which, in the course of a free trade, they could buy much cheaper; and secondly, by their total exclusion from a branch of business, which it might be convenient and profitable for many of them to carry on. It is for the most worthless of all purposes, too, that they are taxed in this manner. It is merely to enable the company to support the negligence, profusion, and malversation of their own servants, whose disorderly conduct seldom allows the dividend of the company to exceed the ordinary rate of profit in

* The edition I quote from is Cooke's Hartford edition of 1804, vol. ii, p. 203.

trades which are altogether free, and very frequently makes it fall even a good deal short of that rate. Without a monopoly, however, a joint stock company, it would appear from experience, cannot long carry on any branch of foreign trade. To buy in one market in order to sell, with profit, in another, when there are many competitors in both; to watch over the occasional variations in the demand, but the much greater and more frequent variations in the competition, or in the supply which that demand is likely to get from other people, and to suit with dexterity and judgment both the quantity and quality of each assortment of goods to all these circumstances, is a species of warfare of which the operations are continually changing, and which can scarce ever be conducted successfully, without an unremitting exertion of vigilance and attention, as cannot long be expected from the directors of a joint stock company." I have quoted the whole of this extract, that there need be no suspicion of my taking only that part which supports the proposition, and omitting what opposes it. And if the principles and admission implied and alleged in the foregoing extract do not support the proposition that I have laid down, I cannot tell when a conclusion is logically derived from given premises.

The remark made by Mr. Raguét, that those who support such a proposition—for, in fact, it amounts to that, for on his principles no encouragement should ever be given by government to home manufactures—"have derived their opinions chiefly from the opinions of superficial or interested reasoners," is rather uncalled for, as it is possible that such a proposition may sometimes be true, and it seems rather impossible, that with all the light shed by Adam Smith and his followers upon these subjects, that so many great minds should still continue to doubt the universal truth of the principles of free trade. Abuse is not argument, and it appears that there are still minds, of no ordinary capacity, who are willing to hazard their reputations, as sound thinkers, in supporting the proposition, that it is sometimes expedient for the government to support the expense of introducing a new branch of trade or manufactures into a country, which will, after a season, advance the wealth of the nation. To undertake to introduce into a country any branch of trade or manufactures by legislative aid, which must, for want of natural advantages, always require such protection, is what few would contend for, or justify, unless on grounds of public policy, upon which grounds even Adam Smith himself approves of the navigation acts of Great Britain. "Notwithstanding," he says, "it is not impossible that some of the regulations of this famous act may have proceeded from national animosity, they are as wise as if they had all been dictated by the most deliberate wisdom."—*Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii., book iv., chap. ii.

The policy or impolicy of countervailing duties, in every case, is a question, in my apprehension, not to be decided by mere abstract reasoning from given or assumed premises. A conclusion may be logically deduced from such premises, and still not be true. Because it is a true proposition in natural philosophy, that the strength of timbers, the length being given, is inversely as the breadth into the square of the depth, the philosopher would not undertake to tell you what weight any piece of timber would sustain. He would need some other data before he could draw any conclusion, and logic would be of no service to him, until he knew all the facts in the particular case. With a knowledge of these, and of the different qualities and kinds of timber, he might undertake to answer

your question. But a long and anxious course of experiments and observations, as to the strength of different kinds of wood, with a strict and severe induction, would be necessary, before he could learn any general rule or principle to apply to particular cases. When, by his observations and experiments, he has established these general rules, assuming the truth of the proposition, that nature is uniform in her operations, and knowing the facts in any particular case, he can then apply his principles, thus established, to the particular case. Because, in one particular case, it is proved that it will diminish the national wealth to lay protecting duties, and that therefore it is impolitic, it does not logically follow that it is impolitic in every case. Because it is proved to be impolitic in one case to lay countervailing duties, it does not logically follow that it is impolitic in every case. You cannot logically deduce any universal conclusion, from a particular premises. And although it should be proved, that in every case with which we are acquainted, in which the legislator has undertaken to introduce new trades or manufactures into his country by protection, in any shape or way, that he has done an injury, and has diminished the national wealth, although it would create a very strong presumption that such would always be the consequence, yet it does not inevitably follow. For it may be, that the very next case presented may be the one to which the general rules we have already learned may not apply, owing to some circumstance connected with it, which were not found in the preceding cases. Before you can apply a general rule, derived by induction from particular cases, to any given individual case, you must prove that the case in hand comes within that class of cases from which the principle was derived, or else there will be an error in the conclusion. Mr. Raguét, in his remarks upon the first class of the advocates of a restrictive system, makes use of this argument: "The operation of the British corn laws, in making the British people eat dear bread, is so manifestly seen by all to be injurious to the nation at large, that reflecting men could not fail to perceive that a policy in this country, which should compel the American people to wear dear clothes, would necessarily be injurious to *them*." This argument, to make it logically correct, demands the assumption of a proposition which I think to be untrue; and to show where the error lies in the argument, let us state it, syllogistically, at its full length. The argument then, stated in this manner, is this:—

A course of policy which is injurious to one nation, is injurious to all nations, or to every nation; but the policy of the British corn laws is injurious to the British nation, because it compels them to eat dear bread; therefore, the same course of policy which compels the Americans to wear dear clothes, is injurious to the American people.

This can now be easily understood, and it seems to me, that the universal, or first proposition, is untrue, and if it is, his argument is incorrect, as it depends upon this first premise, which is suppressed. That it does depend upon this first but suppressed premise, or proposition, will be easily seen by denying it, and stating it in this form: a course of policy which is injurious to one nation, may be beneficial to another; from this the conclusion may be logically drawn, that it may be good policy to compel the American people to wear dear clothes. By making the second premise in his argument, the second or particular proposition under the universal rule that I have stated, the conclusion that I have drawn legiti-

mately follows. We do not say that it would be good policy to make the American people, even for a time, wear dear clothes. That must be proved not by logic merely, but by deductions drawn from a vast number of particular facts. It is hardly fair to assume, without proof, a proposition such as he has assumed; one, too, which demands so much, and which can be made to prove so vast a number of particular conclusions. Assuming it to be true, you might say that our republican form of government, which suits us so well, would suit every nation on the face of the globe. A course of policy which may be good at one time, may, in the same nation, be injurious at another. An hereditary monarchy may be the best government for one nation, and a republic for another. It might be good policy for Great Britain to allow the free importation of bread stuffs into her ports, because, owing to her peculiar situation and circumstances, she cannot raise as much as her people can consume, neither can she raise it as cheap as other nations can supply her. But this seems to be owing to her situation and circumstances, and from this particular instance, it does not seem to be philosophical to deduce a general proposition, that it would be good policy for every nation to allow the free importation of bread stuffs. The same apparent circumstances that might make it good policy for one nation, might make it injurious to another. It might be good policy in Scotland to allow the free importation of wines, because she can never produce it as cheaply as France can supply her, owing to the difference in climate; but it does not follow that it would be good policy for the United States, as they might, after a time, be able to produce it at a less expense than France. The United States might, with a little encouragement, produce silk at a cheaper rate than France, or than France can supply them; but does it follow, that because Lapland cannot do the same, and it would be impolitic for her to undertake to compete with France, it would be folly for the United States. I think, therefore, there is an error in the argument of Mr. Raguet, owing to that single assumption, for it can be nothing else, as it cannot be proved to be true as a matter of fact.

I now come to the particular case cited by Mr. Raguet, that of Buenos Ayres and the United States; and although it appears, as he says, to be bad policy for the United States, as a matter of dollars and cents, to lay countervailing duties, yet it appears to me that the neglect of some of the consequences arising from the duties laid by Buenos Ayres, and the countervailing ones laid by the United States, materially affects the conclusion; whether it alters it we do not say. He makes one statement of facts, at the commencement of his argument, which is a matter of history rather questionable, which is, "that the farmers of Buenos Ayres have found it for their interest to cultivate cattle, for the sake of their hides for exportation to the United States, rather than to raise wheat; and that thus the farmer of Buenos Ayres gets more flour than he could if he raised wheat instead of cattle." The latter part of the sentence is the inference deduced from the statement in the first part. Now, if my memory serves me, it is a matter of history, that when South America was settled by the Spaniards and Portuguese, some of their domestic cattle, which they had brought with them from Europe, escaped to the plains and the forests, from which, in a state of freedom, have sprung those herds which now roam the pampas of the Southern climate. In the same way we account for the vast herds of wild horses that now scour

over the plains of Mexico and Texas. How far this might modify the conclusions he has drawn, I will not undertake to say ; but that it should modify them is evident. In the case stated by Mr. Raguét, he supposes that a hundred thousand barrels of flour will purchase three hundred thousand hides, the exchange affording to each party the usual profits of trade, and that the trade is free and unrestricted. At this point Buenos Ayres lays a duty of 20 per cent upon the flour of the United States. What are the consequences? He states them as follows:—

First. A rise of price to the amount of 20 per cent, at Buenos Ayres, both foreign and domestic.

Second. A diminished demand for the flour of the United States, at Buenos Ayres, owing to the augmented price.

Third. A diminished demand for hides, for exportation to the United States.

Fourth. That the consumer of flour, at Buenos Ayres, must pay 20 per cent more for his flour, both foreign and domestic, than he paid while trade was free.

The first and fourth consequences seem to be the same, with this exception, that in the fourth he says that the consumer must pay the difference in price. Now it will be seen, on examination, that he does not mention the consequences to the United States of this 20 per cent duty laid by Buenos Ayres, except in the diminished demand for flour at Buenos Ayres, and thus restricting the market of the United States. In his case stated, he supposes the diminution of the trade, by the imposition of the duty, to amount to 20 per cent, so that Buenos Ayres consumes but eighty thousand barrels of flour, where before it consumed one hundred thousand; consequently, the United States loses the sale of twenty thousand. Now what is the consequence to the United States of this loss of the sale of twenty thousand barrels of flour? It falls back upon the American market, and a new market must be found for it somewhere else. But by hypothesis, as the unrestricted commercial enterprise of the United States has already, under the impulse of free trade, filled every market with all that can be consumed, no new market can be found.* It must, therefore, come into competition with the flour already in the American market; and as the demand is diminished, by the loss of the Buenos Ayres market, and the supply increased, by the quantity thrown back upon the American market, the price must fall in the United States. I do not say that this would be true as a matter of fact. I only know that it ought to be true as a matter of theory. What influence the falling back of this quantity of flour might have upon the American market, cannot be determined; it depends upon the quantity of flour in market at the time. But this much is evident, that the cost to the exporter is diminished; he can, therefore, export it to Buenos Ayres, and sell it there for less than 20 per cent above the former price, or the price while the trade remained free. We think that this conclusion is correctly drawn from the principles of free trade and its advocates, with whom it is a principle that, the demand remaining the same, increasing the supply, diminishes the price; and the supply remaining the same, diminishing the

* According to the principles of the advocates of free trade, unrestricted commercial enterprise will always find out the best way of making money; it is, therefore, a fair presage that they have already found it out.

demand, diminishes the price. What effect would this have upon Mr. Raguét's conclusion? Now, it is hardly to be supposed that the American farmer, because he obtains a less price for his wheat, owing to the diminished demand, is to give up raising wheat and turn his attention to the raising of something else that will yield him a greater profit, because, by hypothesis, he can make more money by raising wheat than he can in any other way. And besides, in turning his attention to the raising of something else, he must try some experiments, to discover whether he will succeed, and this requires a waste of capital, and therefore he loses money, as it prevents him from saving from his revenue to add to his capital, which is the only way to increase his wealth.—*Wealth of Nations*, book iv., chap. ii.

As to the first consequence of the 20 per cent duties laid by Buenos Ayres, does Mr. Raguét mean to have it supposed that the price of flour, both foreign and domestic, at Buenos Ayres, will continue at 20 per cent above the free trade price. Now it is a general truth, proved by the history of the world, that when men have once acquired the taste, or felt the need of any article or product, that they will rather suffer some privation and work harder, than be without it. It would be difficult to persuade one who had experienced the benefits of civilized life to live like a savage. As a savage, he could not satisfy the thousand wants that continually press upon him; he would still long for his broadcloth coat, although one of skins would last much longer. Thus the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, who had become accustomed to the use of flour, would wish to use as much after the duties were laid as before; and to supply this demand, some of the farmers of Buenos Ayres would, in all probability, turn their attention to the raising of wheat and production of flour. I do not say that this would be the case, for it may be that the people are so lazy that they would prefer to mount their horses and hunt wild cattle, for the sake of their skins, than to undergo the more laborious toil of raising wheat, although in the end it might be more profitable. The prospect of the farmer turning his attention to the raising of wheat, is a point for the legislator to examine before he lays his duties. But, suppose that the farmer should turn his attention to supplying the demand for domestic flour, to take the place of the foreign article driven out by the duties, what would be the consequence? In all probability, if we may judge of what will be from what has been, the Buenos Ayrean farmer, in order to increase the profits of his capital, and diminish the amount of labor necessary to raise a given quantity of wheat upon a given spot of ground, will endeavor to introduce labor-saving machinery from those countries that have succeeded in the cultivation of wheat. Inventions will be introduced from other countries, which will increase the profits both of labor and capital; and under the encouragement given by the government, individuals who are endowed by nature with an inventive genius, (the true creator of wealth,) which no government can make, but only draw out, will turn their attention to the invention of machinery, which, more than any thing else, adds to the wealth of a nation. That this is not a mere supposition, the history of our own country conclusively proves. It will be seen, that under this state of facts, that the capital of the country has undergone a partial change of the forms in which it was invested. Before, it was invested in cattle, which roamed the wide pampas, and which were useful only for their hides; now it is invested in the cultivation of wheat and

the production of flour ; and although the farmer may not be able to add to his capital for a time by saving from his revenue, yet his capital may be increased in reality by the increased revenue which it yields in the new form which it is invested. In the same way, an individual may increase his revenue by ceasing to cultivate a part of his farm, owing to the improvements he makes in the manner of cultivating the part which he retains. This has frequently happened in some parts of our country. Now, is this change of the form in which part of the national capital of Buenos Ayres is invested profitable to her or not, or will it in the end be profitable to her? Will it compensate her for the outlay, or, in other words, will the increased profits of capital, after she shall be enabled, by the aid of the government duties, to produce flour cheaper than other nations can sell it to her, so as to need no assistance, repay to the nation the sums she has been obliged to expend? This is an inference to be drawn by the legislator from an induction of a vast number of particular facts, and I know of no general rule that will always apply to such cases, with the certainty of always producing a correct result. When we reason about nations, there are elements in the combination which may be found in one nation and not in another. Man is not governed by fixed and immutable laws. When once we have discovered the modes in which the powers of nature act, we may always presume that they will continue to act in the same manner until the end of time. We can rely upon the courses of the seasons ; that summer and winter, seed time and harvest shall continue to follow in their destined round with an immutable certainty; and can regulate our actions in conformity thereto. But we cannot thus rely upon human conduct. We may, from the knowledge of men's instincts, passions, and affections, form some opinion of their future actions ; but we can form no judgment of the decisions of a self-determined will. Men formerly thought it justifiable to assassinate a tyrant, but we cannot thence infer that they will always continue to think so. Matter changes, to assume some form in which it had a pre-existence ; man alone changes into a character which he never before possessed. The question, therefore, whether it is good policy or not for the Buenos Ayrean legislator to encourage the cultivation of wheat and improvements in agriculture, depends upon many circumstances, upon many of which, from want of information, we are incapable of passing judgment. But as far as we are informed, I know of nothing, either in the climate or soil of Buenos Ayres, that should prevent it from becoming a grain-growing country ; and if it can become such, it would be supposed to be a benefit to the nation to introduce the cultivation of grain at the national expense, if it will cost too much for individuals to introduce it. Individuals are not likely to introduce a new manufacture or product into a country, unless they can make an immediate profit ; for, as they are seeking their own private gain, they would be unwilling to be at a large outlay, and suffering in all probability some losses when they were to receive no extra compensation for their trouble and expense, and obliged also to share the profits with others who had been at no such outlay and expense. It was not without reason, therefore, that the Dutch manufacturer at Abbeville, mentioned by Adam Smith, did not wish to have a similar manufactory started within twenty miles of him. He had been at a large outlay and expense to introduce a new manufacture into the country, by bringing skilled workmen from a foreign community, and he deserved the reward of his

enterprise and skill as much as the author of a new invention that adds to the wealth of a nation. If, therefore, the cultivation of wheat is suited to the soil and climate of Buenos Ayres and to the character of the people, and the outlay will repay the expense, it would be profitable to Buenos Ayres to encourage the cultivation of wheat, by affording it protection. The manner of affording this protection must rest upon grounds of public policy. It is, I believe, a well ascertained fact, drawn by induction from the history of nations, that a nation whose capital is invested in agriculture, will become rich faster than a nation whose capital is invested in flocks and herds; and not only will wealth flow in more rapidly, but other advantages also will follow. I do not recollect ever to have read of an enlightened and intelligent race of herdsmen. The frame work of their policy, and their manner of life, seems to forbid the very idea of their becoming so. Wandering from place to place, what opportunity is there for nourishing those qualities that can grow only in quiet? The Moors never became refined until they obtained a firm settlement in Spain, and there, amid the groves of orange and pomegranate, they retained nearly all the science that was saved from the fragments of the ancient world. In the same manner, a nation exclusively devoted to agriculture, without any commerce, will not become rich as fast as one that is also engaged in commerce and manufactures; and it is when all are combined in a proper proportion that national wealth increases the most rapidly, for there alone is the proper field afforded for the different kinds of talent in the community to develop itself, in the production, acquisition, and creation of national wealth.

Suppose, then, that under these circumstances, adaptation of soil, and climate, and national character, the government of Buenos Ayres, in order to encourage the cultivation of grain, and also to divert part of the national capital from the raising of wild cattle, if such it may be called, to the cultivation of wheat, to lay a duty of 20 per cent, which the nation itself must pay for in part, and in part only, for I think that it has been shown before that the exporting nation must pay part of it.* For if the exporting nation does not pay part of it, the farmers of the United States, who produced the twenty thousand barrels of flour above the demand, must divert their capital to the production of something else, which they will not be very likely to do, unless some other motive also compels them. If they do thus divert their capital, they must endeavor to find some new product that will give them the usual profits, because everything else is already cultivated at the usual profits; and thus what was meant to benefit one country, acts as an impellant force or encouragement in another. The 20 per cent duty, then, is laid on Buenos Ayres, for a year or two, until the farmer can introduce or manufacture his machinery, and get fairly started; the price of flour at Buenos Ayres is less than 20 per cent above what it was before, for the reasons before given, and this difference is the real amount of encouragement given by the government. This goes on for two years, the consumer paying this difference; in the

* This is illustrated and proved by a fact I saw stated, a short time since, in one of the Boston papers. A merchant in this country wrote to his correspondent at Buenos Ayres, that Congress were about to lay a duty of 20 per cent upon coffee. The consequence was an immediate fall in the price of coffee, at Buenos Ayres, of 15 per cent. But when the news was received that coffee had been excepted, the price immediately rose to its former standard.

third year, however, the Buenos Ayrean farmer comes into competition with the American farmer, and the price falls, and more of the foreign flour is thrown back upon the American market; and thus it goes on, until the Buenos Ayrean flour drives out the American flour, by underselling it. How long a time may be required to produce this result, it is impossible to say; but the result will be as inevitable as that effect follows cause. It has been done before, and it can be done again. There are bounds and limits, to be sure, as well as there are bounds and limits in nature. Buenos Ayres cannot produce for herself every article of necessity or luxury that the globe can furnish, for nature has denied her the advantages requisite. It would be folly, therefore, for her to attempt it. It would be folly to attempt to cultivate the vine, just below the limits of perpetual snow; but it does not follow that it would be folly to cultivate wheat. Natural advantages must ever belong to the nation to which Providence has assigned them, but acquired advantages may be obviated. The knowledge and skill acquired or possessed by one set of men, or nation, may be transferred to another; but the soil and climate can never be thus exchanged. It is, therefore, for the legislator to examine and see whether the product he wishes to introduce from a foreign nation into his own can be produced, and if so, the question of profit or loss is to be settled also by an examination of particular facts, and not by logical arguments, drawn from axioms; for then the premises imply the conclusion, and a knowledge of facts is useless, as no general law can be derived from them, the rule having already been deduced from axioms. This is a fault of the free trade system, as generally propagated, that its general rules are not drawn by induction from a vast number of particular facts, after the Baconian method, but, like the natural philosophy of the ancients, one principle is contained in another, and facts are forced to square with these principles, thus logically deduced. In the natural philosophy of the present day, it is considered necessary to go through a long course of experiments and observations, before any of its principles shall be considered as proved, and each principle is to be proved by its own class of facts. The philosophy of the modern political economists reminds us of the nut given by the enchanted princess of the fairy tale to her lover, who was required by his father to find a thread that could be passed through the eye of the needle. When the nut was opened, another nut was found within, and then another, and then came a millet seed, and then a mustard seed, and within that was found the thread. This kind of philosophy is most excellently suited for the purposes of disputation and argument, and for putting down an antagonist, but it is not suited to the discovery of new truths.

But let us look and see what other consequences accrue to Buenos Ayres from the establishment of the duties for the encouragement of agriculture, besides those we have already seen. Among the most important of these, we will mention first, that the same extent of territory will support a much larger and denser population. That this is true, we can see, by comparing our own condition with that of Buenos Ayres; and although there are many other circumstances that make us differ, yet this may be considered as one of the most important points of difference: the difference in the character of the products and the manner of cultivation. The population supported on the soil of the United States is much more dense than that supported on the soil of Buenos Ayres, although both

countries were settled at nearly the same period of time, and both may be considered as having a boundless extent of territory. Why is it that the population of the United States increases so much faster than that of Buenos Ayres? Why is it that Buenos Ayres is weak, while we are powerful? The early settlers of the country were compelled, by the circumstances in which they were placed, to apply themselves to agriculture; and instead of spreading themselves over the wide extent of territory that lay spread out before them, and degenerating into a nation of herdsmen, they were compelled to till the soil to support themselves and their little ones. As a consequence, towns and villages sprang up, surrounded by well-cultivated farms; and the orator of the revolution was almost within the bounds of truth, when he said, "that the fires in our autumnal woods are scarcely more rapid than have been the increase of our wealth and population."* What makes the difference between China and Tartary? One supports a race of herdsmen, and the other a race of agriculturists. The same territory that supported Abraham with his flocks and herds, afterwards supported thousands of those who cultivated the vine, the pomegranate, and the olive. The cultivator of the soil has also more wants than the herdsman, and requires more mechanics to prepare tools for his use on his farm; he requires more machines, the products or creations of genius, to assist in his productions, and to prepare those productions for consumption, and consequently gives employment to more laborers, and thus produces more wealth than the herdsmen. From the descriptions given of the herdsmen of the Pampas, we find them such as, from their employment, we might suppose them to be—a wild, roving, and reckless set of men, fond of anything but hard work. Ignorant and poor we also know them to be; and while they continue as they now are, they will remain poor and ignorant, afflicted by those vices that are the consequences of ignorance and poverty. To educate them while they remain as they are, is a matter of as much impossibility as it is to educate the Indians on our western frontiers, who wander from place to place, without fixed habitations. Our missionaries tell us that it is impossible to educate the Indian, unless he can be induced to quit his present mode of life, and to settle down as a cultivator of the soil. The Cherokees were more easily educated and improved than the Choctaws or Chickasaws, because they were more easily induced to become farmers; and we find, as a consequence, what all experience proves we might have expected, that they became richer than their Indian neighbors, and now they are the most enlightened tribe in the United States. The arts and sciences never have flourished, and never can flourish, where the population is so scattered; and it is to the progress made in these arts and sciences that Europe and the United States owe their unexampled progress in wealth since the commencement of the seventeenth century. The invention of the cotton gin has more than quadrupled the wealth of the southern part of the confederacy; and the amount of wealth created by the invention of the steam engine and of the steamboat is incalculable. Would a people, whose wealth consists in flocks and herds, be likely to make improvements in natural science, or to pursue such kinds of study? The progress of the mechanic arts depends upon, and must be preceded by, discoveries in science; but will a race of herdsmen make any such discoveries? Has

* Otis.

history left us any record of such discoveries made by such a people, or of inventions which change the instruments or the forms in which capital is invested? Adam Smith acknowledges that, on the principle he has laid down, there is a limit to the profitable investment of capital; but has the most far-reaching intellect yet discovered any bounds to the progress of the inventive faculty, or ascertained any limit to the application of invention to the varied wants of human life? We know, also, that a great part of the cost of the products of the soil to the distant consumer, is made up of the cost of transportation, and the cultivator of the soil obtains a higher price for his products, if the cost of transportation is diminished. In this case, the producer and the consumer are mutually benefitted. But railroads and canals, by diminishing the cost, and facilitating transportation, increase the amount of capital, and augment its revenues. But is there any probability that a pastoral people will construct railroads and dig canals? Will they even lay out and construct common roads and highways? Will they dig down and level hills, fill up the vallies, and bridge the rivers, and thus not only band together distant parts of the country, but increase the wealth of the common whole? History gives us no information of such works ever having been undertaken by a pastoral people; and as long as it records the rise and fall of nations, never will. Population and wealth are spread over too large an area, and scattered over too large an extent of territory, to make such works profitable to a pastoral people. But look at an agricultural people, and they reverse the picture. They find such works to be of advantage to the community, and if individual wealth is not adequate to the undertaking, the public revenues are employed, and the whole community is benefitted, although part of the revenues which the people pay must be expended. But these improvements in the means of transportation diminish the number of persons necessary to be employed in the carriage of commodities; and although it may be necessary to invest a greater amount of capital than before, yet the number of persons employed, being diminished, they become producers instead of carriers. This is an advantage to the community; and increases the wealth of the whole. We think it has been sufficiently shown, that when a nation from pastoral becomes an agricultural community, that the same extent of territory will support a denser population, and as one of the consequences of this increased density of population, a greater division of labor follows; or, in other words, the application of labor to materials is changed, so as to draw out more profitably the peculiar skill and talent of each individual in the community. By this the national wealth increases more rapidly than it did before, as the revenue is increased, which is the same in effect as increasing the capital of the nation. This we cannot now stay to argue. Another consequence will be, that as the population has become more dense, the common funds of the state can be better applied to the education of the people, so that the advantages of education are extended to a greater number than before. This all will acknowledge to be a great advantage, as it is principally by the application of knowledge and skill to the improvement of the instruments of labor, that the wealth of the nation is increased.

Enough has been said, however, already, to show that the propositions of Mr. Raguet should be somewhat modified. To what extent, I leave with others to determine; but I must be permitted to say, that although taught to believe the doctrines and principles of Adam Smith and his fol-

lowers to be true, I have as yet never been able to bring myself to assent to those principles so broadly stated, even as a matter of theory. They may be true, but the arguments to me do not seem conclusive, and the proofs are unsatisfactory. Broadcast flings at the advocates of the opposite theory, prove nothing as to the truth or falsity of the propositions attempted to be established. They may be both interested and superficial reasoners; but it must be proved that the arguments they use are inconclusive, and that the facts they adduce do not apply, notwithstanding. It is an old maxim, that truth lies in the middle, and not on the extremes, and it is a maxim worthy of our especial consideration. And if statesman and people would remember it, nations would be more prosperous, and revolutions would be less frequent.

C. C. W.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT, NEW YORK.

LIFE INSURANCE.—EFFECT OF THE PROVISO IN REFERENCE TO THE INSURED'S DYING BY HIS OWN HAND.

Breasted and others, administrators, *vs.* The Farmers' Loan and Trust Company. January, 1843.

This was an action brought upon a policy of insurance on the life of Hiram Comfort, of whose estate the plaintiffs were administrators. The policy contained a clause providing that, in case the insured should die upon the seas, &c., or by *his own hand*, or in consequence of a duel, or by the hands of justice, the policy should be void. The defence set up by the Loan and Trust Company was, that Comfort committed suicide by drowning himself in the Hudson river, although it was admitted that he was at the time of *unsound mind, and wholly unconscious of the act.*

The chief justice observed, in delivering his decision in this cause, that the question to be settled in the case was whether Comfort's self-destruction, in a fit of insanity, can be deemed a death *by his own hand* within the meaning of the policy. He was of opinion that it could not. The words in the policy import death by suicide. Provisos declaring the policy to be void, in case the insured *commit suicide or die by his own hand*, are used indiscriminately by different insurance companies as expressing the same idea. The connection in which the words stand in the policy would also seem to indicate that they were intended to express a criminal act of self-destruction, as they are found in conjunction with the provision relating to the termination of the life of the insured in a duel, or by his execution as a criminal. Speaking legally, too, self-destruction, by a fellow-being bereft of reason, can with no more propriety be ascribed to the act of *his own hand*, than to the deadly instrument that may have been used for that purpose. Self-slaughter by an insane man is not suicide within the act of the law—and judgment was ordered for the plaintiffs.

THE LIABILITY OF THE MORTGAGEE OF A SHIP FOR REPAIRS.

Spinola *vs.* Miln. January, 1843.

Spinola sued Miln for supplies furnished to the ship Henry Knøeland, amounting to \$146. On the 10th of March, 1840, D. H. Robinson executed an absolute bill of sale of two-thirds of the ship to defendant; and on the 10th of April following the defendant, on his own oath that he and one Thomas D. Bickford were the sole owners of the ship, took out a register in their own names. The defendant took immediate possession

of the ship, and in November following the supplies in question were furnished, when the ship was about sailing from New York to Gibraltar. The defendant found that the bill of sale, although absolute on its face, was in fact intended as a mortgage security only.

Judge Bronson decided, that although the mortgagee of a ship, who has not taken possession, cannot be charged as owner, yet where he is in possession, and has caused the ship to be registered in his own name, there is no reason why he should not be regarded as owner, and, as such, answerable for supplies furnished and repairs made upon the ship. Although the plaintiff probably expected to get his pay from Robinson when the supplies were furnished, he charged the goods to the "ship and owners," and I think he was at liberty to resort to defendant. Judgment for plaintiff.

THE EFFECT OF MAKING PAYMENTS TO PARTIES WHO ARE RESTRAINED, BY INJUNCTION OF CHANCERY, FROM COLLECTING DEBTS.

Kellogg & Marcy vs. Corning.

This was an action on a note. The defence was, that it had been paid.

The chief justice observed that the only question in this case was, whether the payment of the note on which the action is founded is to be regarded as having been made by the defendant in his own wrong, by reason of the injunction restraining the payees from collecting or receiving the debts due Hempstead & Keeler, or whether the defendant is to be considered as discharged from his liability by reason of such payment. After a discussion of the principles and authorities involved, his Honor concluded by deciding that the Supreme Court would take no notice of a Chancery injunction, and that, consequently, the payment of the note must be considered valid.

LOANS OF CREDIT WITH REFERENCE TO USURY.

Suydam and others vs. Westfall.

The plaintiffs were commission merchants in the city of New York. They agreed to accept the drafts of Norton, Bartle, & McNeil to the amount of \$20,000, taking a bond and mortgage from them for twice that sum as security; and it was further agreed that all produce shipped to New York by Norton, Bartle, & McNeil should be sent to the plaintiffs, to be sold upon commission; that the latter should be thus kept in funds, to meet their acceptances as they became due; and that they should be entitled to two and a half per cent commission on all advances or acceptances met otherwise than with produce. Norton, Bartle, & McNeil's drafts were afterwards accepted and paid by the plaintiffs to an amount exceeding the value of the produce consigned; and they charged N. B. & M. interest on the sums thus paid, together with two and a half per cent commission on all advances met otherwise than with produce.

The present action was brought to recover the sum advanced upon one of the drafts, and a majority of the judges held that this transaction was not essentially usurious, especially as it appeared that the charge for a commission was customary among merchants engaged in similar business. Justice Cowen dissented from the opinion of his brethren.

Ketchum vs. Barber.

The *bona fide* sale of one's credit by way of guaranty or endorsement, though for a compensation exceeding the legal rate of interest, is not usurious, if the transaction be unconnected with a loan between the parties. If connected with a loan the transaction will be deemed usurious, unless the excess beyond legal interest be fairly ascribable to trouble and expense actually and *bona fide* incurred in and about the business of the loan. In such cases it is, in general, a question for the jury, whether the excess, by whatever name the parties may have called it, was really taken as a compensation for trouble and expense, incurred in good faith, or was mere usury in disguise.

Robert Muir, desirous of raising money on a note at four months, drawn by himself and endorsed for his accommodation by Barber & Leonard, authorized a broker to buy an additional name or guaranty, for the purpose of getting the note discounted. Application was therefore made to Ketchum, also a broker, who endorsed the note on receiving a commission of two and a half or three per cent, and it was then discounted at a bank. About the time it fell due Muir made another note, corresponding in amount, which, after being endorsed, was discounted by Ketchum, and the proceeds applied in payment of the first. The second note not being paid at maturity, Ketchum brought the above-named suit upon it against the maker and endorser, in which the Court, Judge Cowen dissenting, held that the commission did not necessarily render the note usurious.

UNITED STATES TARIFF—IMPORTING INDECENT PAINTINGS.

In the United States District Court, Judge Betts presiding, an action was brought to confiscate three cases of toys and snuff-boxes, Messrs. Poppy and Mr. L. Smith claimants, on the ground of there being indecent and obscene paintings in the same invoice.

The action was brought under the tariff law of 1842, the twenty-eighth section of which says: "The importation of all indecent and obscene prints, paintings, lithographs, engravings and transparencies, is hereby prohibited, and no invoice or package whatever, or any part thereof, shall be admitted to entry in which any such articles are contained; and all invoices and packages whereof any such article shall compose a part, are hereby declared to be liable to be proceeded against, seized and forfeited by due course of law, and the said articles shall be forthwith destroyed."

The indecent paintings were attached to snuff-boxes, nine in number, which were contained in the same invoice as the other articles, and imported here from Germany in September, 1842. The snuff-boxes had false bottoms, on each of which was painted an indecent scene or figure, of so very obscene a character that they were unfit to be produced in court, and only one of them was exhibited, having been first defaced with ink to hide its obscenity, for the purpose of showing in what manner the paintings were attached to the boxes.

For the defence, it was alleged, and there was no evidence to show the contrary, that the present claimants were innocent of any intent to import these obscene paintings, as the snuff-boxes containing them were ordered by another party without their knowledge. It was also alleged in mitigation, that even if the claimants had ordered the indecent prints, they had done so before the law prohibiting such articles was passed, as the law was passed in August, and the goods arrived here in the following September. But the main ground of defence was that those articles were not paintings, nor could so be considered, or would they be so called by any merchant or trader, but that they were snuff-boxes, well known under such denomination in commerce, and that the circumstance of paintings being attached to them could not alter their denomination of snuff-boxes.

The Court charged the jury.

It is said by counsel that if you exclude every article which is in itself of an indecent character, you must necessarily prevent the importation of many of the fine arts. But let us look at what was the evident intent of the legislature in passing this law. It does not say that articles merely indelicate or indecent shall be confiscated. It says something more. It says, "all indecent and obscene paintings," &c. No language could be more significant to mark out the limits intended by the legislature, or to show more manifestly that they meant only productions offensive to modesty and subversive of morality, and that they did not intend to prohibit the productions of a higher order in the fine arts. If, for instance, it was a painting or statue of the human figure, although perfectly naked, and so far, in a limited acceptance of the word, indecent, yet it could not be called obscene. But if, when the case is given to the jury, they say that the paint-

ing has the characteristics of an obscene production, it matters not what may be its merits in a foreign market, it comes under the law of Congress, prohibiting indecent paintings. The great and important question is, do these boxes come within the meaning the act. You are to bear in mind that, on this trial, these paintings, representations, or whatever they may be termed, are admitted to be both indecent and obscene. So much so, that they were not brought before you. The question is, then, whether the articles come within the denomination under which paintings are included by Congress, inasmuch as they are attached to snuff-boxes. It is said that Congress meant a distinct fabric, or work of art, known only as a painting. But to say so, would, I think, be limiting too much the intended scope of the law, and counteracting its purposes. Congress acted on the principle that indecent prints or paintings were likely or liable to taint the public morals, and ordered that everything of that sort should be confiscated. But Congress did not say in what manner or fashion those articles should be produced. They did not say whether the print or painting should be on wood or canvass, or on some article of ordinary use, but merely that it be a painting or print likely to produce the mischief which Congress intended to prevent. Suppose that you imported window-curtains or bed-curtains, and those curtains or covers are daubed over with indecent paintings, could it for a moment be maintained that they might be imported as curtains or covers, and thus escape the law which prohibits the importation of indecent paintings? Can it, because it is attached to a thing with another name, not be called a painting, although it is in reality such a painting as is calculated to cause the mischief which Congress intended to counteract? I apprehend that, taking the language of Congress in its plain and obvious acceptation, it intended to prohibit indecent paintings of all and every description, no matter to what material or article they were attached; and it is our duty to give full effect to the language employed by the law—and the only question for you to determine is, was that article an indecent painting?

Congress also said that not only shall all such indecent paintings be destroyed, but also that all articles in the same invoice shall be condemned. The statement made in this case shows that there were looking-glasses in the same invoice belonging to a merchant who is probably innocent of any intentional offence against the law. But the law does not allow us to make any discrimination. If these paintings came as part of the invoice, whatever be its amount or quality, the whole of it is subject to confiscation.

The jury, without leaving the court, brought in a verdict for the United States, thereby confiscating the whole of the goods. The value of the goods thus confiscated on account of the nine snuff-boxes, was about \$700.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

A FAIR amount of business has been done generally, throughout the fall months, and still continues, in some degree. The leading features of the market may now be described as follows:—Money abundant, and easily obtained, on good security, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ a 4 per cent—stocks gradually rising, although exposed to fluctuations consequent upon speculation, stimulated by the cheapness of money—the internal trade of the country safe, regular, and moderate—the external commerce seriously depressed—the crops of all kinds abundant, inducing a downward tendency in prices—the revenue of the government deficient, and an extension of the old loans necessary, in the form of treasury-notes, which are issued at a nominal interest. These are the leading features, and will be operated upon, in an eminent degree, by the progress of events in Europe during the coming year. The

great point of depression in England has passed. The enormous expansion of former years, re-acting upon a succession of bad harvests, caused a powerful and long-continued contraction of mercantile credits, which has crushed commercial interests, and plunged the manufacturing classes and operatives in a distress perhaps greater than ever before occurred after so long a period of profound peace. In the course of this contraction, the consumption of goods has been greatly retarded, and the wants of the community much enhanced. At the present time, prices of provisions and goods are probably lower than for twenty years. Money, for a year or eighteen months, has been cheaper than ever before; and the paper currency seems now to be recovering its buoyancy. The bullion in the Bank of England is still on the increase, although higher now than ever before, being near \$60,000,000. The consumption of cotton, and the export of the manufactured articles, have, during the first six months of the present year, reached an enormous extent; and will, undoubtedly, as the influence of cheap money in London is extended over the face of the commercial world, swell to an enormous extent. The extraordinary abundance of raw produce in the United States is a great element in promoting the successful extension of the markets for manufactured goods, particularly of cotton, the prospects of which article have, in some degree, changed since our last number. The estimates at that time were of a large falling off in the crop, consequent upon the lateness of the spring, and the expectations of an early frost. We remarked that some speculation in the market was apparent, in consequence of the supposed decrease in the supply. That speculation carried prices pretty high; but of late the accounts from the south have been of exceeding fine weather in the most productive districts, favoring, in an eminent degree, the "picking out." Hence the estimates have risen from 1,600,000 bales, to over 2,000,000 bales. The market, in consequence, has lost its buoyancy, and prices have given way. This, although an untoward event for those engaged in speculation, we look upon as beneficial to the planting interests generally, because it will impart steadiness to the market by preventing speculation from reaching any serious extent, so as to check the regular course of the market. The quantity of the crop is therefore likely to be nearly as large as last year, with a steady market, and prices gradually improving, under the effective demand of increased consumption. The progress of American exports for several years, ending September 30, 1842, is as follows:—

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1833 TO 1842, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Products of the Sea.	Products of the Forest.	Agriculture.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Manufactures.
1834,...	\$2,071,493	\$4,457,997	\$10,884,052	\$49,448,402	\$6,595,305	\$7,113,885
1835,...	2,174,524	5,397,004	11,285,893	64,961,302	8,250,577	8,567,590
1836,...	2,666,058	5,361,740	9,992,929	71,284,925	10,058,640	7,261,186
1837,...	2,711,452	4,711,007	14,658,919	63,240,102	5,795,647	8,995,368
1838,...	3,175,576	5,200,499	9,105,514	61,556,811	7,392,029	9,463,299
1839,...	1,917,969	5,764,559	13,588,866	61,238,982	9,832,943	10,927,529
1840,...	3,198,370	5,323,085	18,593,691	63,870,307	9,883,957	12,868,840
1841,...	2,846,851	6,264,852	16,737,462	54,330,341	12,576,703	13,523,072
1842,...	2,823,010	5,518,862	16,759,725	47,593,464	9,540,755	9,472,000

These rates show but little variation in the values exported. It will be remembered, however, that they are the valuations at home, and vary greatly from the values actually realized abroad. In some years, where the export value is the highest, large losses were sustained by the shippers, because the market prices here were induced by an excess of paper money, and by no means indicated the amount of sales in foreign markets. In the year 1842, prices had nearly reached a specie level, and the values in that year indicate a much larger quantity of produce than in some former years. This will be illustrated by taking the leading articles of exports in 1836, the year of highest values, and in 1841, the year of lowest values, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES.

	1836.		1841.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Flour,.....bbls.	505,400	\$3,572,599	1,515,817	\$7,759,646
Tobacco,.....hhds.	109,442	10,058,640	147,828	12,576,703
Cotton,.....lbs.	415,086,888	71,284,925	523,966,676	54,330,341
Rice,tierces	212,983	2,548,750	101,617	2,010,107

This represents the manner in which a false valuation is given to produce by the operations of paper here. The difference in value in 1836 came back in reclamations upon broen speculators, and that of 1841 now comes back in cash profits. To the shippers, the real value of the products of American labor are now actually more valuable when exchanged for the products of an equal amount of European labor—that is, although the money prices of labor may be low here and in England, yet one day's labor of the farmer or planter will command nearly two day's labor of the European operative. The result is, an accumulation of wealth to the former. For some time to come, the relative difference in value will increase in favor of the farmer and planter, and enhance his general profits. The proportion of exports in American and foreign vessels has been as follows:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, DISTINGUISHING THE FLAG.

	Domestic articles.		Foreign Goods.		Total exports.
	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	
1834,....	\$61,286,119	\$19,738,043	\$16,407,342	\$6,905,469	\$104,336,973
1835,....	79,022,746	22,166,336	15,112,445	5,392,050	121,693,577
1836,....	80,845,443	26,071,237	16,282,366	5,463,994	128,663,040
1837,....	75,492,521	20,081,893	15,725,042	6,129,920	117,419,376
1838,....	79,855,599	16,178,222	9,964,200	2,488,595	108,486,616
1839,....	82,127,514	21,406,377	12,660,434	4,834,091	121,028,416
1840,....	92,030,893	21,864,736	13,591,359	4,598,953	132,085,946
1841,....	82,569,389	23,813,333	12,239,249	3,229,832	121,851,803
1842,....	71,467,634	21,302,362	8,425,389	3,296,149	104,691,534

This table discloses the fact that a very large proportion of the whole trade is done in American yessels ; and that, as the exports of domestic produce increase or diminish, in the same degree are the freights of our shipping swelled or contracted. The value of the freights of outward-bound American vessels rose \$31,000,000, or 50 per cent, from 1834 to 1840. In the same period, those of foreign vessels were enhanced but \$2,000,000, or 10 per cent. Again—the decline in values, from 1840 to 1842, was \$20,000,000 in American vessels ; but the profits in the latter year were actually larger, because the quantities of bulky articles exported were larger in the latter than in the former year. The figures present, however, the general result, that the value of exports in 1842 was very nearly the same as in 1834, nine years previous. The tonnage entered and cleared in the United States, for the same number of years, was as follows, distinguishing the American and the foreign:—

TONNAGE ENTERED AND CLEARED IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Entered.			Cleared.		
	American.	Foreign.	Total.	American.	Foreign.	Total.
1834,.....	1,074,670	568,052	1,642,722	1,134,020	577,700	1,711,720
1835,.....	1,252,653	641,310	1,993,963	1,400,517	630,824	2,031,341
1836,.....	1,255,384	680,203	1,935,597	1,315,523	674,721	1,990,244
1837,.....	1,299,720	765,703	2,065,423	1,266,622	756,292	2,022,914
1838,.....	1,302,974	592,110	1,895,084	1,408,761	604,166	2,012,927
1839,.....	1,491,279	624,814	2,116,093	1,477,928	611,839	2,089,767
1840,.....	1,576,946	712,342	2,289,288	1,647,009	706,486	2,353,495
1841,.....	1,631,909	736,444	2,368,353	1,634,156	736,849	2,371,005
1842,.....	1,510,111	732,775	2,242,886	1,536,451	740,497	2,276,948

The foreign tonnage cleared, it appears, has increased 30 per cent, and the American tonnage 50 per cent, while the goods exported in the latter have increased 16 per cent

in value, and 50 per cent in quantity. In the former, the value of the freights have not increased, but the quantity has done so slightly. The general result, up to the close of 1842, was that of generally increasing prosperity. In that year, there was probably a less amount of money afloat in the United States than in any of the previous twenty years. An immense reduction in banking capital had taken place, and the void created by the withdrawal of paper credits had not yet been filled with specie. A quantity had, indeed, been liberated from the banks in liquidation. In Alabama, the state institutions held about \$1,200,000, which was appropriated last winter to the payment of the interest on the state debt. Nearly one-half the amount has already been paid out, and gone into circulation. In most of the states a similar process, to a greater or less extent, has been going on, probably to the extent of \$5,000,000 altogether; and near \$25,000,000 have arrived from abroad. A large proportion of this, however, remains utterly useless in bank vaults, although slowly finding its way into the channels of trade. Hence, the amount of real money in circulation is rapidly increasing; while the exchanges, having fallen into private hands, mostly, are prompt, regular, and cheap. The accumulation of specie at the centres of business, New Orleans, New York, Boston, &c., causes it to be exceedingly cheap; and it can grow dearer only through the gradual dissemination of specie, through all the channels of trade, over the face of the country. There is now very little disposition to speculate, and no buoyancy of credits, which would stimulate a great sudden demand for money. The same elements which have caused it to become plenty, are still in operation to increase the abundance. The progress of business thus far, in 1843, may be indicated in the following table of exports from Liverpool for the first nine months of each of the last eight years, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES FROM LIVERPOOL—JANUARY 1, TO OCTOBER 1, IN EACH YEAR.

	Cottons. Packages.	Linens. Packages.	Woollens. Packages.	Worsted. Packages.	Blankets. Packages.	Total. Packages.
1836,.....	30,429	15,985	24,911	8,133	5,130	84,588
1837,.....	11,163	5,863	8,678	4,397	2,477	32,578
1838,.....	14,629	10,025	11,869	5,851	1,645	44,019
1839,.....	22,162	15,508	19,388	7,456	3,742	68,256
1840,.....	11,250	9,451	6,969	3,649	1,173	32,462
1841,.....	18,405	16,883	11,624	6,937	2,226	56,075
1842,.....	12,365	9,583	9,643	5,106	1,784	38,275
1843,.....	9,321	10,976	12,500	5,922	1,963	41,187

This displays an immense falling off in cottons. The other articles show a slight improvement over last year, but far less than in some of the previous ones. The American trade in England has revived in a far less degree than that destined to other directions, particularly China and the East Indies, for which destination the demand has far exceeded that of former years; and in all directions the renewal of activity is apparent, in an eminent degree, constantly stimulating the demand for the raw produce of the United States.

In the midst of this plethora of money, the treasury of the federal government experiences a continuation of that distress which has pursued it since 1837. From the 4th March, 1837, to the 30th June, 1843, the federal government has used, to defray the expenses of the government, over and above the ordinary revenues, \$78,925,466, resulting in a debt of about \$29,000,000. The receipts and expenditures of each year have been nearly as follows:—

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Receipts.			Expenses.		
	Ordinary.	Borrowed.	Total.	Ordinary.	Debt.	Total.
1837,	\$24,895,864	\$2,992,989	\$27,888,853	\$37,243,215	\$21,822	\$37,265,037
1838,	26,303,562	12,716,820	39,019,382	33,849,718	5,605,720	39,445,438
1839,	30,023,966	3,857,276	33,881,242	26,496,449	11,117,987	37,614,936

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

	Receipts.			Expenses.		
	Ordinary.	Borrowed.	Total.	Ordinary.	Debt.	Total.
1840,	\$19,442,646	\$5,589,547	\$25,032,193	\$24,139,920	\$4,086,613	\$28,226,533
1841,	17,148,809	13,261,358	30,410,167	25,496,996	6,528,074	32,025,070
1842,	19,662,593	14,890,000	34,502,593	25,836,891	9,471,743	35,308,634
1843,*	8,150,270	5,190,960	11,340,220	10,500,000	1,000,000	11,500,000
Tot.,	\$145,577,710	\$58,498,950	\$222,069,660	\$160,563,689	\$37,931,959	\$221,395,648

* Six months.

This money has been borrowed in the shape of treasury-notes and stock. From 1837, up to July, 1841, treasury-notes, bearing mostly 6 per cent interest, were the medium of borrowing. By the act of 1841, stock, bearing not more than 6 per cent, was authorized. That stock was negotiated nearly as follows :—

	Redeemable.	Rate of interest.	Amount.
September, 1841,.....	1844	5 2-5	\$14,996
“ “ 1841,.....	1844	5½	3,213,000
“ “ 1841,.....	1844	6	2,439,000
2d quarter, 1842,.....	1852	6	1,587,259
3d “ “ 1842,.....	1852	6	701,649
4th “ “ 1842,.....	1852	6	1,129,200
January, 1843,.....	1862	6	4,883,358
June, 1843,.....	5	7,000,000
Total,.....			\$21,072,442

The present state of the revenues requires a fresh issue of treasury-notes; and, under the act of August, 1842, they are to be issued in denominations not less than \$50, and bearing not more than 6 per cent interest. The Secretary of the Treasury, therefore, availing himself of the abundance and cheapness of money on the seaboard, and its comparative scarcity in the interior, with the want felt in the commercial circles of some known paper, which will answer the purpose of remitting small sums in all directions, particularly to those sections where banks have now ceased to exist, and where private houses have not established correspondence, has decided upon issuing the new notes in a form which will at once supply this mercantile desideratum, and at the same time save to the treasury the interest on the issue, which will, under existing laws, reach \$5,000,000. The notes will therefore be made payable on demand, in New York, and bearing an interest of 1 mill per cent only. On the part of the treasury department, the operation is judicious and economical, although the issues undoubtedly partake of the nature of government paper money. Whenever this form of paper has been used, it has grown, for the most part, out of the exigencies of governments in time of war, and has generally ended in bankruptcy, operating like a war-tax upon the people. Without going back to the paper issues of the United States, we will state that, at this time, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, have government paper money in circulation, the financial legacies of the wars of Napoleon. Russia, in opposing the French invasion, was necessitated to issue a large amount of paper, on the faith of the government, to meet its extraordinary expenses. This issue soon became enormously large, and in the war districts depreciated to six paper roubles for one silver rouble, or sixty-six cents. After the war closed, it continued to improve in value up to 1822, when the government obtained a loan of £3,500,000 from the Rothschilds of London, and a like sum from Holland, in order to redeem the currency. This redemption went on, not at par, but at first at the rate of one silver for four paper roubles. In the succeeding year, the rate was 1 for 3.50, and went on according to the improvement of the finances of the empire. Prussia, for the same causes, pursued the same course, and issued paper money; the management of which, however, it retains in its own hands entirely. The amount out-

standing was never exactly known to the public, but has been estimated at about \$30,000,000. It is kept at a fair valuation by being received for government dues, the taxes being payable one-half in paper money. Austria used the same fatal means to obtain its war-resources. An incredible amount was issued, until it fell so low as to threaten to become altogether valueless. To reduce the outstanding amount, voluntary contributions were called for; the church plate confiscated; a coin known as "Buller," debased one-half its nominal value, introduced; the exportation of gold and silver prohibited; a forced loan of \$38,000,000 exacted; enormous duties laid upon colonial produce; the post-money raised 300 per cent; a property-tax introduced, and the faith of the emperor publicly pledged that no more paper money should be issued—all without attaining the desired object. The amount of paper afloat reached \$500,000,000. In this state of affairs, in 1811, a decree was promulgated, amidst the roll of drums, that the government would issue new paper, of which one dollar should redeem five of the old paper. This was simply repudiating \$400,000,000, and leaving in circulation \$100,000,000, in paper of another form only. This being done, the issues again commenced, and the amount outstanding again rose to 412,000,000 florins, in 1813. Repudiation was again resorted to, and new paper was issued to redeem the old, at the rate of 1 for 2.50. Thus, for one hundred florins originally issued, the government reduced its obligation first to twenty, and then to eight. The extent of injury done to public morals, by this atrocious conduct of the government, has been incalculable. The government, since the peace, has been compelled to borrow, in different sums, over 300,000,000 florins; and its receipts have never equalled its expenditures. These are the leading features of the paper money now existing in the leading states of Europe. No country has ever resorted to paper issues in time of profound peace, merely from a disinclination on the part of the members of the government to prescribe the true remedy of economy and taxation. As we have said, the present issues of treasury notes are limited by law to \$5,000,000, and cannot be increased without the action of Congress. The difficulty to be apprehended is, however, that Congress, governed as it is by party action, may be more prone to authorize the continuance of this seductive mode of raising means, than to pursue the rigorous and thankless means of taxation. The amount—\$5,000,000—is not a dangerous amount; and it will doubtless be all absorbed in the operations of exchange, and may command a small premium for that purpose, especially while money is so plenty, and the tendency of funds is to go west. The means of redeeming the notes on demand, in specie, must be derived from the receipts of the custom-house. If the amount should be increased, and the foreign exchanges become adverse, causing serious shipments of specie, the whole of the notes would be immediately to one point—New York—and perhaps in such amounts as to exhaust the means provided for their redemption; exposing the federal government to dishonor, and leaving in the hands of the people a depreciated paper, which, until all absorbed, would be the only means of revenue. The ability of the government to borrow on stock to supply its wants, in such a moment, would be greatly impaired. It is now scarcely twelve months since the agent of the United States government returned from abroad, after an unsuccessful attempt to negotiate a 6 per cent stock. This was the effect of the delinquency of the state governments upon the credit of the federal treasury, which has paid, principal and interest, since its formation, \$450,000,000, and never faltered in a payment. A failure, arising from the dishonor of paper money, would indeed be fatal. There are contingencies which may arise, should Congress perpetuate this manner of supplying the treasury. From the present issue, liable as it is to bear 6 per cent interest, there is but little danger; because, if money should rise in value, and exchanges become adverse, a gradual increase of the rate of interest would prevent them from being presented so suddenly for payment. In this view, they form a description of paper which has never yet been fully tested.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

CÔMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Official Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Imports from, and Exports to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1842.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Countries.	Value of imports.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		Total.
		Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	
Russia,	\$1,350,106	\$316,026	\$520,567	\$836,593
Prussia,	18,192	149,141	7,547	156,688
Sweden,	893,934	238,948	105,970	344,618
Swedish West Indies,	23,242	129,727	3,320	133,047
Denmark,	70,766	27,819	98,585
Danish West Indies,	584,321	791,828	157,260	949,088
Holland,	1,067,438	3,226,338	386,988	3,623,326
Dutch East Indies,	741,048	85,578	193,580	279,158
Dutch West Indies,	331,270	251,650	15,581	267,331
Dutch Guiana,	74,764	101,055	101,055
Belgium,	619,588	1,434,038	176,646	1,610,684
Hanse Towns,	2,274,019	3,814,994	749,519	4,564,513
England,	33,446,499	36,681,808	2,932,140	39,613,948
Scotland,	655,050	1,522,735	80,279	1,603,014
Ireland,	102,700	49,968	49,968
Gibraltar,	12,268	466,937	115,961	582,898
Malta,	7,300	11,644	8,261	19,905
British East Indies,	1,530,364	399,979	283,825	683,804
Mauritius,
Australia,	28,693	52,651	52,651
Cape of Good Hope,	23,815
British African ports,
British West Indies,	826,481	3,204,346	23,367	3,227,713
British Guiana,	15,004	115,991	2,462	118,453
Honduras,	202,868	127,339	36,648	163,987
British American colonies, ...	1,762,001	5,950,143	240,166	6,190,309
Other British colonies,
France on the Atlantic,	16,015,380	15,340,728	1,076,684	16,417,412
France on the Mediterranean, ..	958,678	1,674,570	73,868	1,748,438
Bourbon,
French African ports,	3,899	80	3,979
French West Indies,	199,160	495,397	23,609	519,206
French Guiana,	50,172	44,063	1,030	45,093
Miquelon, & French fisheries,	4,932	4,932
Haiti,	1,266,997	844,452	55,514	899,966
Spain on the Atlantic,	79,735	333,222	1,200	334,422
Spain on the Mediterranean, ..	1,065,640	221,898	16,578	238,476
Teneriffe and other Canaries, ..	91,411	12,723	518	13,241
Manilla & Philippine islands, ..	772,372	235,732	100,444	336,176
Cuba,	7,650,429	4,197,468	572,981	4,770,449
Other Spanish West Indies, ..	2,517,001	610,813	19,718	630,531
Portugal,	142,587	72,723	1,388	74,111
Madeira,	146,182	43,054	1,930	44,984
Fayal and other Azores,	41,049	49,183	19,600	68,783
Cape de Verd islands,	17,866	103,557	11,529	115,086
Portuguese African ports,
Italy,	987,528	515,577	304,940	820,517
Sicily,	539,419	237,861	195,797	433,658
Sardinia,	40,208	40,208
Ionian islands,	14,294
Trieste,	413,210	748,179	136,526	884,705

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Countries.	Value of imports.	Domestic produce.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.	
			Foreign produce.	Total.
Turkey,	\$370,248	\$125,521	\$76,515	\$202,036
Morocco, &c.,	4,779
Texas,	480,892	278,978	127,951	406,929
Mexico,	1,995,696	969,371	564,862	1,534,233
Venezuela,	1,544,342	499,380	166,832	666,212
New Granada,.....	176,216	57,363	46,361	103,724
Central America,.....	124,994	46,649	22,817	69,466
Brazil,.....	5,946,814	2,225,571	375,931	2,601,502
Argentine Republic,.....	1,835,623	265,356	145,905	411,261
Cisplatine Republic,	581,918	201,999	67,968	269,967
Chili,.....	831,039	1,270,931	368,735	1,639,676
Peru,.....	204,768
South America, generally,....	147,222	1,900	148,422
China,.....	4,934,645	737,509	706,888	1,444,397
Europe, generally,.....	19,290	19,290
Asia, generally,.....	979,689	283,367	294,914	578,281
Africa, generally,.....	539,458	472,841	51,135	523,976
West Indies, generally,.....	205,913	1,790	207,703
Atlantic ocean,.....
South Seas,.....	41,747	128,856	17,524	146,380
Sandwich islands,.....
Northwest coast of America,	2,370	2,370
Uncertain places,.....	10,144
	\$100,162,087	\$92,969,996	\$11,721,538	\$104,691,534

Official Statistical View of the tonnage of American and Foreign vessels, arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1842.

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	C'd from U. States.
Russia,	8,068	5,691	1,597	1,699
Prussia,.....	603	2,063
Sweden,	3,394	1,311	13,291	5,161
Swedish West Indies,.....	1,266	2,663	73	726
Denmark,.....	453	795	231	917
Danish West Indies,.....	21,680	26,740	5,334	700
Holland,	24,502	33,589	2,906	18,804
Dutch East Indies,.....	4,861	794
Dutch West Indies,.....	8,974	4,254	708	528
Dutch Guiana,.....	3,900	5,454
Belgium,.....	12,132	12,949	7,810	12,875
Hanse Towns,.....	14,125	16,779	40,988	54,060
England,.....	307,343	285,479	141,989	139,054
Scotland,	4,736	6,390	27,778	10,045
Ireland,.....	3,369	631	20,797
Gibraltar,.....	3,297	12,115	1,758
Malta,.....	521	756
British East Indies,.....	10,099	9,079	285	1,129
Mauritius,.....	565	362
Australia,.....	1,205	1,787
Cape of Good Hope,.....
British African ports,.....	312	312	117
British West Indies,.....	64,363	86,691	37,466	16,670
British Guiana,.....	2,445	5,334	7,010	3,945
Honduras,.....	5,271	5,679	274	17
British American colonies,...	334,634	323,315	359,830	417,409
Other British colonies,.....	68
France on the Atlantic,.....	116,356	180,865	11,877	16,042

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	Cl'd from U. States.
France on the Mediterranean,	15,527	21,944	2,095	2,147
Bourbon,.....	98
French African ports,.....	559
French West Indies,.....	13,326	29,790	6,120	1,180
French Guiana,.....	1,986	1,512	392	257
Miquelon & French fisheries,	2,002	446
Hayti,.....	26,531	21,115	419	363
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	11,948	11,656	628	2,398
Spain on the Mediterranean,.	16,587	5,319	2,884	90
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	1,856	426	1,035	473
Manilla & Philippine islands,	7,817	4,797	214
Cuba,.....	170,797	182,456	10,757	9,719
Other Spanish West Indies,.	56,635	29,565	1,304	1,134
Portugal,.....	8,290	3,305	1,921	787
Madeira,.....	1,244	2,253
Fayal and other Azores,.....	2,276	1,622	100	100
Cape de Verd islands,.....	448	3,219
Portuguese African ports,....	198
Italy,.....	4,560	7,367	1,031	1,402
Sicily,.....	18,360	1,272	6,167	3,016
Sardinia,.....	314	1,153	255	776
Ionian islands,.....	315
Trieste,.....	4,547	10,520	332	361
Turkey,.....	4,257	1,815
Morocco, &c.,.....
Texas,.....	22,490	24,316	1,768	1,369
Mexico,.....	13,481	15,912	1,586	1,226
Venezuela,.....	12,287	9,742	2,796	3,211
New Granada,.....	1,837	1,615	744	161
Central America,.....	2,281	1,638	165
Brazil,.....	37,058	37,778	5,593	2,643
Argentine Republic,.....	11,617	2,120	2,260
Cisplatine Republic,.....	6,104	14,215.	938	812
Chili,.....	3,072	7,092	694
Peru,.....	316
South America, generally,....	1,587
China,.....	12,125	7,259	362	364
Europe, generally,.....
Asia, generally,.....	3,261	6,155
Africa, generally,.....	8,125	6,462	396	117
West Indies, generally,.....	16,920	71	710
Atlantic ocean,.....	9,882	9,056
South Seas,.....	39,946	50,481
Sandwich islands,.....	799	510
Northwest coast of America,.	202
Uncertain places,.....
Total,.....	1,510,111	1,536,451	732,775	740,497

EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The exports during the year ending on the 30th September, 1842, amounted to \$104,691,534; of which \$92,969,996 were of domestic, and \$11,721,538 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$71,467,634 were exported in American vessels, and \$21,502,362 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$8,425,389 were exported in American vessels, and \$3,296,149 in foreign vessels.

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The imports during the same year amounted to \$100,162,087; of which there was im-

ported in American vessels \$88,724,280, and in foreign vessels \$11,437,807. 1,510,111 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,536,451 tons cleared from the ports of the United States. 732,775 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 740,497 tons cleared during the same period.

Tonnage of the United States, September 30, 1842.

Registered,	975,358.74
Enrolled and licensed,.....	1,045,735.39
Fishing vessels,.....	71,278.51
Total,.....	2,092,390.69

Of the registered and enrolled tonnage, there were employed in the whale fishery 151,612.74.

Total Tonnage of Shipping built in the United States during the year ending September 30, 1842.

Registered,.....	54,532.14
Enrolled,.....	74,551.50
Total,.....	129,083.64

Of the domestic articles exported, there were products of—

The Sea,.....	\$2,823,010	Agriculture,.....	\$11,903,652
" Forest,.....	5,518,262	Tobacco,.....	9,540,755
Agriculture, animal and vegetable,.....	4,856,073	Cotton,.....	47,593,464
		Manufactures,.....	9,472,000

STATISTICS OF THE COTTON TRADE.

The following table, derived from "Burns' Commercial Glance," compiled from custom-house reports, exhibits the weekly transactions in cotton at Liverpool, for the first six months of 1843, that is, from January 1st to June 30th:—

1843.	No. of bags imported.	No. of bags taken by the trade.	No. taken by exporters.	No. taken by speculators.	Total number sold.	Weekly price of uplands.
January 6,.....	9,881	19,470	500	4,000	23,970	3½ to 5½
" 13,.....	30,981	22,200	450	4,600	27,250	3½ 5½
" 20,.....	24,743	17,140	550	3,500	21,190	4 6
" 27,.....	47,747	22,780	1,400	2,500	26,680	3½ 5½
February 3,.....	69,350	23,600	1,200	4,000	28,800	3½ 5½
" 10,.....	11,477	28,130	700	9,500	38,330	3½ 5½
" 17,.....	5,253	22,910	1,000	4,000	27,910	3½ 5½
" 24,.....	2,517	30,880	1,000	14,000	45,880	3½ 5½
March 3,.....	5,923	12,390	1,300	3,000	16,690	3½ 5½
" 10,.....	63,838	18,130	500	4,000	22,630	3½ 5½
" 17,.....	183,423	23,460	400	3,300	27,060	3½ 4½
" 24,.....	33,219	35,150	3,000	14,000	52,150	3½ 5½
" 31,.....	7,940	29,630	3,400	23,000	56,030	3½ 5½
April 7,.....	93,445	17,690	1,920	5,300	24,910	3½ 5½
" 13,.....	52,238	9,650	11,030	9,000	29,680	3½ 5½
" 20,.....	56,652	26,230	2,800	5,000	34,030	3½ 4½
" 28,.....	88,779	19,230	1,900	5,000	26,130	3½ 5½
May 5,.....	14,233	25,770	3,450	12,000	41,220	3½ 5½
" 12,.....	18,081	16,400	900	31,700	49,000	3½ 5½
" 19,.....	24,345	18,720	950	11,500	31,170	3½ 4½
" 26,.....	68,619	17,860	1,250	4,700	23,810	3½ 5
June 2,.....	56,169	25,620	1,000	2,000	28,620	3½ 5½
" 9,.....	78,817	22,700	1,000	1,000	24,700	3½ 5½
" 16,.....	52,375	21,800	900	500	23,200	3½ 5½
" 23,.....	17,370	20,410	300	1,700	22,410	3½ 4½
" 30,.....	31,772	22,870	2,500	1,000	26,370	2½ 5½
1st three months,.....	23,700	} Forwarded into the country by interior im- } porters, and not accounted for in the sales.			
2d "	22,630				

Cotton Wool imported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 30th June, 1842 and 1843.

Bags.	Description.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
At Liverpool,....	American,....	684,365	1,045,103	360,738
"	Brazil,	44,006	50,056	6,050
"	Egyptian,	6,398	25,148	18,750
"	East India,....	87,452	33,701	53,751
"	West India,....	500	2,235	1,735
At London,	American,....	1,635	2,024	389
"	Brazil,	954	1,304	350
"	Egyptian,	377	388	11
"	East India,....	48,563	14,876	33,687
"	West India,....	122	256	104
At Glasgow,....	American,....	29,974	72,871	42,897
"	Brazil,
"	Egyptian,	156	156
"	East India,....	2,234	4,809	2,575
"	West India,....	39	11	28
Total, first six months,.....		906,619	1,252,938	433,785	87,466
			906,619	87,466	
Increase imported,.....bags			346,319	346,319	

RECAPITULATION.

Cotton Wool imported and exported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 30th June, 1842 and 1843.

Description.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.	1842.	1843.	Decrease.
American,	715,974	1,119,998	404,024	42,679	34,176	8,503
Brazil,	44,960	51,360	6,400	4,989	2,810	2,179
Egyptian,	6,775	25,692	18,917
East India,....	138,249	53,386	84,863	37,141	21,332	15,809
West India,....	661	2,502	1,841
	906,619	1,252,938	431,182	84,863	84,809	58,318	26,491
		906,619	84,863		58,318		
Increase,	bags	346,319	346,319		26,491		Decre'e.

Stock of cotton in England and Scotland, 1st January, 1843,.....bags 664,584
 Imported from 1st January to 30th June,..... 1,252,938

Total number of bags,..... 1,917,522
 Deduct exported,..... 58,318
 Destroyed by fire, estimated at..... 19,000

Supply of cotton up to 30th June,..... 1,840,204
 Consumption, (26 weeks,) at 26,484 weekly,..... 688,584

Stock of cotton in Great Britain, equal to 43½ weeks,..... 1,151,620

Cotton Wool imported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 1st July, 1841, 1842, and 1843.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
Into Liverpool,.....bags	716,568	822,721	1,156,143	333,522
" London,.....	28,054	51,651	18,848	32,803
" Glasgow,.....	39,399	32,247	77,847	45,600
	784,021	906,619	1,252,938	379,122	32,803
			906,619	32,803	
Total increase imported in 1843,.....bags			346,319	346,319	

40*

Statement showing the number of bags and bales of Cotton Wool imported into England and Scotland; the quantity taken for consumption, for the first six months, from the year 1835 to 1843, both inclusive; and the price of uplands Cotton on the 1st July in each year.

In the first six months of	Imported into England and Scotland.	Average con. per week.	Total consumption first six months.	Prices of Uplands cotton, on 1st July.	
				d.	d.
1835.....	698,742	17,384	451,984	10½	to 12½
1836.....	723,417	18,227	474,902	8½	11½
1837.....	674,523	19,127	497,302	4½	7½
1838.....	952,445	21,629	562,354	5½	7½
1839.....	698,213	20,000	520,000	7	9
1840.....	955,618	24,500	637,000	4½	6½
1841.....	784,021	22,382	581,932	5½	7½
1842.....	906,619	24,312	632,112	3½	6½
1843.....	1,252,938	26,484	688,584	3½	5½

Duty paid on Cotton Wool in the first six months of the years 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843, at London and Liverpool.

	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
At Liverpool.....cwt.	2,428,900	1,510,723	2,485,424	1,958,467	2,212,824	2,823,048
London,.....	25,864	74,682	34,820	20,983	23,776	11,570

Total paid upon. 2,454,764 1,585,405 2,520,264 1,980,450 2,236,600 2,834,618

N. B.—The duty upon the growth of British plantation, 4d. per cwt.; and upon all other descriptions, 2s. 11d. per cwt., if imported into the United Kingdom for consumption. The duty into France, 8s. per cwt.

Cotton Wool taken by the trade from Liverpool, in the first six months of the years 1842 and 1843; also, the Weekly Average for each three months.

	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decre'e.	Average per week. 1842.	Average per week. 1843.
1st three months,...bags	263,139	305,770	42,631	20,241	23,520
2d " ".....	298,750	264,950	33,800	32,981	20,381
	<u>561,889</u>	<u>570,720</u>	<u>42,631</u>	<u>33,800</u>	<i>Weekly av. during the first 6 months.</i>	
		<u>561,889</u>	<u>33,800</u>		1842, bags	21,611
		8,831	8,831		1843,	21,951

		Av. weekly.
Taken by the trade first six months, from Liverpool, 1843,....bags	570,720	21,951
Imported by spinners, and received direct,.....	"	47,330
Consumed in Scotland,.....	"	59,800
Spinners' stocks reduced,.....	"	10,788
Weekly average, for 26 weeks, in England and Scotland,.....bags		<u>26,484</u>

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement and total amount of the Growth, Export, and Consumption of Cotton for the year ending 31st August, 1843; derived from the New York Shipping List.

NEW ORLEANS.

Exports—	Bales.	Total.	1842.
To foreign ports,.....bales	954,738		
Coastwise,.....	134,132		
Burnt and damaged,.....	500		
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	4,700		
	<u>1,094,070</u>		
Deduct—			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	4,428		
Received from Mobile,.....	10,687		
" " Florida,.....	3,381		
" " Texas,.....	15,328		
	<u>33,824</u>		
		<u>1,060,246</u>	<u>727,658</u>

ALABAMA.

<i>Export from MOBILE—</i>		<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	1842
To foreign ports,.....	366,012			
Coastwise,.....	115,882			
Stock in Mobile 1st September, 1843,....	1,128			
	<hr/>	483,022		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Mobile 1st September, 1842,....	422			
Received from Florida,.....	886			
	<hr/>	1,308		

FLORIDA.

<i>Exports—</i>			481,714	318,315
To foreign ports,.....	58,901			
Coastwise,.....	102,237			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	200			
	<hr/>	161,338		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....		250		
		<hr/>	161,088	114,416

GEORGIA.

<i>Export from SAVANNAH—</i>				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	186,655			
Sea Islands,.....	6,444			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	86,681			
Sea Islands,.....	1,046			
	<hr/>	280,826		
<i>Export from DARIEN—</i>				
To New York and Providence,.....	13,656			
Stock in Savannah 1st September, 1843,	3,347			
Stock in Augusta and Hambro' 1st Sept.,				
1843,.....	7,401			
	<hr/>	305,230		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Savannah and Augusta 1st Sep-				
tember, 1842,.....	5,110			
Received from Florida,.....	629			
	<hr/>	5,739		
		<hr/>	299,491	232,271

SOUTH CAROLINA.

<i>Export from CHARLESTON—</i>				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	257,035			
Sea Islands,.....	16,351			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	78,523			
Sea Islands,.....	681			
	<hr/>	352,590		
<i>Export from GEORGETOWN—</i>				
To New York and Providence,.....	13,042			
Stock in Charleston 1st September, 1843,	8,274			
	<hr/>	373,906		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Charleston 1st September, 1842,	2,747			
Received from Savannah,.....	14,916			
“ “ Florida and, Key West,....	4,585			
	<hr/>	22,248		

NORTH CAROLINA.

<i>Exports—</i>			351,658	260,164
To foreign ports,.....	512			
Coastwise,.....	8,577			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	200			
	<hr/>	9,289		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....		250		
		<hr/>	9,039	9,737

VIRGINIA.

<i>Exports—</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	<i>1842.</i>
To foreign ports,.....	1,917		
Manufactured,.....	9,347		
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	975		
	12,239		
<i>Deduct—</i>			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	100		
	12,139	19,139	19,013
Received at Philadelphia and Baltimore, overland,.....		3,500	2,000
		2,378,875	1,683,574
Total crop of the United States,.....			
Total crop of 1843,.....bales			2,378,875
“ “ 1842,.....			1,683,574
Increase,.....			695,301

Export to Foreign Ports from 1st September, 1842, to 31st August, 1843.

<i>From</i>	<i>To Great Britain.</i>	<i>To France.</i>	<i>To North of Europe.</i>	<i>Other ports.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
New Orleans,.....	679,438	180,875	50,882	43,543	954,738
Alabama,.....	283,382	55,421	8,032	19,177	366,012
Florida,.....	53,005	4,196		1,700	58,901
Georgia (Savannah and Darien),.	169,676	15,126	6,621	1,676	193,099
South Carolina,.....	201,645	53,725	15,646	2,370	273,386
North Carolina,.....	512				512
Virginia,.....	1,735		182		1,917
Baltimore,.....			246		246
Philadelphia,.....	1,059				1,059
New York,.....	79,259	36,796	35,340	6,311	157,706
Boston,.....			845	1,716	2,561
	1,469,711	346,139	117,794	76,493	2,010,137
Grand total,.....	1,469,711	346,139	117,794	76,493	2,010,137
Total last year,.....	935,631	398,129	79,956	51,531	1,465,249
	534,080	37,838	24,962	544,888
Increase,.....	534,080	37,838	24,962	544,888
Decrease,.....	51,990

NOTE.—The shipments from Mississippi are included in the export from New Orleans.

RAILROAD IRON.

The annexed schedule exhibits the amount of duty refunded under the acts allowing a return of duties on railroad iron, on proof that it has been actually used as such:—

1831,.....	\$6,847 90	1838,.....	\$910,011 66
1832,.....	336,709 19	1839,.....	672,376 86
1833,.....	202,210 70	1840,.....	688,510 97
1834,.....	421,010 34	1841,.....	391,264 64
1835,.....	529,529 79		
1836,.....	234,194 74		
1837,.....	407,517 05		
			\$4,800,183 84

ENGLISH COAL TRADE.

The total quantities of coal brought coastwise and by inland navigation into the port of London during the year 1841, amounted to 2,942,738 tons.

It further appears that the total quantity of coals exported from the United Kingdom from the 5th day of January, 1828, to the 5th day of January, 1842, was as follows:—

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Years.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1828,.....	357,864	1835,.....	736,060
1829,.....	371,271	1836,.....	916,868
1830,.....	504,419	1837,.....	1,113,610
1831,.....	510,831	1838,.....	1,313,709
1832,.....	588,446	1839,.....	1,449,417
1833,.....	634,448	1840,.....	1,606,313
1834,.....	615,255	1841,.....	1,848,294

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

PROHIBITORY TARIFF OF MEXICO.

The Minister of Finance of the Mexican republic has communicated to the Mexican Consulate at New Orleans what follows, under date of the 14th of August, 1843. Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, the Provisional President, has issued the following decree, touching importations, &c. —

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA, General of Division, well-deserving of his country, and Provisional President of the Mexican Republic, to the inhabitants of the same make known—

That, wishing to protect the national industry, and give occupation and the means of subsistence to the necessitous class, and in order to take advantage of the numerous elements with which the republic abounds, in the exercise of the powers granted to me by the fundamental laws adopted in this city, and sanctioned by the nation, I have thought proper to decree as follows:—

ARTICLE I. The importation of the articles hereinafter mentioned is prohibited, under the penalty of seizure:—

Coaches, gigs, and all kinds of vehicles.	Chalices.	Boxes for the holy bread.
Harness.	Bells.	Censers.
Hats, complete or beaver.	Candelabras for churches.	Shaving boxes.
Furniture of all kinds.	Candlesticks of all sizes.	Jars.
Piano fortes.	Lamps.	Pitchers.
Pañós, and children's toys of all kinds.	Tweezers.	Coffee servers.
All articles of gold, silver, plated, or copper, as follows:—	Cartridge boxes.	Watch keys.
All articles of metal.	Snuff.	Picture frames.
Candelabras.	Metal ornaments for hats.	Medals and medallions.
Urns for churches.	Finger rings.	Thread boxes.
Castors.	Necklaces.	Wafer boxes.
Rings of all sizes.	Goblets for the altar.	Bowls.
Ear-rings and drops.	Saint ciboires.	Shoulder knots.
Desks.	Crucifixes.	Covers for the chalice.
Shaving utensils, such as basins, pots and soap.	Vinegar cruets.	Tin pots.
Fruit baskets.	Lamp reflectors.	Plates of all sizes.
Sugar pots.	Crosses.	Clasps for the bosom.
Basins of all kinds.	Table services.	Stamps for sealing.
Canes of all sizes.	Spoons.	Chocolate cups.
Salvers.	Gravy spoons.	Offrandes.
Chains for the neck, from China.	Small spoons.	Tops for canes.
Shirt buttons.	Knives and forks.	Segar boxes.
Bracelets.	Holy suns.	Glories for altars.
Tinder boxes.	Thimbles.	Bouquets for the church.
Broaches for cloaks.	Snuffers.	All office furniture.
Chains.	Silk reels.	Shrines.
Coffee pots.	Ladies' combs.	Sauce dishes.
	Spit boxes.	Salt-cellars.
	Fountains.	Tureens.
	Military cravats.	Tongs.
	Military and horse ornaments.	Inkstands.
	Buckles for garters.	Forks.
	<i>Articles of Iron and Steel.</i>	
Rings.	Door knockers.	Anvils.
Mexican spurs.	Shoemakers' knives.	Spades.
Aiguillettes.	Pincers.	Adzes.
Steel and iron wire.	Horse brushes.	Fire shovels.
Door and window bars.	Wedges for saws.	Gimblets.
Bolts of all sizes.	Fish hooks.	Weights.

Articles of Iron and Steel—Continued.

Bung borers.	Cords for musical instruments.	Rakes.
Small anvils.	Screw drivers.	Lock wards.
Bridle bits.	Snuffers.	Sledge hammers.
Tinder boxes.	Spurs.	Grates.
Currycombs.	Buckles for harness.	Ploughshares.
Dog collars and chains.	Horse shoes.	Corkscrews.
Iron pots.	Iron work for balconies, &c.	Gun worms.
Bedsteads.	Scythes and sickles.	Gouges.
Baskets.	Stoves.	Saws.
Padlocks.	Files.	Mallets.
Lamps.	Scutcheons for pistols, &c.	Curling irons.
Pullies.	Wheel hooks.	Chimney tongs.
Iron angles.	Porridge pots.	Iron bandages.
Setters.	Large mallets.	All articles of tin and zinc.
Stew pans.	Moulds.	Guards for shutters.
Scissors.	Coach springs.	Steelyards.
Rat traps.	Small crowbars.	Bookbinders' tools.
Door locks.	Shovels.	Hooks.
Bolts.	Snackets.	Dentists' instruments.
All iron plated.	Ladies' hair pins.	Coopers' tools.
Chocolate pots.	Iron work for doors.	Hinges.
Iron nails of all kinds.	Pikes.	Hatchets.
Chapes.	Flat irons.	Frying pans.
Planes.	Sword hilts.	

ART. II. The prohibition mentioned in the preceding article will begin to take effect four months after its publication in the capital of the republic, in respect to the cargoes which shall arrive at the ports on the Gulf of Mexico, and six months after for those which shall arrive in the ports on the South Sea, the Gulf of California, and the sea^{west} Upper California.

ART. III. The goods and effects now actually on hand, the importation of which was never authorized, will be re-sold and re-embarked in the space of six months; after which, they will be seized in the shops and stores where they may be found, and the proceeds will be adjudged to the informers and agents of the seizure, agreeably to the rules of the internal custom-houses; and the holders of the aforesaid goods and effects will be liable to a fine of \$10 to \$300, payable into the public treasury, according to law.

ART. IV. A delay of one year will be granted for the arrangement, by sale or by shipping, of the goods and effects now on hand in the republic, the importation of which is prohibited by this decree; and at the end of said delay, the said goods and effects will be proceeded against in the same manner as those mentioned in the preceding article.

ART. V. The agents and inspectors of the maritime custom-houses where it shall appear that such prohibited articles have been introduced, shall be deprived of their employments.

VESSELS IN THE WHALE FISHERY.

The Senate and House of Representatives of New Grenada, assembled in Congress at Bogota, the 28th of May, 1843, decree—

ART. I. The productions, whether natural or manufactured, of the Republic of the Equator, which may be imported into the province of "Veraguas," by the river San Pedro, to the port of "Montijo," shall enjoy the same exemption from the national duties as if they had been introduced by the custom-houses established on the boundary lines. The vessels so introducing them shall not pay tonnage duty, nor any other port-charges whatever, provided such vessel does not exceed fifty tons by measurement.

ART. II. Vessels employed in the whale fishery, which may arrive at the port of "Montijo" to water, or to purchase provisions, shall not be subject to tonnage duty, nor to any port-charges whatever; but if such vessels should pass from the port of "Montijo" to any other port of the republic, either in ballast, or with part of cargo on board, they will then be subject to pay, in the last port they may go to, the tonnage duty, and other port-charges, as by law established.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

THE RAILROADS OF NEW YORK.—No. I.

UTICA AND SCHENECTADY RAILROAD.

We recently made a passage over the different railroads from Troy to Buffalo, an important link in the great chain between Boston and Buffalo. From several of the offices we were furnished, in some instances, and in others promised, through the politeness of the gentlemen connected with the management of the roads, interesting statistical information relating to the business of the several railroad corporations, which we shall from time to time lay before our readers, as it will enable them to judge of the value of the stocks, the amount of travel, &c.

We begin this month with the Utica and Schenectady railroad, which extends from the city of Schenectady to the city of Utica, a distance of about 79 miles; running through the picturesque and beautiful valley of the Mohawk, for the most of the distance, on the north side of the river, and passing through the villages of Amsterdam, Fonda, Little Falls, Herkimer, &c. The total amount paid on construction account to December 31, 1841, was \$1,968,022 17. The construction account, in the last official report of the president, including all money paid on that account, is as follows:—

Lands for roadway, buildings, &c.....	\$327,766 41
Total paid for grading.....	653,739 18
“ “ superstructure.....	526,028 35
“ “ buildings.....	100,776 31
Paid for locomotive engines.....	115,626 61
“ coaches, baggage, mail and freight wagons.....	90,166 82
“ engineering and superintendence.....	69,806 33
“ Mohawk turnpike road.....	62,500 00
“ stationery, printing, advertising, salaries of treasurer, &c.,.....	21,612 16
Total.....	\$1,968,022 17

The semi-annual dividends paid on the company's stock have been as follows:—

1st dividend of \$5 25 a share, payable Feb. 1, 1837,	\$105,000 00
2d “ “ 5 60 “ “ Aug. 1, 1837,	112,000 00
3d “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1838,	100,000 00
4th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1838,	100,000 00
5th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1839,	100,000 00
6th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1839,	100,000 00
7th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1840,	100,000 00
8th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1840,	100,000 00
9th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1841,	100,000 00
10th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1841,	100,000 00

Total dividends declared to August 1, 1841,..... \$1,017,000 00

The expenditures on this road have been as follows:—

Amount expended on construction account to December 31, 1841,.....	1,968,022 17
“ “ “ transportation account to Dec. 31, 1841, viz:—	
For five months of 1836.....	\$33,498 42
For whole of 1837.....	124,383 28
“ 1838.....	125,912 10
“ 1839.....	131,584 03
“ 1840.....	187,220 35
“ 1841.....	156,631 94
Total on transportation account for five years and five months, ..	709,230 12
Amount of dividends declared to August 1, 1841,	1,017,000 00

Total expenditures on all accounts to December 31, 1841, \$3,694,252 29

The capital stock of the Utica and Schenectady Railroad Company consists of 20,000 shares, of \$100 each, amounting to \$2,000,000; of which there has been paid in \$1,800,000, or \$200,000 less than the par value of the stock. The first instalment, of \$5 a share, on original subscription for stock, was paid in July, 1833, amounting to \$100,000. There have been eighteen instalments since paid, the last having been paid in August, 1838.

The following is a recapitulation of receipts, and comparison of total amount with total expenditures:—

Amount received for instalments on stock,.....	\$1,800,000 00
“ transportation of passengers,.....	1,864,691 53
“ “ United States mail,.....	83,047 10
“ tolls of Mohawk turnpike,.....	22,834 78
“ interest on money deposited,.....	10,226 87
“ from miscellaneous sources,.....	49,134 71

Total receipts from all sources to Dec. 31, 1841,..... \$3,829,934 99

Deduct for expenditures on all accounts, up to Dec. 31, 1841, viz:—

On construction account,.....	\$1,968,022 17
On transportation account,.....	709,230 12
On dividend account,.....	1,017,000 00

Total expenditures,..... 3,694,252 29

Balance, being excess of receipts over expenditures up to Dec. 31, 1841,..... \$135,682 70

N. B.—The above balance was the fund out of which a dividend of \$100,000 was payable on the 1st February, 1842. Deducting that sum from said balance, there remained on the 1st February, 1842, a cash surplus of \$35,682 70.100, without regard to the receipts and expenditures for the month of January, 1842.

The following statement shows the number of through and way passengers transported, and fare received in each year, together with the receipts from all other sources, (except instalments on stock,) and total amount received from August 2d, 1836, to December 31st, 1841:—

Dates.	No. PASSENGERS.		RECEIPTS FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.						Total.
	Through.	Way.	Transporta- tion of pas- sengers.	Transporta- tion U. S. mail.	Mohawk Turnpike tolls.	Int. on dep. part prior to 1836.	Miscella- neous re- ceipts.		
1836,....	45,301½	20,294½	\$168,081 08	\$2,921 34	\$5,574 41	\$176,546 83	
1837,....	79,095½	59,854	298,265 97	\$11,574 61	4,072 53	\$3,263 76	317,176 87	
1838,....	82 459	71,001½	312,808 08	18,563 54	4,009 18	2,327 93	337,708 73	
1839,....	95,776½	86,823	375,309 07	18,331 49	4,614 57	8,518 67	406,673 80	
1840,....	86,823½	86 619½	343,206 58	21,055 18	3,897 19	2,190 80	10,993 14	381,342 89	
1841,....	94,871	78,949	367,050 75	13,622 28	3,319 97	3,461 66	24,031 21	410,485 87	
	484,417	413,471½	\$1,864,691 53	\$83,047 10	\$22,834 78	\$10,226 87	\$49,134 71	\$2,029,934 99	

This road has never paid less than 10 per cent on its capital stock. The following are the names, with the amount of compensation, of all officers of the company, whose compensation is equal to, or exceeds three dollars a day:—The President, Erastus Corning, Esq., of Albany, receives no compensation for his services. Gideon Hawley, Esq., the secretary and treasurer, (being the same person,) receives, as treasurer, a salary of \$1,000 a year—for his services as secretary, no compensation is allowed. William C. Young, Esq., the chief engineer, and superintendent of the road from its commencement, (and a graduate of West Point,) receives a salary of \$5,000 per annum, with the use of a dwelling-house belonging to the company, in Schenectady. Daniel Mathews, chief locomotive-engineer, receives a salary of \$1,200 per annum.

In passing over this road a short time since, we were struck with its regularity, and the excellent management of Col. William C. Young, the intelligent and efficient chief en-

Capital stock paid by stockholders,.....	\$800,000
Stock dividend paid by profits,.....	200,000
Total capital stock,.....	\$1,000,000

The following semi-annual dividends have been paid the stockholders since the opening of the road :—

	Per cent.	Amount.		Per cent.	Amount.
August 10th, 1840,.....	3.20	\$32,000	February 1st, 1842,.....	4.80	\$48,000
February 1st, 1841,.....	3.20	32,000	August 15th, 1842,.....	4.80	48,000
August 1st, 1841,.....	4.00	40,000	February 15th, 1843,...	3.20	32,000

It will be seen, by the above statement, that the capital has been increased from \$800,000 to \$1,000,000, by stock dividend paid by profits. On the three years, the annual average dividend paid the stockholders is 7 2-5 per cent, nearly 7½ per cent per annum. The annual average of through passengers, in four years, is 72,530; way passengers, 51,443. The gross revenue of the road, for four years, was \$737,096 11, showing an annual average of \$184,274 03. Average annual expense of running, including repairs of road, engines, &c., for the four years, was \$65,172 93 per year.

TONAWANDA RAILROAD.

This road extends from the city of Rochester to the village of Attica, in the county of Wyoming, a distance of forty-three miles, where it unites with the Attica and Buffalo Railroad, forming a link in the chain from Boston and Albany to Buffalo. The Tonawanda company procured their charter April 3, 1832, and completed their road as far as Batavia in 1836, and finished it to Attica in 1842. The chartered capital of the company was \$500,000; but the road has cost, including cars, engines, &c., about \$600,000.

In our recent passage over this road, while at Rochester, through the politeness of Mr. Childs, one of the directors of the company, we were permitted to collect from their books the following statistics of its operations :—

Statement of the Receipts and Disbursements of the Tonawanda Railroad Company, from January, 1839, to August 31, 1843.

RECEIPTS FROM PASSENGERS, FREIGHT, AND MAIL.

	Passengers.	Freight.	Mail.	Total receipts.	Total disbursements.
1839,.....	\$26,923 90	\$20,786 18	\$2,500 08	\$50,210 16	\$23,850 67
1840,.....	20,952 91	30,575 58	2 500 00	54,028 49	27,263 51
1841,.....	27,627 26	15,202 24	3,739 00	46,554 50	27,048 53
1842,.....	32,295 46	19,255 99	4,950 00	56,501 45	31,579 48
	\$107,799 53	\$85,809 99	\$13,689 08	\$206,294 60	\$109,742 19

The receipts for passengers and freight, from January 1st, 1843, to August 31st, was as follows :—

1843.	Passengers.	Freight.	Total.	Total disbursements for the 8 months from Jan., 1831, to August 31.
January, February, and March,...	\$1,693 03	\$112 66	\$1,805 69	
April,.....	3,249 40	348 63	3,598 03	
May,.....	5,753 24	1,104 08	6,857 32	
June,.....	5,934 54	912 36	6,846 90	
July,.....	7,202 07	723 76	7,925 83	
August,.....	8,595 27	935 33	9,530 60	
Total, 8 months,.....	\$30,734 52	\$4,024 16	\$36,655 37	\$23,748 13

In the disbursements for 1843, are included two new long coaches, one mail-carriage one second-class car, the building of a new side-track at Batavia, and another at Attica, each amounting to about \$5,500.

It will be seen, from the foregoing statement, that the travel over this road is increasing. The stock of the company is, of course, rising in value, although we believe but little, if any, is in the market.

ATTICA AND BUFFALO RAILROAD.

The Attica and Buffalo Railroad company was chartered May 3d, 1836, with a capital of \$350,000, in shares of \$50. This railroad, which connects with the Tonawanda, extending from Rochester to Attica, is thirty-two miles long. It was commenced September 1st, 1841, and finished January 1st, 1843, so that the cars ran through on that day; but it was not fully completed, and in successful operation, until May, 1843. For the following statement of its cost, receipts, current expenses, &c., we are indebted to V. R. Hawkins, Esq., the secretary and treasurer of the company:—

Cost of road, right of way,.....	\$50,325
Grading, construction, including water-stations, &c.,.....	209,186
Three locomotive-engines and cars,.....	31,347
Total,.....	\$290,858

The receipts for passengers for the first four months after the road was in full operation, was as follows:—

1843—May,.....	\$4,029	1843—July,.....	\$5,668
June,.....	4,544	August,.....	7,538

The current expenses of the road, during the same period, for repairs of road, engines, cars, and running expenses, was as follows:—

	Repairs of road.	Repairs of engines and cars.	Running expenses.	Total.
1843—May,.....	\$265	\$98	\$689	\$1,052
June,.....	186	172	856	1,220
July,.....	138	151	1,040	1,329
August,....	228	249	1,060	1,537

Running expenses includes all expenses, direct and incidental, growing out of running the road.

Rates of fare—1st class cars,.....	85 cents.
“ 2d “	43 “

It is estimated that when the company have completed their track in the city of Buffalo, which is about being changed, and erected suitable buildings for the depot, engine-house, and machine-shop, the cost of the whole, including road, buildings, and running materials, will amount to \$10,000 per mile, or \$320,000. We congratulate the company in having secured for their superintendent Mr. William Wallace, a most energetic and intelligent officer. A majority of the stock of this company is, we understand, owned by the capitalists of Boston.

CANALS AND ROADS IN OHIO.

	Miles.	Cost.
Ohio canal, and branches,.....	334	\$4,694,934
Miami canal,.....	87	1,337,552
Wabash and Erie canal,.....	89	2,257,164
Miami extension,.....	125	2,463,307
Hocking canal,.....	56	842,657
Walhonding,.....	25	568,264
Muskingum river,.....	81	1,432,235
Pennsylvania and Ohio,.....	86	420,000
Milan,.....	10	23,392
Cincinnati and White Water,.....	25	100,000
McAdamized roads, about.....	631	881,820
	1,559	\$15,926,328

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.
BOSTON MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

THE twenty-third anniversary of this institution was celebrated on Tuesday evening, October 3d, by an address from the Hon. Philip Hone, of New York, and a poem by the Hon. George Lunt, of Newburyport, Mass. The anniversary address of Mr. Hone was appropriate to the occasion. The leading ideas were—the great importance of commerce, its dependence upon wise and stable laws, and its immediate connection with free government. The history of all commercial nations was adduced to maintain these positions.

The orator passed a warm eulogium upon the merchants of the past generation—Hancock, Cabot, Dalton, Otis, James Perkins, Phillips, and their cotemporaries, whose lives and deeds have made their names so honorable; nor were those of their successors, whose efforts have been devoted to similar pursuits, forgotten.

In closing, Mr. Hone addressed a few words of advice to the young gentlemen connected with the Association, with particular reference to the subjects of reading and elocution. The address, we learn, was delivered in that easy, familiar, and popular manner, for which its author is so justly distinguished.

The poem of Mr. Lunt was a manly, dignified, and high-toned production. The subject was CULTURE. The necessity of a judicious cultivation of the mental and moral powers, to the success and happiness of man, was depicted in a beautiful manner, well calculated to arouse the best feelings of our nature. The address and poem were listened to by one of the largest and most brilliant audiences ever convened in Boston.

The annual meeting of the Association, for the choice of officers, was held on Wednesday evening, Oct. 4, and the following gentlemen were elected for the ensuing year:—Elliott C. Cowdin, President; F. A. Peterson, Vice-President; Francis G. Allen, Treasurer; Alonzo C. Haskell, Secretary; and Charles M. Eustis, Henry A. Reed, M. S. Pike, William H. Towne, Reuben J. Todd, C. C. Webb, C. C. Merritt, Samuel Gould, Warren Sawyer, Directors.

Resolutions were unanimously passed, thanking the anniversary orator and poet for their able and appropriate productions, and asking copies for publication. This request has been complied with, and in our next number we shall have the pleasure of publishing extracts. We are pleased to learn that this institution is now in a most prosperous condition. It is entirely free from debt, and the mercantile community have never shown so great an interest in its welfare as at the present time. The lectures on Wednesday evening are attended by crowded audiences, and the course bids fair to be the most popular and instructive of the season. We earnestly hope the association will continue to prosper, and receive that attention from the community which its wants and interests require.

MERCANTILE HONOR.

In November, 1841, the mercantile house of Shelton, Brothers & Co., found it necessary to suspend payment of their debts, and to close up the business of the firm. Their creditors, after an investigation of their concerns, agreed to receive 50 per cent of the amount of their respective demands, and release the house entirely from their obligations. This agreement was entered into by all the creditors, the stipulated per centage was paid, and the demands cancelled. Since the time of the failure of the house, Mr. Henry Shelton, one of the partners, has departed this life. Mr. Philo S. Shelton, the surviving partner, proceeded, with undaunted and persevering energy, to wind up the concerns of the old firm, and to commence business anew, on his own account. In his enterprise, he has

been prosperous, and recently made a new dividend of 25 per cent among all his creditors, upon the full amount of their cancelled demands against the original house, paying out to them the aggregate sum of forty thousand dollars, for which they had no legal claim upon him whatever. This payment was entirely voluntary on his part; and it has been made not only to individual creditors, but, in some instances, to rich corporations, by whom the loss would not have been felt. Instances of this kind, we regret to state, are rare; and it is therefore honorable to himself, and creditable to the commercial character of Boston.

CONNECTICUT CLOCK COMMERCE.

The extent of the clock manufacture of Connecticut is not perhaps generally known. It is estimated that her citizens manufacture clocks to the amount of one million dollars per annum. A correspondent of the Rochester Democrat, residing at Hartford, says: "For the last three years we have been gradually pushing our *notes of time* into foreign countries; and such has been our success that, within a few hour's ride of this city, one thousand clocks are finished daily; and it is a fair estimate to put down five hundred thousand clocks as being manufactured in this state last year. This year the number will be still increased, as John Bull is so slow in his movements that there is no hope of reform until he has plenty of Yankee monitors. These we are now sending him by every ship that clears from our seaports. In 1841 a few clocks were exported there as an experiment. They were seized by the Custom house in Liverpool, on the ground that they were undervalued. The invoice price is \$1,50, and the duties 20 per cent. They, however, were soon released, the owner having accompanied them and satisfied the authorities that they could be made at a profit, even thus low. Mr. Sperry, of the firm of Sperry & Shaw, was the gentleman who took out the article. He lost no time, after getting possession of his clocks, in finding an auction house. They were made of brass works, cut by machinery out of brass plates, and a neat mahogany case enclosed the time-piece. They were a fair eight-day clock, but wholly unknown in England. The first invoice sold for £4 to £5, or about \$20 each. Since that time every packet carries out an invoice of the article, and 40,000 clocks have been sold there by this one firm, Sperry & Shaw. Others are now in the business, and the North of Europe has become our customers. India, too, is looked to as a mart for these wares, several lots have been forwarded to the ports of China."

EFFECTS OF OSTENTATION UPON CREDIT.

The maxim "all is not gold that glitters," if not purely English in its origin and application, is at all events not recognized in France. In the latter kingdom the reputation of a man for wealth is about in proportion to his display of it. A showy house of business, and an elegant style of living, indicating that the proprietor has abundance of wealth himself, are essential prerequisites to his being entrusted with the property of others. The contrast which prevails to this state of things in England, is strikingly illustrated by an incident related in the Edinburgh Review. A retired merchant of enormous fortune, living in great seclusion, is said to have kept his account with a banking firm headed by a baronet. His balance in the bank was generally from thirty to forty thousand pounds, and the baronet deemed it only a proper attention to so valuable a customer to invite him to dinner at his villa in the country. The splendor of the banquet, to which the old man reluctantly repaired, impelled him on his entrance to apologize to his host for subjecting the latter to so much inconvenience. The baronet replied that, on the contrary, it was incumbent on him to apologize, for taking the liberty of asking his guest to partake of a family dinner. Nothing further passed, but the next morning the customer drew his whole balance out of the bank.

CONNECTICUT TOBACCO.

It is not generally known, says the Louisville (Kentucky) Journal, that they cultivate the tobacco plant in Connecticut. Previous to our late visit to that region we heard that such was the case, and we determined to inquire into the matter. We found that a considerable quantity of tobacco is grown on the Connecticut river, that the product per acre is very large, and that the article produced commands a high price. We were told that a ton and a half per acre was no uncommon yield. The crop of last year was sold at an average of 6 cents a pound. As to the mode of cultivation, our information was to this effect: the soil is the sandy loam of the Connecticut river bottoms, and it is manured without stint. The tobacco is planted very thick, two feet and a half each way. How they can get through it to worm and sucker it, we cannot imagine. It is topped very high, until on the point of buttoning. The seed came originally from Virginia. It is cured in houses, without having been yellowed in the sun, and without the use of fire.

STEEL PEN TRADE.

This paragraph was written with one of Gillott's patent steel pens, an article we have used exclusively for the last three years, and we are free to say that it is, in our opinion, in every respect the best article of the kind ever manufactured in England. Joseph Gillott, the manufacturer, who resides at Birmingham, has been engaged in the business for the last twenty-two years, and by repeated experiments has at length brought the manufacture of this article, in all its varieties, to a great state of perfection. The number of pens manufactured at his works in 1841 and 1842 was as follows:—

From Dec. 1840, to Dec. 1841,
 was 62,126,928 pens,
 or 5,177,244 dozen,
 or 431,437 gross.

From Dec. 1841, to Dec. 1842,
 was 70,612,002 pens,
 or 5,884,333 dozen,
 or 490,361 gross.

MANUFACTURE OF TOMATO CATSUP.

Tomato Catsup has become quite an article of commerce and consumption in the United States. The quantity manufactured by Wm. K. Lewis and Co., of Boston, is immense, and the quality which we have tested, having used it in our family for the last five years, is, we have no hesitation in saying, unsurpassed. The New Hampshire Statesman furnishes the following recipe for the manufacture of catsup from the tomato, that may possibly answer the purpose of families who cannot procure the celebrated article of Lewis:—"Take a gallon of skinned tomatoes; four table spoonsful of salt; four ditto of black pepper; half table spoonful of allspice; eight pods of red pepper; three table spoonsful of mustard. Grind these articles fine and simmer them slowly in sharp vinegar, in a pewter basin, three or four hours; and then strain through a wire sieve and bottle close. It may be used in two weeks, but improves much by age. Use enough vinegar to make half a gallon of liquor when the process is over.

INCREASE OF LIFE INSURANCE AT BALTIMORE.

There was insurance effected on nine persons, during the month of August, in the Baltimore Life Insurance Office, viz: 1 mariner, 1 engineer, 4 merchants, 1 mechanic, 1 clerk, and 1 farmer. Of those, 6 were insured for \$5000 and under, and 3 for \$1000 and under. We are gratified to find that this branch of insurance, so popular in England, is gaining favor in the United States. Merchants, and merchants' clerks, and, indeed, all engaged in the precarious pursuits of trade and commerce, who have families, should invest their surplus revenue in this way.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Progress of the United States in Population and Wealth in Fifty Years, as exhibited by the Decennial Census.* By GEORGE TUCKER, Professor of Moral Philosophy and Political Economy in the University of Virginia, and formerly Representative in Congress from the same State. 8vo. pp. 211. New York: Press of Hunt's Merchants' Magazine. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The author of the present volume, desirous of gratifying the curiosity he felt on the subject of the census of the United States, was induced to make a thorough analysis of it from 1790 to 1840. The result of the laborious inquiries of Professor T. conducted him to important inferences on the subject of the probabilities of life, the proportion between the sexes, emigration, the diversities between the two races which compose our population, the progress of slavery, and the progress of productive industry. On one point they have disclosed an interesting fact, which seems never to have been detected, viz: that as the number of children bear a less and less proportion to the woman in every state of the Union, the preventative checks to redundant numbers have already begun to operate here, although there is no increased difficulty in obtaining the means of subsistence. From this fact we are able to ascertain the law of our natural increase, and thus, in the estimates of our future progress, correct some prevalent errors. To aid those who are not familiar with statistical inquiries, Mr. Tucker has subjoined comments that will enable the general reader to see and understand on what solid basis rest the hopes of the Anglo-Saxon race on this continent. "In the estimate of the annual products of the states, which most will deem rather under than over the truth, by showing how ample are the means to pay their public debts, he has taken away the only ground upon which the base doctrine 'of repudiation' could have found countenance with any large portion of the American people." To the legislator, statesman, political economist, patriot and philanthropist, this work must prove invaluable, furnishing, as it does, data that may be relied on for its accuracy. The deductions of Professor Tucker appear to us at once judicious and correct. The contents of nearly the whole of the present work have already been published in this Magazine, partly with a view of giving it a wider diffusion, and partly that the author might be better able to correct the errors which, in works of this character, are almost unavoidable.

2.—*The United States Almanac, or complete Ephemeris, for the year 1844, containing the length and increase of days, and the Sun's rising and setting, etc.; given for six different parallels of latitude, embracing the whole extent of the Union; complete Ephemerides of the Sun and Moon; a collection of such tables as are in most frequent use among astronomers, navigators, engineers, and others, for the determination of latitude, time, etc.* By JOHN DOWNES, Member of the American Philosophical Society, and late of the Northeastern Boundary Survey. Also, numerous Statistics, relative to Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, the General and State Governments, Public Offices, with their salaries, &c. By FREEMAN HUNT, Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, Corresponding Member of the American Statistical Society, &c., &c. 12mo. pp. 316. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler. 1844.

The present is the second volume of the United States Almanac; and the copious title-page quoted above furnishes a pretty good index to the design of this work. Mr. Downes, the astronomical editor, has performed his part, in its preparation, with distinguished ability; and, we are persuaded, with equal accuracy and fidelity. Of the statistical department, to which we have contributed our mite, it does not become us to speak. We may, however, be permitted to say, that the little we have done, it has been our aim to do correctly. No pains or expense, we believe, has been spared by Mr. Butler, the publisher, in rendering the present volume as perfect, in all respects, as the nature of such an undertaking permits. Although embracing more than three hundred pages, it is afforded at the low price of fifty cents per copy.

- 3.—*Voices of the Night*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. Seventh edition. 12mo. pp. 144. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 4.—*Ballads and other Poems*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW, author of "Hyperion," &c. Fifth edition. 12mo. pp. 102. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 5.—*Poems on Slavery*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. Second edition. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 6.—*The Spanish Student*. A Play, in three acts. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. 12mo. pp. 183. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.

The above are the titles of all Longfellow's Poems, which the publisher has just sent us, and for which we return him many thanks. To speak of Longfellow's merits as a poet now, would be like speaking of Washington's merits as a patriot. The first appearance of the *Voices of the Night* established his fame on a lasting foundation, and it has suffered nothing by the subsequent publications, although they can hardly be said to be equal in merit to the first. The *Spanish Student*, which appeared but recently, is full of emphatic sentiment. Did we not know who its author is, we certainly should have ascribed the glory of it to one much younger in years; not because it is wanting in finish of style, but on account of the youthful feelings it displays. Perhaps Cupid can account for it satisfactorily—he never deserts poets. The ecstatic love-scenes remind us of bygone days, and fire those corners of our heart which have begun to grow cold as the sun of life has marched onward beyond its meridian splendor. The mechanical execution of these books should not be overlooked. It does honor not only to the publisher who planned it, but also to the printer and binder who executed it. As a set of poetical works, or singly, they are the most elegant parlor books of American production we have.

- 7.—*The Wife of Leon, and other Poems*. By TWO SISTERS of the West. 1 vol. pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Who can these two sisters be? This seems to be the universal question from all who have peeped into this book. Its beauties are so striking that no one fails to perceive them at once. We have not read it all through, for who would think of at once reading a number of small detached pieces? but the book has been lying by our side for some time, and whenever a moment of leisure has presented an opportunity, we have read a piece or two, so that by this time a large part has been perused. A freshness of imagination and a striking imagery pervades the whole; and the sentiment is so delicate and tender that it cannot but find a ready response in every uncorrupted heart. Two pieces, "The Lonely Ship" and "Fort Rosalie," seem to us more beautiful than the generality. A different taste than ours will prefer others, for there is no want of variety in either the subjects or the style.

- 8.—*Poems on Man, in his various aspects under the American Republic*. By CORNELIUS MATTHEWS, author of the "Motley Book," "Behemoth," "Puffer Hopkins," etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This little volume contains nineteen pieces, embracing, as will be seen, all classes and professions of men, as follows:—the Child—the Father—the Teacher—the Citizen—the Farmer—the Mechanic—the Merchant—the Soldier—the Statesman—the Friend—the Painter—the Sculptor—the Journalist—the Masses—the Reformer—the Poor Man—the Scholar—the Preacher—and the Poet.

- 9.—*The Wrongs of Woman; or, the Forsaken Home*. By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Although exhibiting some of the "wrongs of woman" in England, it may be read with profit in our own country, where woman has not yet attained all her rights.

- 10.—*Woman an Enigma; or, Life and its Revelings*. By the author of "Conquest and Self-Conquest," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

- 11.—*Ecclesiastes Anglicanus; being a Treatise on Preaching, as adapted to a Church of England Congregation. In a series of Letters to a Young Clergyman.* By the Rev. W. GRESLEY, M. A., Late Student of Christ Church. First American, from the second English edition, with Supplementary Notes, collected and arranged by the Rev. BENJAMIN J. KNIGHT, M. A., Professor of Pastoral Theology and Pulpit Eloquence in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The author of the present volume starts with the idea that it is essential to the force of all public addresses, and of sermons at least as much as any, that they should be specially adapted to the character, capacity, circumstances, habits, prejudices, mode of thinking, and degree of knowledge of the hearers. "In treating of preaching," says Mr. G., "I have regarded it as one of God's ordinances, and an acknowledged instrument of man's salvation, without assigning to it any exclusive or undue importance." A preacher of printed sermons may be an Arminian one Sunday, a high Calvinist the next. The author has known such mistakes occur. In the present letters, the whole art of preaching is discussed with great force and clearness, and an application of the rules of rhetoric is made to the Church of England pulpit. In preparing the American edition of this treatise, a few foot-notes have been added by the editor, and more extended notes at the end have been selected from the best works on the subject.

- 12.—*Tales of the Village.* By FRANCIS E. PAGET, M. A., Rector of Elford, and chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Oxford. 3 vols. 18mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Three beautiful volumes, uniform with the "Churchman's Library," being the first, second, and third series of tales illustrative of the principles of the "Church of England." The first series is designed to give a popular view of the contrast in opinions and modes of thought between Churchmen and Romanists. In the second series, the same plan is pursued with respect to church principles, as opposed to dissent; and the tale of the third series is to show the characters of the churchman and infidel in contrast. "My endeavor," says the author, in the preface to one of the volumes, "has been, to show generally that in choosing the middle way between papal errors and sectarian novelties, the Church of England has kept the tract which is nearest to that in which the apostles walked; that she is close, in doctrine and discipline, to the apostolic model; that, while we protest against Rome, we remain catholic; and while we protest against Geneva, we are reformed; that our hand is against all error, and all error against us." The principles the author espouses are interwoven in agreeable narrative, and written in a pleasant and attractive style; thus rendering "light reading" subservient to what he conceives to be truth.

- 13.—*Of the Imitation of Christ.* Four Books. By THOMAS A KEMPIS. Translated from the Latin. "Churchman's Library." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first complete American edition of a work in most parts in high repute with "the good and the gifted" of all Christian denominations. With regard to the present edition, it need only be stated that this translation is chiefly copied from one printed at London in 1677. The Latin edition, which has been principally followed, is that of Herbert Rosneyd, printed at Antwerp in 1617. The first English translation of the work was made by the mother of King Henry VII. It is written in a quaint, sententious manner, and is replete with maxims of deep and fervent devotion.

- 14.—*D'Aubigné's History of the Great Reformation.* Abridged by EDWARD DALTON, Secretary to the Protestant Association. Vpl. I., (being an abridgment of the first three volumes,) 18mo. pp. 447. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1843.

We noticed, in a former number of this Magazine, the original work, of which this is an abridgment, and then expressed our high appreciation of it. The editor of the present volume seems to have adhered with great fidelity to the text, and to have embraced, in the abridged form, all that was desirable to retain of the original work, omitting, however, the notes, which, to the general reader, possess little or no interest.

15.—*Nature and Revelation, showing the present condition of the Churches, and the change now to come upon the world by the Second Advent in Spirit of the Messiah, with interpretations of prophecies in Daniel and the Book of Revelation.* By H. H. VAN AMRINGE, author of "the Seals Opened, or a Voice to the Jews." 8vo. pp. 258.

The writer of this volume appears to be an independent thinker on religious subjects. The arguments he uses in support of his theory of nature and religion, he says were not taught him by men of the present day, but in opposition to all influences surrounding him. We have not been able to follow him through all his statements. A brief passage, however, from the introduction to the volume, will perhaps give a key to the general scope of the opinions he entertains. After the statement that his views are derived from *Holy Scripture and Nature*, which he maintains do not contradict, he goes on to say—"Nor do I announce a complicated system of salvation, nor unrevealed mysteries, nor a limited and partial principle in operation; nor can any one set forth a more transcendent or infinitely glorious and happy perfectability," &c. The volume will doubtless interest many inquirers after truth, who will perhaps find some old truths in a new attire, with suggestions that are rather original.

16.—*Lives of the Queens of England, from the Norman Conquest, with Anecdotes of their Courts.* Now first published from Official Records and other Authentic Documents, private as well as public. By AGNES STRICKLAND. Vol. VI. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The present volume of the series, occupying nearly four hundred duodecimo pages, is devoted entirely to the history of the life and reign of Elizabeth, the second Queen-Regent of England and Ireland. In consequence of the interest and importance of the subject, and the great mass of unedited matter, which has never before been offered in any history of Queen Elizabeth's life and times, Mrs. S. found it impossible to complete the memoir of that remarkable sovereign in one volume. The conclusion, therefore, will shortly follow, in the seventh volume of the *Lives of the Queens of England*. The present edition, though cheap, (but fifty cents per volume,) is neatly printed, on fine white paper.

17.—*The Boys' and Girls' Library.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Vols 1 and 2. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

This little monthly has now been continued two years, and the volumes before us give evidence of the good sense, taste and judgment of the editor, Mrs. Colman, as well as of the ability of her contributors, among whom we notice the names of Mrs. Sigourney, Osgood, Graves, Jenett and Godwin, and Miss Hannah Gould, C. M. Sedgwick, the Rev. Jacob Abbott, the author of *Marco Paul's Adventures*, T. S. Arthur, &c. The volumes are neatly printed, and altogether attractive, and worthy a place in every Juvenile Library.

18.—*Notes Explanatory and Practical, on the Epistle to the Hebrews.* By ALBERT BARNES. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Dr. Barnes is unquestionably among the most learned and laborious commentators of the school of religionists to which he belongs. His writings are in high repute among theologians of different denominations, and must take a high rank in the department of religious and critical literature. The present volume is the last published of his numerous works on the different books of the New Testament.

19.—*The Child's Gem. A Holiday Gift.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

20.—*The Saint Nicholas Gift for Little Boys and Girls.* Boston: T. H. Carter. 1843.

Two very pretty books, bound in gilt, containing articles in prose and verse adapted to the comprehension of the youngest readers, without being puerile or tame. We are not acquainted with better or more presentable books for little children.

21.—*Sketches of Yale College.* With numerous Anecdotes, and embellished with more than thirty engravings. By a member of that Institution. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1843.

A neat little volume of one hundred and ninety-two pages, in which the origin and history of ancient "Yale" in the 17th and 18th centuries, is brought down to the present time. It is interspersed with comprehensive notices of the situation of the College and its buildings, exercises, hours, apparatus, library, gallery, cabinet, theological, law, and medical departments, regulations, &c.; and a variety of college anecdotes, and in fact almost every subject of interest connected with its past and present history, character and condition.

22.—*The Maid of Orleans, and other Poems.* By WILLIAM PETER, A. M., Christ Church, Oxford. 1 vol., pp. 229. Cambridge: John Owen.

The principal poem in this book is a translation from the German tragedy by Schiller. It is not our business here to speak of the original, even if our dictum could add the least to its unbounded fame. The translation reads as fluently as if it were an original production, and the spirit of the author is incorporated as successfully as we can conceive it possible in the foreign garb. Joanna's Farewell struck us with peculiar force. The "other poems" are four—three translations, and one an imitation of a Latin epitaph, and are as meritorious as the principal one.

23.—*The American Poultry Book; being a Practical Treatise on the Management of Domestic Poultry.* By MICAJAH R. COCK. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

This little treatise has been examined by a committee of the Board of Agriculture of the American Institute, and they unanimously "assure the agricultural community in the United States, that it exactly supplies a deficiency which has long been felt in this department of the Agricultural Library." What can we say more?

24.—*The Works of Lord Byron, (complete.)* A new edition edited by S. THOMAS MOORE, Esq. With elegant engravings from steel plates. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

We have before noticed this serial issue of Lord Byron's complete works. The present number, the twelfth, brings it to a close. It is a very neat duodecimo, embracing four volumes, and is offered at twenty-five cents per part, or three dollars for the entire works. A former edition from the same plates, was published at ten dollars. It is printed on good paper, and large and handsome type.

25.—*The Little Keepsake for 1844.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN.

26.—*The Little Gift for 1844.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

These two Lilliputian quartos are neatly and even elegantly got up, and contain a great variety of tales, fables, poems, &c., well adapted to the capacity of the infant intellect, and in every respect in advance of the silly and ridiculous fictions of by-gone times. Mrs. Colman has, in these and the various other works under her control, evinced a correct taste and discrimination, derived from sympathy with the young mind and heart.

27.—*Sir John Froissart's Chronicles of England, France, Spain, and the adjoining countries.* New York: J. Winchester & Co.

The eighth part of this exceedingly interesting historical work has been published. The remainder of the numbers are to appear in rapid succession. Although among the cheap publications of the day, it is handsomely printed, and will form a volume worthy of a place in any library.

28.—*The Power of Faith, exemplified in the Life and Writings of Isabella Graham.* New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

The present edition of this popular work is enlarged by the addition of Mrs. Graham's narrative of her husband's death, and other select correspondence. It forms, altogether, a volume of about five hundred pages.

29.—*The Hand Book of Needle-Work.* By MISS LAMBERT. With numerous Illustrations, engraved by G. J. Butler. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This elegantly printed volume of nearly three hundred royal octavo pages, appears to embrace not only a complete history of needle-work in different countries from the Mosaic era down to the present time, but a very complete, scientific, and practical essay of the art in all its manifold branches. It is divided into twenty-two chapters, each chapter under some general head, seems to comprehend all that can impart information on the subject. With this book, our fair countrywomen may array themselves in costumes of every age and country, with a precision that would astonish the women of by-gone days, were they permitted to look down upon their descendants of the present century.

30.—*The Saint's Rest.* By RICHARD BAXTER. Abridged by BENJAMIN FAWCETT, A. M. 12mo. pp. 540. New York: Robert Carter.

Among the writings of this learned, laborious, and eminent divine of the seventeenth century, which are very numerous, (comprising more than one hundred and twenty volumes,) the Saint's Rest is esteemed, by many Christians, one of the most valuable parts of his practical works. It has, however, been a source of religious instruction and consolation to, and is too well known by, evangelical Christians, to require any description of its character or contents at the present day. We may say, however, that the present edition is the handsomest and the most readable that has yet been produced in this country.

31.—*Geological Cosmogony; or, an examination of the Geological Theory of the Origin and Antiquity of the Earth, and of the causes and objects of the changes it has undergone.* By a Layman. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

The author of this little volume considers the question, whether the facts from which the geologists infer that the earth existed millions of ages prior to the Scripture era, not so conclusively settled as to preclude further examination. Deeming it safe to adhere to the cosmogony of the Bible, he endeavours to show that the modern geological theory, and the methods proposed for reconciling the Mosaic record with it, adopted by the philosophers and some ecclesiastics, are not well founded; or at least that they are open to as grave objections as the Hebrew text in the commonly received chronology.

32.—*History of the Westminster Assembly of Divines.* By REV. W. M. HELVINGTON, author of the "History of the Church of Scotland," "Minister's Family," etc. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1843.

This volume, the first American reprint of the Edinburgh edition, embraces a full and succinct history of the Westminster Assembly of Divines, by whose labours were produced the Confession of Faith, the Directory of Public Worship, the Form of Church Government, and the Catechisms, which have so long been held, with occasional and slight changes or modifications, as the standards of Presbyterian Churches throughout the world. The author is a genuine Presbyterian, and of course, attempts to vindicate the character of that venerable body of Presbyterian divines from the aspersions by which it has often been assailed.

33.—*A Treatise on Prayer; designed to assist in the devout discharge of that duty.* By EDMUND BICKERSTETH. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

This work had passed through ten editions as long ago as 1825, in England, where it is received by a large portion of the religious community as a standard of scriptural piety. Its practical character commends it to the religiously disposed of all denominations of evangelical Christians.

34.—*Poetry for the Young.* In two parts: Moral and Miscellaneous. Selected and published for Mrs. JOHN THORP, Lawrence's school. New York: J. S. Taylor & Co.

The selections in this little volume are made from our best poets, with taste and judgment.

THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME IX. DECEMBER, 1843. NUMBER VI.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1843.

ART. I.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

NUMBER II.

THE TARIFF OF 1816.

THE peace of 1816, grateful as it was to the great mass of the people, brought with it consequences which, to the manufacturers, were of doubtful value. Through the suspension of commerce, arising not only from the war itself, but from the embargo which preceded it, the market had been closed to foreign goods; and whatever the consumer needed, with the exception, perhaps, of East and West India produce, he was obliged to raise himself, or to obtain by submitting to the hazards and delays which a state of maritime warfare induces. English goods were wholly excluded from our ports; and articles, therefore, which before the war we never dreamed of manufacturing, were introduced into our manufactories, and assumed a place among our national staples. When peace was declared, consequently, and when the war prohibitions were to be taken off, very serious considerations were presented. On the one hand, the great exporting interests maintained that, unless the country was allowed to buy English goods, the English would not be able to buy theirs; and consumers also objected to duties which, though justifiable in war, forced on the country in peace inferior articles, at an enormous price. On the other hand, the manufacturers, conscious of the destruction to which most of them would be subjected by a return to the former duties, protested against a lowering of rates which they held to be essential to their existence. It was in 1816, in fact, that the great question of a protective tariff was first presented; and we will be pardoned, therefore, in briefly looking back at the history of the revenue bills which had preceded that important period, and in ascertaining how far they had induced the system which, in 1816, was to be perpetuated.

The first Congress under the present constitution met at New York on the 4th of March, 1789; and on the 1st of April following, a quorum was

collected. On the 11th of April, a petition was presented from Baltimore, and on the 18th of April from New York, praying for the imposition of such duties on exports as would give preference to articles of home manufacture. The committee of the whole, to whom the petitions in question had been referred, reported, on the 28th of April, the following resolution to the House :—“ *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the following duties ought to be laid on goods, wares, and merchandise,” &c. ; and a select committee was appointed to bring in a bill in pursuance with the resolution. On the 5th of May, the bill was reported. On the 16th of May, it was read a third time, and passed ; and, after going through the Senate, was signed by the President on the 1st of June, under the following title and preamble :—“ An act for laying a duty on goods, wares, and merchandises, imported into the United States. Whereas it is necessary, for the support of government, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and promotion of manufactures, that duties be laid on goods, wares, and merchandises imported—

SECTION I. *Be it enacted*,” &c.

Notwithstanding the declaration of the preamble, that one of the objects of the bill was the promotion of manufactures, the bill itself gives earnest of no such intention. The recital became a compliment of peculiar emptiness when it was discovered that the highest *ad valorem* duties were 15 *per cent* ; and these were imposed, not on rival manufactures, but on such foreign luxuries as a sumptuary law, which was strongly allied with the prejudices of the revolutionary statesmen, might be supposed to operate. 10 *per cent* was the average duty on foreign manufactured goods ; and such a duty, it is manifest, savors far more of revenue than of protection.

On the 8th of January, 1790, Washington, in his second annual message, made the following recommendation :—“ A free people ought not only to be armed, but disciplined ; to which end, a uniform and well-digested plan is requisite—and their safety and interest require that they should promote such manufactories as tend to render them independent on others for essential, particularly for military supplies. The advancement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, by all proper means, will not, I trust, need recommendation ; but I cannot forbear intimating to you the expediency of giving effectual encouragement as well to the introduction of new and useful inventions from abroad, as to the exertions of skill and genius in producing them at home.”

On January 15th, 1790, the House adopted the following resolution :—“ *Ordered*, That it be referred to the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare, and report to this house, a proper plan or plans, conformable to the recommendation of the President of the United States, in his speech to both houses of Congress, for the encouragement and promotion of such manufactories as will tend to render the United States independent of other nations for essential, especially for military supplies.” Mr. Hamilton filled, at that period, the treasury department ; and it is not to be wondered that, when once introduced into his strong and capacious mind, the idea of protection acquired a system and completeness which it before had wanted. On the 5th of December, 1791, his celebrated report on manufactures was presented to the house of representatives ; and had it, at that period, been sanctioned and carried into effect by the legislative branch of the government, there can be no doubt that to that period the

American system would have been able to have dated its origin. On the 23d of January, 1792, the house came to the following order:—

“*Ordered*, That the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, on the subject of manufactures, be committed to a committee of the whole house, on Monday next.” What was the treatment it there received, the imperfect journals at hand do not state; but it is very clear that it was effectually disposed of, and that the subject of protection, except so far as it may have been hidden under the revenue principle, neither received the attention, or provoked the discussion of that Congress to which it was first submitted.

On the 10th of August, 1790, before, it will be noticed, the presentation of Mr. Hamilton’s report, the second revenue bill received the sanction of the President. The preamble of the bill deserves attention:—

“Whereas, by an act entitled ‘An act for laying a duty on goods, wares, and merchandises, imported into the United States,’ divers duties were laid on goods, wares, and merchandise so imported, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and protection of manufactures: And whereas the *support of government* and the *discharge of the said debts render it necessary to increase the said duties*—

SECTION I. *Be it enacted*,” &c.

It will be observed that, notwithstanding the incidental protection afforded by the former bill, the revenue it has afforded turned out to be insufficient; and that, consequently, an increase of revenue became necessary—not for domestic protection, for that was not an object of consideration, but to provide for the government expenses, and to sink the national debt. In fact, notwithstanding the increase of duties on foreign luxuries, on teas and coffees, on spirits and wines, and articles of similar character, the following clause shows that the idea of protection, notwithstanding the great assistance given to it by the increased necessities of government, was effectually dissipated:—On cabinetwares, buttons, saddles, *gloves of leather, hats of beaver, felt, wool, or a mixture of any of them*; millinery, ready made; *castings of iron, and slit and rolled iron*; *leather, tanned or tawed*, and all manufactures of which leather is the article of chief value, except such as are herein otherwise rated; canes, walking-sticks, and whips; *clothing, ready made*; *brushes, anchors*; *all wares of tin, pewter, or copper*, all or any of them; medicinal drugs, except those commonly used in dyeing; *carpets, and carpeting*; *all velvets, velverets, satins, and other wrought silks*; *cambrics, muslins, muslinets, lawns, laces, gauzes, chintzes, and colored calicoes and nankeens*, SEVEN AND A HALF *per centum*, ad valorem.*

The vote on the bill, in the house, was—yeas 40, nays 15; and in the senate, not counted.

In the following tariffs, comprising all adopted from the period which we have just left to the peace of 1816, not only was the preamble free from allusion to the protective system, but the details themselves were framed on the exclusive revenue requisitions:—

3d revenue act was dated	March 2, 1791.	7th revenue act was dated	June 7, 1794.
4th “ “	March 3, 1791.	8th “ “	Jan. 29, 1795.
5th “ “	May 2, 1792.	9th “ “	March 3, 1797.
6th “ “	June 5, 1794.	10th “ “	July 8, 1797.

* Twenty-seventh Congress, Doc. No. 244, p. 67.

11th revenue act was dated	May 7, 1800.	19th revenue act was dated	Jan. 17, 1810.
12th " "	May 13, 1800.	20th " "	Jan. 7, 1811.
13th " "	March 26, 1804.	21st " "	Jan. 31, 1812.
14th " "	March 27, 1804.	22d " "	July 1, 1812.
15th " "	April 21, 1806.	23d " "	Feb. 27, 1813.
16th " "	March 3, 1807.	24th " "	Feb. 28, 1813.
17th " "	Jan. 19, 1808.	25th " "	July 29, 1813.
18th " "	Jan. 10, 1809.		

We have now arrived at the period to which the tariff policy of the United States may justly be said to ascribe its origin. The great question proposed by the return of peace was, what would be the amount of revenue required by the future exigencies of the government? The debt incurred during the war amounted to over a hundred millions of dollars, absorbing annually six millions in interest, and calling for an annual sinking fund appropriation of almost as much again. Mr. Dallas, in the very able report submitted by him to Congress at its meeting, suggested "that, in the year 1817, and annually in every subsequent year, there be appropriated the sum of two millions of dollars, in addition to the sum of eight millions now annually appropriated, for the payment of the interest and principal of the public debt; that the payment of this additional sum be made out of the proceeds of the revenue derived from the customs, the sale of public lands, and the internal duties, or either of them, available after the payment of the sums for which they are now respectively pledged or appropriated; and that the said additional sum of two millions of dollars annually be payable to the commissioners of the sinking fund, to be applied by them in the same manner as the moneys which they are now entitled by law to receive; that is to say—1st. To the payment of the interest on the public funded debt. 2d. To the reimbursement of the principal, from time to time, as the same, or any portion of it, shall become reimbursable, according to the terms of the contracts by which it has been created. 3d. After having answered these purposes, if there shall remain a surplus at their disposal, to the purchase of such parts of the public funded debt as shall appear to them to be most to the advantage of the United States, in the manner prescribed by law, and at a rate not exceeding the par value."* In accordance with the secretary's recommendation, not only were the appropriations set aside for the debt increased to ten millions of dollars, but it was voted that the surplus, which might annually remain in the treasury, should be devoted to the same fund. The great object was to raise the maximum of revenue that a tax on imports would yield; and though, without doubt, the conviction that, by so doing, manufactures would be encouraged, went some way to bring about the result, the grand object in view was the speedy removal of the national incumbrance.

In his opening message, Mr. Madison, after pressing with great earnestness the duty of providing amply for the debt, fortified his position by the collateral argument which the necessities of the manufactures afforded. "In adjusting," he said, "the duties on imports to the object of revenue, the influence of the tariff on manufactures will necessarily present itself for consideration. However wise the theory may be, which leaves to the sagacity and interest of individuals the application of their industry and resources, there are, in this, as in other cases, exceptions to the general

* Niles' Register, ix., 275.

rule. Besides the condition which the theory itself implies, of a reciprocal adoption by other nations, experience teaches that so many circumstances must occur in introducing and maturing manufacturing establishments, especially of the more complicated kinds, that a country may remain long without them, although sufficiently advanced, and in some respects even peculiarly fitted, for carrying them on with success. Under circumstances giving a powerful impulse to manufacturing industry, it has made among us a progress, and exhibited an efficiency, which justify the belief that, with a protection, not more than is due to the enterprising citizens whose interests are now at stake, it will become, at an early day, not only safe against occasional competitions from abroad, but a source of domestic wealth, and even of external commerce. In selecting the branches more especially entitled to the public patronage, a preference is obviously claimed by such as will relieve the United States from a dependence on foreign supplies, ever subject to casual failures, for articles necessary for public defence, or connected with the primary wants of individuals. It will be an additional recommendation of particular manufactures where the materials for them are extensively drawn from our agriculture; and consequently impart and insure, to that great fund of national prosperity and independence, an encouragement which cannot fail to be rewarded."*

The condition of the manufacturing interest, in truth, was such as loudly called for the sympathies of the legislature. During the war, a large portion of the capital of the country had been drawn from commerce, and invested in manufactures. One-third of the productive wealth of the northern states was estimated, at that time, to be so employed; and, without doubt, a considerable portion of the laboring community was thus supported. The moment the ports were unsealed, it was anticipated foreign goods would pour in, and underbid domestic. It was forgotten that, before long, the capital which was thus thrown from employment in one quarter, would seek for action in another. It was forgotten that, as capital shifted from one point to another, labor would shift with it. One great thought pressed upon those who were involved in the manufacturing interest, and that was the danger of immediate destruction. Petitions, on mammoth rollers, were carried to the tables of both houses. Members were besieged by multitudes of rich and poor, who foresaw, in the reduction of duties to the peace level, both their own annihilation, and the humiliation of the country. The alternative became clear, between a rapid discharge of the debt, and a temporary protection of manufactures, on the one hand, and a slow discharge, with no protection at all, on the other.

The committee of ways and means, as appointed by the speaker, Mr. Clay, was composed of Mr. Lowndes, of South Carolina; Mr. Burwell, of Virginia; Mr. Taylor, of New York; Mr. Mosely, of Connecticut; Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana; Mr. Ingham, of South Carolina; and Mr. Gaston, of North Carolina. Mr. Lowndes, who, for the two preceding sessions, had filled the post of chairman of that important committee, was well qualified, both from his own capacity, and the confidence everywhere imposed on him, for duties which were then most arduous. Not pretending to anything that might be called eloquence, and, indeed, laboring under a defect of utterance which he was but rarely able to overcome, he

* Niles' Register, ix., 256.

possessed the power of making the most intricate statements intelligible. So great, indeed, was the confidence felt in his fairness, his honesty, his financial abilities, which in those days were very different things from what they are now, that if ever he found it difficult to make himself understood, which was but rarely the case, he never failed in convincing his hearers, by the weight of his character, of the truth, if not of the transparency of his statements. Except Mr. Huskisson, it would be difficult to find a man who, without oratorical power, had reached such great parliamentary influence; and it may safely be said, when we take in view the nominations of three southern legislatures, that, had Mr. Lowndes not been carried from his country in the prime of life, his virtue, his ability, and his energy, would have secured him that high office with which his name was brought into connexion.

On March 20th, 1816, the committee reported to the house a bill, of which, as amended, we have drawn a brief abstract:—

TARIFF OF 1816, AS SIGNED BY MR. MADISON.

SECTION I. *Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives, in Congress assembled,* That from and after the 30th day of June, one thousand eight hundred and sixteen, the duties heretofore laid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States, shall cease and determine; and there shall be levied, and collected, and paid, the several duties hereinafter mentioned; that is to say:—

A duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem, on hempen cloth, or sail cloth, (except Russian and German linens, Russia and Holland duck;) stockings, of wool or cotton; printing-types; all articles manufactured from brass, copper, iron, steel, pewter, lead, or tin, or of which these metals, or either of them, is the material of chief value; brass wire, cutlery, pins, needles, buttons, button-moulds, and buckles of all kinds; gilt, plated, and japanned wares, of all kinds; cannon, muskets, fire-arms, and side-arms; Prussian blue, Chinaware, earthenware, stoneware, porcelain, and glass manufactures, other than window glass, and black glass quart bottles.

A duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem, on woollen manufactures of all descriptions, or of which wool is the material of chief value, excepting blankets, woollen rugs, and worsted, or stuff goods, shall be levied, collected, and paid, from and after the 30th day of June next, until the 30th day of June, one thousand eight hundred and nineteen, and after that day, 20 per centum on said articles; and on cotton manufactures, of all descriptions, or of which cotton is the material of chief value, and on cotton twist, yarn, or thread, as follows, viz: for three years next ensuing the 30th day of June next, a duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem; and, after the expiration of the three years aforesaid, a duty of 20 per centum, ad valorem.

A duty of 30 per centum, ad valorem, on carriages of all descriptions, and parts thereof; leather, and all manufactures of leather, or of which leather is the material of chief value; saddles, bridles, harness; paper of every description, pasteboard, paper-hangings, blank-books, parchment, vellum; brushes, canes, walking-sticks, whips, and clothing ready made. And in all cases where an ad valorem duty shall be charged, it shall be calculated on the nett cost of the article at the place whence imported, (exclusive of packages, commissions, and all charges,) with the usual addition established by law, of 20 per cent on all merchandise imported

from places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and of 10 per cent on all articles imported from all other places.

The following duties, severally and specifically :—On tarred cables and cordage, three cents per lb. ; on untarred cordage, yarns, twine, pack-thread, and seines, four cents per lb. ; on wax and spermaceti candles, six cents per lb. ; on Chinese cassia, six cents per lb. ; on cinnamon, twenty-five cents per lb. ; on cloves, twenty-five cents per lb. ; on cheese, nine cents per lb. ; on chocolate, three cents per lb. ; on cocoa, two cents per lb. ; on coal, five cents per heaped bushel ; on copperas, one dollar per cwt. ; on copper rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, and composition rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, four cents per lb. ; on coffee, five cents per lb. ; on cotton, three cents per lb. ; on gunpowder, eight cents per lb. ; on hemp, one dollar and fifty cents per cwt. ; on iron or steel wire, not exceeding No. 18, five cents per lb., and over No. 18, nine cents per lb. ; on iron in bars and bolts, excepting iron manufactured by rolling, forty-five cents per cwt. ; on iron in sheets, rods, and hoops, two dollars and fifty cents per cwt. ; and in bars or bolts, when manufactured by rolling, and on anchors, one dollar and fifty cents per cwt. ; on indigo, fifteen cents per lb. ; on lead in pigs, bars, or sheets, one cent per lb. ; on shot manufactured of lead, two cents per lb. ; on red and white lead, dry, or ground in oil, three cents per lb. ; on steel, one dollar per cwt. ; on segars, two dollars and fifty cents per thousand ; on spirits from grain, of first proof, forty-two cents per gallon ; of second proof, forty-five cents per gallon ; of third proof, forty-eight cents per gallon ; of fourth proof, fifty-two cents per gallon ; of fifth proof, sixty cents per gallon ; above fifth proof, seventy-five cents per gallon ; on spirits from other materials than grain, of first and second proof, thirty-eight cents per gallon ; of third proof, forty-two cents per gallon ; of fourth proof, forty-eight cents per gallon ; of fifth proof, fifty-seven cents per gallon ; above fifth proof, seventy cents per gallon ; on shoes and slippers of silk, thirty cents per pair ; on shoes and slippers of leather, twenty-five cents per pair ; on shoes and slippers for children, fifteen cents per pair ; on spikes, two cents per lb. ; on soap, three cents per lb. ; on brown sugar, three cents per lb. ; on white, clayed, or powdered sugar, four cents per lb. ; on lump sugar, ten cents per lb. ; on loaf sugar, and sugar-candy, twelve cents per lb. ; on snuff, twelve cents per lb. ; on tallow, one cent per pound ; on tea from China, in ships or vessels of the United States, as follows, viz : bohea, twelve cents per lb. ; souchong, and other black, twenty-five cents per lb. ; imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, fifty cents per lb. ; hyson and young hyson, forty cents per lb. ; hyson skin, and other green, twenty-eight cents per lb. ; on teas from any other place, or in any other than ships or vessels of the United States, as follows, viz : bohea, fourteen cents per lb. ; souchong, and other black, thirty-four cents per lb. ; imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, sixty-eight cents per lb. ; hyson and young hyson, fifty-six cents per lb. ; hyson skin, and other green, thirty-eight cents per pound.

Of the debate which followed the presentation of the bill, of which, as subsequently amended, we have given an abstract, there is but a slight sketch remaining. Long, it certainly was ; able, it certainly must have been ; for never, from the formation of government to the present day, was there so great an amount of ability collected in the capital, as in the house of representatives in 1816. In the speaker's chair sat Mr. Clay,

in the meridian of his parliamentary glory. On one side, sat Mr. Lowndes, Mr. Cheves, and Mr. Calhoun; and on the other, Mr. Webster, Mr. Grosvenor, Mr. Gaston, Mr. Sergeant, Mr. Hopkinson, and Mr. Randolph. All of them young men, most of them thrown into public life by that great upheaving of the elements which followed the embargo, they were as yet free from those blemishes which a long political life, made up of coalitions with old enemies, and ruptures with old friends, invariably leaves behind. On the one side, war measures were pressed with the greatest ardor, because it was determined the war should be supported. On the other side, war appropriations were opposed with equal vehemence, because it was determined the war should be stopped. When peace came, the same spirit continued; and while the war party insisted on a national bank, as a remedy for present exhaustion, and a preventive of future embarrassment, the opposition maintained it to be unnecessary and unconstitutional. On the tariff question, however, though a considerable portion of the south, with a generosity most honorable, unwilling to submit to the losses incurred by a high scale of duties, in order to soften the fall of the manufacturers, a large minority of the southern members joined with the eastern federalists in opposing a measure which would press so heavily on the southern staples. The great states of New York, of Pennsylvania, of Kentucky, and Ohio, pushed the bill with unbroken force; and, by the strength which they brought into the field, insured its success against zealous enmity and qualified friendship. The speeches which are preserved in the National Intelligencer, on the merits of the bill, are those of Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana, which are very brief, confined principally to the item of sugar; of Mr. Lowndes, which are still briefer, and of which three hours in delivery are compassed in three lines of type; one of Mr. Calhoun's, which, although the ablest of the series, was made *impromptu*, and which consists chiefly of an appeal to the magnanimity of the south; a very odd dissertation of Mr. Randolph's; a speech of Mr. Ingham, who took the lead in support of the bill, and one of Mr. Telfair, in opposition; from both of which we shall make extracts, as exhibiting the tone with which the debate was sustained.

Mr. Ingham took the bold ground that it was necessary to legislate primarily, for the benefit of the manufacturing interests. The manufacturers, he maintained, according to the sketch from which we make an extract, are vitally concerned in the fate of this bill, and its details. It is believed that not less than one hundred millions of dollars have been invested in manufactures in the course of the last eight or ten years; and these furnish, in times of prosperity, profitable employment to many thousands of persons, who could procure subsistence in no other way. They consume vast quantities of the products of the country, and create a demand for raw materials which are imported from abroad, to an extent not easily believed by those who have no practical acquaintance with the facts. They supply substantial and valuable fabrics for the convenience and comfort of the people, which they can pay for with their surplus products, and contribute to the completion of by their own labor. The revenue question must, therefore, be regarded as a minor consideration, even if it had been shown (which it has not) that the proposed duty would yield either too much or too little revenue. Mr. I. said he considered this bill as involving a great principle of national polity—not a mere contrivance to collect taxes from the people in the easiest way, but a

measure intended and calculated to increase their comfort, happiness, and wealth, and, of course, their *disposition* and *ability* to pay whatsoever the exigencies of the government may require; and, as a necessary consequence, to increase and perpetuate the security, peace, and especially the independence of the nation. He said he felt himself altogether incompetent to do anything like justice to this great and interesting subject; but he regretted this the less, because he knew it would be discussed by those who could not be indulged with a similar excuse. But it has been said that the promotion of manufactures would tend to injure our commerce, though he had not heard any attempt to prove the allegation. What is the present condition of our navigation? Totally excluded from the British West Indies, and the carrying trade we formerly had, divided among the powers of Europe. This must continue so long as they remain at peace. In addition to this, it may be remarked that, but for the late treaty, we could not have carried out our own cotton to its principal market. Many of the products of the middle states can find no market abroad. And do gentlemen suppose that our navigation can be preserved by encouraging the importation of cotton and woollen goods, which, in many states, we have not the means of paying for, the balance of trade being already most decidedly against us? This employment for our navigation has already failed, and it is worse than illusory to rely upon it—we must seek for some more certain employment for our shipping, that cannot be affected by the navigation acts of other nations. This can only be found in our coasting trade, which must increase with our population, and will be especially promoted by every pursuit that increases the intercourse between the states on our maritime frontier; and it is the only trade exclusively our own. Do not manufactures, in an especial manner, contribute to this object, particularly that of cotton; the raw material being produced in one extreme, and the fabrics made in the other—tending, also, to bind the states by the indissoluble bonds of interest and mutual dependence. Another source of employment for our navigation is the trade with South America, which must depend upon the success of our manufactures. We shall require from thence a great variety of raw materials, and the profit we make by working them will enable us to purchase European goods, with which to pay for them. Many articles which we make, have already found a vent in that country; and this trade must increase with American manufactures, and will depend almost exclusively upon their success.

The negative on the question of the passage of the bill was the unpopular side; and so great, indeed, was the outward pressure, that there were but few who had the boldness to stand up, and scrutinize the merits of a measure which stood on a basis so plausible. Occasionally the southern members queried as to the justice of the protection principle, or the expediency of its application to the southern staples; but generally they allowed their personal doubts to be swallowed up by what appeared to them to be their national duties. Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana, made one short speech in opposition, if we can judge from the report in the *Intelligencer*; and Mr. Telfair, of Georgia, in the course of the final debate, threw the matter so much on the ground which it has occupied in late years, that we feel justified in extracting from his remarks a few passages. After commenting at some length on the details of the bill, and exposing what seemed to him the defects in its machinery, he proceeded

to argue on the impropriety of the protection theory. The second consideration, he remarked, according to the *Intelligencer*, and that most relied on, arises from the policy of other nations, and promises a more permanent security to the independence of this people. Imposing, indeed, is such a ground of argument; and if the independence of this nation either required or could be guaranteed by this bill, abhorrent, indeed, would be all opposition to it. But believing, as I do, that the liberties of this people, and the independence of this government, rest on a basis too firmly laid, in their very genius and nature, to require such protection, for one, I will not consent to adopt the measure proposed. After having advanced in prosperity and improvement far beyond the march of any other nation on the globe, in the same period of time, you are now called upon to reject the admonitions of experience, and adopt the very policy which, with reference to the people of Europe, is congenial, because it denotes the absence of all ideas of self-government. You are about to abjure that principle which was peculiarly your own, and the offspring of freedom—of leaving industry free to its own pursuit and regulation—and to assume to yourselves the capacity and right of judging and dictating that labor which is wisest and best for the people of this country. The extent of territory, the exuberance of our soil, the genius of our people, the principles of our political institutions, have in their combination decreed, as by a law of nature, that, for years to come, the citizens of America shall obtain their subsistence by agriculture and commerce; and we, in our wisdom, would fain issue a counter-order to withdraw industry from its accustomed channels, and, by our laws, force into a state of prematurity the manufacturing enterprise of this country. But we are told it would be idle, weak, and absurd in us, while all the powers of Europe are devising plans for the encouragement of manufactures, to let them stagnate for want of national aid. To this, I answer, that such are the profits and enjoyments flowing from labor in the ordinary pursuits of life with us, that you cannot draw off the citizen, and tempt him to a new and less active pursuit, without robbing from the national wealth a considerable portion, which is thrown in to make up his profits. Is not, then, the productive labor of the country thereby diminished? Has not a great portion of it been thrown away, unless some great benefit is derived from this new direction of industry? And is the policy of other governments to be urged as sufficient justification? It must be borne in mind that the circumstances of our country are totally different from those of Europe. There, a crowded population causes it to be an object of real national importance to discover means of employment for the many hands which would otherwise encumber society. With us, however, the case is widely different. Here, every hand would find ample employment in tilling the earth; and the calls of society are sufficient, without bounty, to give occupation to those who prefer other employments to those of agriculture. And every occupation which requires the aid of bounty contains, within itself, a proof that it is not productive of national wealth, though it may be of national glory. I must protest against this habit of resorting to the regulations of other governments as rules by which to graduate our own. Because the governments of the old world have resorted to this mode of facilitating the collection of taxes, by creating protuberances upon the body politic, are we to be influenced by their examples? Because monopolies have for ages become familiarized to them, are we to disregard

the evidences in favor of an unshackled pursuit of our own interests ; and, in despite of the warning voice of these very nations, which attests the ruinous effects of such a policy upon every principle held sacred by the friends of freedom, are we to give aid to a favorite class of the community by a tax upon the rest ?

Like the state banks, sir, these manufactures grew up while a state of war gave a feverish heat to our political atmosphere, because the temporary wants of the people and the government, and the sluggish state of trade, required them. The return of peace has diminished the demand for the paper of the one, and the fabrics of the other—they may both be said to have depreciated in their relative value. The depreciation of bank paper, it is to be hoped, will be arrested in its progress—the combination of these moneyed monopolists broken, as to all capacity for harm, by the establishment of a bank governed in part by ourselves, and by other ulterior measures in contemplation. But, when the different manufacturing states may have deemed it wise to follow the example of Great Britain, and incorporate the different manufacturing establishments, grant them exclusive privileges, prop them by by-laws, and regard them as favorites, how are you to control the mighty combination to which such a policy would give rise ? for they can concert, as well as the state banks. Will you, in such event, open the flood-gates, and let in the ocean of foreign goods threatening to overwhelm them ? Certainly not. And yet this would be the only corrective left you.

At this period of time, the action of Congress, in a session so far distant, can be as well determined from the journals of its votes, as from the register of its debates. We proceed by introducing a brief summary, first, of the amendments which were passed by the House, and incorporated, in consequence, in the bill of which we have already given an abstract ; and, secondly, of the amendments which were proposed and lost, to exhibit, more fully than can be done by any other process, the attitude assumed by the various interests of which the House was composed. The bill from the committee of ways and means was before the House ; and on it, therefore, the amendments which we subjoin were intended to be grafted :—

I. AMENDMENTS PASSED.

1. Mr. Smith, of Maryland—to increase the duty on iron sheets, rods, and bolts, from \$1 50 to \$2 50 per cwt. Carried without division.

2. Mr. Huger—to strike out the proposed duty of four cents on broken sugar. Carried—62 to 55.

3. Mr. Clay—to fill the blank thus created with three and a half cents. Carried—64 to 58.

4. Mr. Smith—to make the duty on loaf sugar fifteen cents ; that on lead, in bars, two cents per lb. ; on clocks, &c., 22 per cent ; on cotton, laces, &c., 22 per cent ; on wire, under No. 18, five cents per lb. ; over No. 18, nine cents.

5. Mr. Ingham—to add the following clause to the paragraph which fixes the duties on woollens and cottons :—“ On cotton-yarn or thread, the same ; provided that all unbleached and uncolored cotton-yarn, the original cost of which shall be less than sixty cents per lb., shall be deemed and taken to have cost sixty cents per lb., and shall be charged with duty accordingly ; and all bleached or colored yarn, the original cost of which

shall have been seventy-five cents per lb., shall be taken and deemed to have cost seventy-five cents per lb., and shall be charged with duty accordingly." Ayes 66.

6. Mr. Robertson—to strike out the words "on grain" from the clause fixing the duty on spirits, so as to include *all* spirits, of whatever material made, within the highest rate of duties specified on spirits.

7. Mr. Webster—to strike out the clause relating to the duties on imported cottons, and substitute the following:—"For *two* years ensuing the 30th of June next, a duty of 30 per cent, ad valorem; for two years *thereafter*, a duty of 25 per cent, ad valorem; and after that, a duty of 20 per cent, ad valorem." Carried by a large majority.

8. Mr. Lowndes—to add the following to the clause fixing the duty of 25 per cent on woollens:—"Excepting blankets, woollen stuffs, and rugs, shall be levied, &c., until June 30th, 1819; and after that day, 20 per cent on said articles."

9. The duty of 20 per cent on books was confined to English books—48 to 45.

10. Mr. Smith—to lay a duty of \$2 50 per piece on Russia duck, and \$3 per piece on Holland duck. Passed *nem. con.*

11. Mr. Betts—to make the duty on gold-leaf 15 per cent.

12. Mr. Clay—to make the duty on lead ground in oil four cents per lb. Passed—48 to 43.

13. Mr. Pitkin—to extend the duty on teas to all which may be imported from any other place than China, east of the Cape of Good Hope.

14. Mr. Ward—to fix the duty on Madeira wines at ninety cents.

15. Mr. Irving—to add the following clause to section 1st:—"That in all cases when *ad valorem* duty be charged, it shall be calculated on the nett cost of the articles, (exclusive of packages, &c., and all charges,) and on the usual addition of 20 per cent on all merchandise from places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and 10 per cent on articles imported from all other places.

16. Mr. Hardin—to make the duty on cottons 25 per cent for two years after the ensuing June, and 20 per cent *thereafter*—84 to 60.

17. Mr. Smith—to make the above limit of 25 per cent for three years instead of two—79 to 71.

18. Mr. Stearns—to make the duty on brown sugar two cents per lb. Carried—86 to 56.

19. Mr. Smith—to reduce the duty on lump sugar to ten cents per lb.

20. Mr. Pickering—to reduce the duty on India cottons to the old double duty. Carried *nem. con.*

II. AMENDMENTS LOST.

1. Mr. Strong—to strike out the clause reported by the committee, imposing 25 per cent, ad valorem, on all woollen and cotton goods, and to insert 33½ per cent on cotton, and 28 per cent on woollen goods. Withdrawn.

2. Mr. Clay—to fix the duty on cottons at 33½ per cent. Lost—43 to 51.

3. Mr. Clay—to fix the duty on cottons at 30 per cent, ad valorem. Lost.

4. Mr. M'Kee—to strike out three cents from the duty on lead, in order to insert a larger sum. Lost—43 to 49.

5. Mr. Forsyth—to fix the duty on broken sugar at five cents. **Lost.**
6. Mr. Lowndes—to strike out the duty on salt. **Lost.**
7. Mr. Forsyth—to subject burr millstones to duty. **Lost.**
8. Mr. Forsyth—to reduce the duty on cottons to 20 per cent, after the ensuing June. **Lost—65 to 69.**
9. Mr. Wright—to exclude from voting on the cotton question all members concerned in manufacturing cotton. **Withdrawn.**
10. Mr. Wilde—to fix the duty on cotton and woollen goods at 20 per cent ad valorem. **Lost—51 to 76.**
11. Mr. Tucker—to strike out the *minimum* price of twenty-five cents per yard on cottons. **Lost.**
12. Mr. Ward—to reduce the duty on hemp from 1½ to 1 per cent.

On the 8th of April, 1816, after an ineffectual attempt by Mr. Randolph at postponement till the next session, the bill passed the House by a vote of 88 to 54, according to the following table:—

YEAS.

- New Hampshire.*—Charles H. Atherton—1.
Massachusetts.—William Baylies, Benjamin Brown, Albion K. Parris, Nathaniel Ruggles, Solomon Strong, Samuel Taggart, Laban Wheaton—7.
Rhode Island.—John L. Boss, James B. Mason—2.
Connecticut.—John Davenport, jr., Timothy Pitkin—2.
Vermont.—Daniel Chipman, Luther Jewett, Chauncey Langdon, Charles Marsh, John Noyes—5.
New York.—Asa Adgate, Samuel R. Betts, James Birdsall, Micah Brooks, Daniel Cady, Oliver C. Comstock, Henry Crocheron, Thomas R. Gold, T. P. Grosvenor, J. D. Hammond, Moses Kent, John Savage, A. H. Schenck, Enos D. Throop, George Townsend, Jonathan Ward, James W. Wilkin, W. Willoughby, jr., P. H. Wendover, John B. Yates—20.
New Jersey.—Ezra Baker, Ephraim Bateman, Benjamin Bennett, Henry Southard, Thomas Ward—5.
Pennsylvania.—William Crawford, William Darlington, Hugh Glasgow, John Hahn, Jos. Hopkinson, Jared Irwin, Samuel Ingham, Aaron Lyle, William Maclay, William Milnor, William Piper, John Sergeant, Thomas Smith, James Wallace, John Whiteaide, Thomas Wilson, William Wilson—17.
Maryland.—Stevenson Archer, Samuel Smith—2.
Virginia.—P. P. Barbour, Burwell Bassett, Aylett Hawes, William M'Coy, Thomas Newton, James Pleasants, jr., Henry St. G. Tucker—7.
South Carolina.—John C. Calhoun, William Lowndes, William Mayrant, William Woodward—4.
Georgia.—Alfred Cuthbert, Bolling Hall, Wilson Lumpkin—3.
Kentucky.—Joseph Desha, R. M. Johnson, Abney M'Lean, Stephen Ormsby, S. P. Sharpe, Micah Saul—6.
Tennessee.—Newton Cannon, B. H. Henderson, Samuel Powell—3.
Ohio.—John Alexander, James Caldwell, David Clendenin, William Creighton, jr.—4.

NAYS.

- New Hampshire.*—William Hale, Jeduthan Wilcox, Roger Vose—3.
Massachusetts.—George Bradbury, Jeremiah Nelson, Timothy Pickering, Asahel Stearns—4.
Connecticut.—E. Champion, Lyman Law—2.
Vermont.—Asa Lyon—1.
New York.—John Lovett, Erastus Root—2.
Pennsylvania.—Thomas Burnside, Joseph Heister, John Ross—3.
Maryland.—George Baer, Charles Goldsborough, John C. Herbert, Robert Wright, Philip Stuart—5.
Virginia.—James Breckenridge, John Clopton, John P. Hungerford, Peterson Goodwyn, John Kerr, James Johnson, Joseph Lewis, Hugh Nelson, John Randolph, William H. Roane, Daniel Sheffey, Ballard Smith, Magnus Tate—13.

North Carolina.—J. H. Bryan, J. W. Clarke, John Culpeper, W. N. Edwards, D. N. Forney, W. N. Gaston, William C. Love, William H. Murfree, Israel Pickens, Lewis Williams, Bartlett Yancey—11.

South Carolina.—Benjamin Huger, Thomas Moore, John Taylor.—3.

Georgia.—John Forsyth, Thomas Telfair, Richard H. Wilde.—3.

Kentucky.—Benjamin Hardin.—1.

Tennessee.—J. B. Reynolds, Isaac Thomas.—2.

Louisiana.—Thomas B. Robertson.—1.

After a debate of considerable length in the Senate, and the adoption of two amendments, one raising the duty on unmanufactured wool to 15 per cent, ad valorem, and another fixing the general sugar duty at three cents per lb., the bill passed that body by a vote as follows :—

YEAS.—Messrs. Barry, Brown, Campbell, Chace, Condit, Daggett, Fromentin, Gailard, Hersey, Hunter, King, Lacock, Mason, of Va., Morrow, Roberts, Ruggles, Sanford, Talbot, Tait, Thompson, Tichenor, Varnum, Wells, Williams, Wilson—25.

NAYS.—Messrs. Barbour, Goldsborough, Gore, Harper, Mason, of N. H., Turner—7.

Such is the history of the tariff of 1816 ; and, however obnoxious it may be, as being both precedent and argument for subsequent destructive legislation, the most ardent advocates of a free intercourse between nation and nation could not have objected to it. The manufacturers, by the upward pressure of prohibition war duties, had been lifted up to the top of the house ; and the only question was, whether they should have been thrown out of the window, or taken gradually down stairs. The first step no one could counsel, who was aware both of the vast amount of wealth and labor which was at that time invested in the manufacturing interests, and of the cause through which it had been there invested. It was Congress that had raised the wall of duties so high that the utmost swell of the tides without failed in surmounting it—it was Congress who had invited the capitalists and the laborers of the land to throw their money and work in the new investment ; and we cannot imagine anything more unjust than for Congress, as soon as the necessity for home goods was over, to throw down the dyke, and subject property which had been thus invested to the rush of the foreign torrent. There was but one course remaining ; and that was, to let the duties gradually down. Such was the course proposed in 1816. The manufacturer was to be taken under the charge of government ; and, after being advised of the proposed change, to be handed carefully down, with the help of regular and adequate stoppages, till he reached that platform where a suitable revenue tariff would place him. “I perceive but two errors in the act,” said Mr. Calhoun, in a late speech ; “the one in reference to iron, and the other to the minimum duty on coarse cottons. As to the former, I conceive that the bill, as reported, proposed a duty relatively too low, which was still farther reduced in its passage through Congress. The duty, at first, was fixed at seventy-five cents the hundred weight ; but, in the last stage of its passage, by a sort of caprice, occasioned by an unfortunate motion, to forty-five cents. The other error was that as to coarse cottons, on which the duty was as much too high as that on iron was too low.”

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XXI.**THE INCREASE OF WEALTH.***

HAVING ascertained the amount of the national income, it would on many accounts be desirable to ascertain also its ratio of increase, and more especially whether it increases at the same rate as the population or at a different rate.

There are obvious reasons why the wealth of an industrious and prosperous community should increase faster than its population. Every year adds to its stock of labor-saving tools and machinery, as well as improves their usefulness. Lands, too, are made more productive by draining, ditching, manuring, and better modes of culture. Both science and practical art are constantly enlarging the quantity of manufactured commodities, and yet more improving their quality. By means of cheaper and quicker modes of transportation, much of that labor which in every country is expended, not in producing, but in transferring products from place to place, is saved and rendered directly productive: and lastly, the small excess of annual income over annual expense, is constantly adding to the mass of capital, which is so efficient an agent of production.

But we must bear in mind that so far as this improvement in the sources of wealth are shared by the whole civilized world, it is not manifested in pecuniary estimates of annual products, supposing the value of the precious metals to be unchanged, since the same portion of them will be constantly representing a greater and greater amount of what is useful and convenient to man. It is only where the increase of wealth of a country is faster or slower than the average that it will be shown in the money value of its annual products compared with its population. It is, then, the relative and not the positive increase of wealth in the United States which we propose to consider.

Had each preceding census furnished the information afforded by the census of 1840, this question had been of easy solution. But this not being the case, we are left to infer the progress of national wealth from such partial indications of it as we are able to derive from other statistical facts.

One of these indications is the progressive increase in the value of the lands and buildings of the several states.

In each of the years 1798, 1813, and 1815, the General Government laid a direct tax, apportioned among them, as the constitution requires, according to their representative numbers. But as the act of Congress authorized the states in 1813 and 1815 to assume the payment of their

* The present chapter closes the valuable series of papers, by Professor Tucker, which have been in course of publication in this Magazine during the last eighteen months. It will be seen, by reference to our November number, page 487, that Professor Tucker has collected and published the entire series in an octavo volume of 211 pages. It should be in the hands of every statesman and political economist in the country; and, indeed, all who wish "to see and understand on what solid basis rests the hopes of the Anglo-Saxon race on this continent."

respective quotas, and thus relieve themselves from the tax, and several of the states availed themselves of this provision, a valuation of the lands in those states not being necessary, did not take place.

The valuations which were made were as follows:—

	1798.	1818.
New Hampshire,.....	\$23,175,046	\$36,957,825
Massachusetts,.....	83,992,464	149,253,514
Rhode Island,.....	11,066,358	24,567,020
Connecticut,.....	48,313,434	86,546,841
Vermont,.....	16,723,873	32,747,290
New York,.....	100,380,707	265,224,983
Delaware,.....	6,234,414	14,218,950
Maryland,.....	32,372,291	106,490,638
North Carolina,.....	30,842,372	58,114,952
Tennessee,.....	6,134,108	28,748,986
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$359,235,067	\$802,870,999

This shows an increase in the value of the lands of 123 per cent in fifteen years, equivalent to a decennial increase of about 68 per cent.

Let us now compare this increase with the increase of population of the same states, in the same period of fifteen years. In 1800 and 1810, their numbers were as follows:—

	1800.	1810.
New Hampshire,.....	\$183,762	\$214,360
Massachusetts,.....	574,964	700,745
Rhode Island,.....	69,122	77,031
Connecticut,.....	251,002	262,042
Vermont,.....	154,465	217,713
New York,.....	586,756	959,049
Delaware,.....	64,273	72,674
Maryland,.....	341,548	380,346
North Carolina,.....	478,103	555,500
Tennessee,.....	105,602	264,727
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$2,828,597	\$3,701,327

This shows an increase of population of 30.8 per cent, and supposing the increase from 1798 to 1800, and from 1810 to 1813 to be not materially different, we may regard 30.8 per cent as the decennial increase of their numbers. But the decennial increase in the value of the lands was 68 per cent; that is, more than twice as great, or nearly as 221 to 100. It may be presumed that those states in which there was no valuation of the lands in 1813 would exhibit the same difference between these ratios.

It is proper to remark that the lands of those states which were valued in 1813, were again valued in 1815, and that the subsequent valuation showed no increase in the total value, and in some of the states an actual falling off. The war, by interrupting foreign commerce, prevented any increase in the total value of landed property, and probably arrested the progress of the national wealth.

Again: The valuation of the lands in Virginia in 1798, under the direct tax law, was \$71,225,127, and the same were valued in 1839, under a law of the state, at \$211,930,538, showing an increase of value in 41 years of 197.5 per cent, equal to a decennial increase of 31 per cent. The population of the state had, from 1800 to 1840, increased 40.8 per cent, which gives a less average decennial increase than 7 per cent; by which it appears that the value of its lands had increased more

than four times as fast as its population, supposing the two valuations made with equal accuracy.

On the other hand, in the state of New York the valuation of its lands under the direct tax law of 1815, was \$266,067,094; and the average valuation of the same lands, for the years 1834, 1835, and 1836, under a law of the state, was \$430,751,273. This shows an increase of value, in twenty years, of 61.8 per cent, which is equivalent to a decennial increase of 27.2 per cent. The increase of population of the same state from 1810 to 1830 was 100 per cent, and from 1820 to 1840 was 76.9 per cent. The average between them (88.4 per cent) may be presumed to give the rate of increase from 1815 to 1835, the period in question, which is equivalent to a decennial increase of 37 per cent; and thus, supposing the valuation to have been made on the same principles under the federal and the state governments, population would seem to have increased faster than capital in that state, or at least, than capital seeking investment in real estate.

It would seem from the preceding instances that the increase in the value of land has been very different in the different states, even when compared with the increase of population. It has also probably varied at different periods. The great extension of the foreign commerce of the United States during the first decennial term, and the extraordinary demand for their agricultural products, caused a rapid rise in the value of their lands. The interruptions to that commerce in the second period, and part of the third, produced a correspondent depression. On the other hand, the depreciation of the currency in most of the states during the war, and in all of them about the year 1835 and 1836, had the effect of enhancing the price of land.

Let us now advert to the progress of commerce, seeing that the growth of national wealth may be expected to manifest itself in an increase of exports and imports. But since they greatly vary from year to year, it will be necessary to take the average of several years.

The average imports for the three years, from March 4th, 1789, to March 4th, 1792, were as follows:—

The imports from March 4th, 1789, to December 31st, 1791,.....	\$52,200,000
“ from December 31st, 1791, to March 4th, 1792, equal to one-sixth of the imports of that year,.....	5,250,000
One-third of.....	\$57,450,000
is.....	\$19,150,000

The average imports of 1839, 1840, and 1841 are \$132,393,000, which shows an increase in fifty years of 692 per cent, equal to a decennial increase of 47 per cent, which is about two-fifths, or 40 per cent more than the average decennial increase of population.

The average annual exports of domestic products from March 4th, 1789, to March 4th, 1792, were \$13,500,000, and for the years 1839, 1840, and 1841, the average was \$107,937,000, showing an increase of 799 per cent in 50 years, which is equal to a decennial increase of something more than 51 per cent.

Again: The average imports for the years 1819, 1820, and 1821, were \$74,720,000, and when compared with those of 1839, 1840, and 1841, an increase is shown of 77 per cent in twenty years, equal to a decennial

increase of 33 per cent, which is rather less than the increase of the population in the same period.

The consumption of those commodities which are in extensive, but not in universal use, may also be presumed to indicate the progress of wealth. Of this character are tea, coffee, and wine, all of which, moreover, being imported from abroad, their home consumption can be accurately ascertained.

		From 1808 to 1812.	From 1836 to 1840.
The average quantity annually consumed of Coffee, was....lbs.		16,158,000	96,274,000
“ “ “ “ Tea,		3,445,932	14,591,000
“ “ “ “ Wines, gls.		1,737,002	5,422,000
The increased consump. in 30 years of Coffee, 495 p. cent; the decen. incr.		81 p. cent.	
“ “ “ “ Tea, 323 “		“ 61 “	
“ “ “ “ Wine, 212 “		“ 46 “	

It would seem, then, that from 1808 to 1838 the increased decennial consumption of coffee, compared with that of the population, has been as 33 to 81; of tea, 33 to 61; and of wine, as 33 to 46.

It must, however, be remembered, that for the last six years of the term, coffee, which had previously paid a duty of 5 cents per pound, and teas, which had paid an average duty of more than 20 cents per pound, have been free of duty; and that for the same period the duties on wine have been greatly reduced. It is not easy to say how far the increased consumption of these commodities is to be attributed to the changes in the tariff, but it does not probably exceed 20 per cent, and may be much less.

One circumstance which has contributed to diminish the increase both of imports and exports, is the growth of manufactures, which has at once enlarged the home market for the raw materials, and lessened the demand of imports.

Official estimates of the manufactures of the United States were taken both in 1810 and 1820, but there were so many inaccuracies in both, and especially the last, that any inferences drawn from them are to be regarded rather as probable conjectures than well-founded estimates.

According to a digest of the returns made by the marshals in 1810 of the manufactures of the United States, they amounted to \$127,694,602. A further estimate was afterwards made by the acting Secretary of the Treasury of the omissions, by which the amount was extended to \$172,762,676. But inasmuch as there might also be great omissions in the returns of 1840, it would seem safer to compare the returns that were actually made, more especially as Mr. Gallatin had, from those of 1810, estimated the annual amount of manufactures at only 120 millions of dollars.

It seems, however, that each of these estimates contain items that are not comprehended in that of 1840. These, then, will be deducted before the two are compared.

The following articles in the returns of 1810, were not, in 1840, comprehended in the estimate of manufactures, viz:—

Amount, according to the marshal's returns,.....		\$127,694,602
Fabrics made in families,.....	\$16,491,200	
Products of fulling-mills,.....	4,117,308	
“ carding mills,.....	1,837,508	
Bar and pig iron,.....	6,081,314	
Tanneries,.....	8,338,250	

Salt,		\$1,149,793	
Fish oil,.....		240,520	
Lead in pigs,.....		26,720	
		<hr/>	\$38,332,613
			\$89,361,909
Deduct for raw materials one-third,.....			29,787,329
			<hr/>
			\$59,574,660
The annual product of the manufactures of 1840, was.....			239,752,227
To be deducted, the following articles not comprehended in the digest of 1840, viz :—			
Bricks and lime, two-thirds of.....	\$9,736,945	\$6,491,390	
Houses, two-thirds of.....	41,917,401	28,044,934	
Mill manufactures, one-fourth of...	76,545,246	19,136,311	
		<hr/>	\$53,672,635
			<hr/>
			\$186,079,592

Comparing the same articles of manufacture in 1810 and 1840, the increase, from \$59,574,660 to \$186,079,592, is 212 per cent in thirty years, or a decennial increase of 46 per cent.

The returns of manufactures made by the marshals in 1825 were still more imperfect and inaccurate. In whole counties there were no returns whatever, and in almost all of them there were considerable omissions. In some cases, where capital to a large amount appears to be employed, no product is stated. In not a few large establishments the proprietors refused to answer the marshal's inquiries. In many, it should be added, the manufacturers are represented to be in a languishing condition.

The gross annual amount of the manufactures, so far as it can be gathered from such defective returns, appears to be only \$36,115,000, and the capital employed in them to \$41,507,000. As this branch of industry is known to have been steadily advancing from 1810 to 1815, so great a falling off in five years as is indicated by the returns of 1820, seems to be utterly inadmissible. Without doubt it must have greatly declined after the peace of 1815, which at once raised the price of raw materials and lowered that of manufactures; but after making large allowances for these circumstances and the omissions in the returns of 1820, they do not seem sufficient to account for the great apparent difference, and a part of it seems not improbably to be referred to an over valuation of the manufactures in 1810.

Perhaps the best mode of comparing the manufactures of 1820 with those of 1840 is to compare the number of persons employed in those years; and the rather as this part of the returns is the most complete, and in the most manufacturing states makes some approach to accuracy. The number employed in 1820 was 36,705 men, 5,812 women, and 13,779 children—in all 56,296. The whole number of persons employed in 1840 was 455,668—that is, as 100 to 809; which supposes the extraordinary decennial increase of 284 per cent. After making the most liberal deduction from this estimate for the omissions in the returns of 1820, the remainder shows an advancement in this branch of industry that is without example. As a further evidence of the same fact, we find that while no other branch of our domestic exports has ever doubled since 1820, that of manufactures has increased six fold; that is, from \$2,342,000 to \$12,868,840 in 1840, and \$13,523,072 in 1841.

The increase of the precious metals, or rather of money, would be one of the surest indications of an increase of wealth ; but we have no means of ascertaining its amount in the first two or three decennial terms with even an approach to accuracy. In 1791, the estimates of the currency, then almost wholly metallic, varied from nine to sixteen millions of dollars. But in 1821, upon better data, the amount was estimated by the Treasury department at from eighteen to twenty millions. From that time to 1841, the imports of specie and bullion, according to the custom-house returns, were..... \$181,589,814

The exports in the same period were..... 188,085,922

\$43,503,892

This, with the quantity then in the country, estimated at \$19,000,000, gives a total of \$62,502,892. To this we should add the product of domestic mines, but on the other hand, deduct the quantity wrought into plate and manufactures, or consumed by the wear of the coin.

The quantity of gold and silver manufactured from coin during the twenty years in question, is supposed by those most conversant on the subject not to exceed an average of \$500,000 a year. The quantity lost and consumed by the wear of the coin may be set down at one-fourth of 1 per cent a year. The product of the domestic mines, carried to the mint in the same period, has been \$6,124,547, and making a moderate allowance for the quantity used by goldbeaters and other manufacturers, we may safely estimate it in round numbers at \$7,000,000.

On the preceding state of facts, the quantity of specie in the country in 1841 would be as follows :—

Amount in circulation since 1821, and since imported,.....		\$62,503,892
Product of domestic mines,.....		7,000,000
		<u>\$69,503,892</u>
Deduct amount manufactured,.....	\$10,000,000	
“ “ consumed by wear,.....	2,000,000	
		<u>12,000,000</u>
		<u>\$57,503,892</u>

This increase in twenty years, from \$19,000,000 to \$57,503,892, is equivalent to a decennial increase of 73 per cent, or nearly two-thirds more than the increase of population. Without doubt the quantity of the precious metals in the United States was considerably augmented by the large loans contracted in Europe, but it must be recollected that a large part—it is believed the largest part—of those loans was contracted after 1837, in consequence of the reaction occasioned by the preternatural distension of the currency, and tended rather to check the efflux of specie (which it could not prevent) than to increase its import ; and that, whatever was the effect of those loans, it would seem that the equilibrium was restored by the same reaction before 1841, by the fact of the great increase of specie within the last two years.

In this comparative estimate, as well as in all those preceding it, we should take into account the rise which the precious metals have experienced since 1820, by reason of the lessened production of the American mines, and which cannot be much if any short of 10 per cent. If we allow for this additional value, it will convert the \$57,503,892 in 1841

to more than \$63,000,000, and raise the decennial increase of those metals to something more than 82 per cent.

The result of the preceding comparisons may be seen in the following summary :—

Decennial increase of land in 10 states,....	68 per cent.—	Of population, 30.8 per cent.
“ “ “ Virginia,....	31 “ “	7. “
“ “ “ New York,.	27 “ “	37. “
“ “ imports in 50 years,	47 “ “	33.50 “
“ “ exports “	51 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ imports in 20 years,	33 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ exports “	33 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ imports of tea,	61 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ “ coffee,	81 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ “ wine,	46 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ manufacturés,	46 “ “	33.33 “
“ “ specie,	82 “ “	33.33 “
	601	371.94 “

Which shows the decennial increase of capital and wealth to have been to that of population as 601 to 371.94, or nearly as 50 to 31 ; and supposing the decennial increase of population to have averaged 33½ per cent, that of wealth has been 53 per cent.

According to the view that has been taken of the resources of these states, their public debts, on the most liberal estimate made of them, bear an insignificant proportion to their means. Supposing the amount of those debts to be 200 millions of dollars, at an interest of 6 per cent, the annual charge is \$12,000,000, which is little more than 1 per cent of their income in 1840, and may be presumed to be less than 1 per cent of their present income. But if they were all to provide for the punctual payment of this interest, and thus restore that confidence in the national faith which once existed, or even make an approach to it, the debt could be readily converted at par into a five, or even four per cent stock, and the excess would be sufficient for a sinking fund that would discharge the debt in thirty years or less. In this interval, too, as wealth would be steadily increasing, the burthen would become lighter and lighter, and in twenty-five years it would bear but a third or fourth of its present rate on the value of property.

With such ample means of complying with their engagements, the states have not a shadow of excuse for not faithfully fulfilling them. It is true that these debts are distributed among them very unequally, because their affairs have been administered with very unequal degrees of wisdom and forbearance ; but even those states which are most encumbered, may provide for the payment of interest by a moderate tax, which shall be made to bear on all sources of revenue. Thus the debt of Pennsylvania, estimated at \$40,000,000, bears, at 5 per cent, an annual interest of \$2,000,000. The income of this state was, in 1840, \$131,000,000, and is probably at this time not less than \$150,000,000. A nett revenue of only 1½ per cent of that income would produce the \$2,000,000 required.

But were the burthen yet greater, and the means of discharging them yet less, no state which does not set a higher value on property than integrity, can consent to a violation of the national faith ; nor would any right-minded citizen deem the saving thus effected any compensation for

the stain of national infamy it would leave behind it. But the public sentiment of the Union, to say nothing of our character abroad, to which we never have been and never ought to be indifferent, is so decided on this subject, that it is impossible the people of any state can permanently resist it. Even the excuses and pretences which were but too successfully urged by those who make a political traffic of their principles when the first stunning effects of the revulsion in 1839 were felt in full force, will soon find no support from any considerable portion of the American people. All men who have at once common sense and common honesty, must see that "repudiation," if warranted by strict law, would not be just; and though it were just, would be neither liberal nor wise.

We confidently trust, then, that the cloud which now fearfully overhangs a few states, and to the distant observer casts a shade over the uncontaminated associates, will soon disappear, and leave the path before us as bright and cheering as that it is our pride to have passed over.

ART. III.—THE COTTON TRADE.*

THE recent advance in the price of cotton gives interest and value to the statistics of that branch of trade. These will not, indeed, settle the question whether the rise is speculative or well founded; for the future cannot be determined by the past. They will, however, aid in settling that question. The experience of former speculators, and the circumstances which attended former advances, will be of more or less use in guiding the cotton-sellers and cotton-buyers of this season. To disregard past experience, is not the part of prudent men; and in business, even more than in morals, people desire to be prudent.

I propose to bring together some facts on this subject. If the advance is merely speculative, and not based on the wants of the spinners and consumers, it is the interest and policy of our planters to bring forward their crop as soon as possible. If the rise is permanent—founded on a real or probable deficiency of supply—the whole south will rejoice again, with prosperity and abundance.

The facts I shall bring forward will all be of the most authentic character. They will be taken principally from Hunt's *Merchants' Magazine*, Baines' *History of the Cotton Manufacture*, and M'Culloch's *Commercial Dictionary*. Some other authorities, equally undoubted, will be referred to.

The principles on which I shall examine the question proposed, will be the following:—The stocks in foreign ports have been accumulating for several years past. At the end of 1842, they were larger than ever before. If the probable supply and demand are such that the stocks, at the end of 1844, will exceed those of 1842, the present advance cannot be sustained. If, on the contrary, the deficiency of the incoming crop, and the increased demand at home and abroad, will more than consume the excess of the present crop of 1843, then prices must rise; or, at least, the present advance will be sustained.

* This article was written in October, by Professor M'Cay, of the University of Georgia, and sent to his brother, W. M'Cay, Esq., Postmaster at Washingtonville, Pa., who forwarded the manuscript to us too late for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine* for November. It will be read with interest.—*Ed. Merchants' Magazine.*

The first question is, as to the crop now gathering. From Carolina, the reports are unfavorable. From the upper part of Georgia, there will be a fair crop; from the lower parts, it will fall off a quarter or a half from last year. In Florida, the failure is estimated to be very large—not a half crop, the newspapers say; and private accounts are not more flattering. From Alabama, the greatest deficiency I have seen reported, is 30 per cent. In the northern part, the crop is good. In Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas, the reports are contradictory. Some say a falling off of 30 per cent; all agree there will be much less than last year.

It must be recollected, on the other hand, that the bad reports are always most easily circulated—that there is usually much exaggeration in the reported injuries to the growing crop—that the season has, thus far, (October 6th) been very favorable for picking; and that the natural increase of hands, and the extending of the cultivation by the planters, will tend to augment, somewhat, the production. The following estimate of the crop is submitted:—

<i>Receipts.</i>	1843.	1844.
New Orleans,.....	1,060,000 bales.	700,000 to 800,000 bales.
Mobile,.....	482,000 "	350,000 to 400,000 "
Florida,.....	161,000 "	100,000 to 120,000 "
Georgia,.....	299,000 "	240,000 to 480,000 "
South Carolina,.....	352,000 "	280,000 to 320,000 "
North Carolina and Virginia,.....	24,000 "	20,000 to 30,000 "
	2,378,000 "	1,690,000 to 1,950,000 "

The average, 1,820,000 bales, is probably the fairest estimate of the crop that can now be given. So much for the supply from the United States.

The imports into England, of Egyptian, Brazil, &c., have been nearly stationary for several years; and their average amount may be taken as the supply for 1843 and 1844:—

1839,.....	176,000 bales.	1842,.....	120,000 bales.
1840,.....	112,000 "	Average,.....	132,000 "
1841,.....	119,000 "		

As yet, the import from India has not fallen off; but the opening of the Chinese ports will lessen it considerably for 1844. Probably a falling off of 50 per cent may be calculated on. That will bring it down to 127,000 bales for 1844. The amount exported to England before the Chinese war, was as follows, from 1833 to 1840:—

1833,.....	95,000 bales.	1838,.....	109,000 bales
1834,.....	88,000 "	1839,.....	132,000 "
1835,.....	118,000 "	1840,.....	216,000 "
1836,.....	219,000 "	Average,.....	139,000 "
1837,.....	145,000 "		

If we set it down at 255,000 for 1843, which was the amount of 1842, and 127,000 for 1844, we will probably be near the mark. The receipts in France, from Egypt, are considerable; but I have no means of obtaining their amount, and shall have to leave them out. So, also, the receipts of France, and other European countries besides England, from India, Brazil, &c. These, however, are small, and may safely be neglected.

Of the crop made in the United States, a large amount must be retained for home consumption. Our factories are active, and will want more than

in any former year. The American consumption, for several years past, has been as follows :—

		Av. for two years.			Av. for two years.
1836,...	236,000 bales.	} 229,000 bales.	1840,...	295,000 bales.	} 296,000 bales.
1837,...	222,000 "		1841,...	297,000 "	
1838,...	244,000 "	} 260,000 "	1842,...	268,000 "	} 297,000 "
1839,...	276,000 "		1843,...	325,000 "	

If we allow 350,000 bales for 1844, it will be a very large increase ; but probably it will be nearly correct.

We have now the elements of the European supply for 1843 and 1844 :—

Exports of the United States for 1843,.....	1,990,000 bales.
Crop " " " 1844,.....	1,820,000 "
English import of East India, for 1844,.....	255,000 "
" " all others, " 1843,.....	127,000 "
" " " 1844,.....	132,000 "
Total,.....	4,456,000 "
From this, deduct the wants of the United States for 1844,.....	350,000 "
And there remains.....	4,106,000 "

We have no means of estimating the demand in Europe, out of England and France ; but, as that is small, we will leave it out, both in estimating the wants and the supply.

The exports of the United States to all other countries, except France and England, for 1842 and 1843, have been 321,000 bales. As those of 1842 were 67,000 larger than those of 1843, it is probable the amount for 1843 and 1844 will be less than this. Taking them at 320,000, we will have, finally, the English and French supply for 1843 and 1844, 3,786,000 bales ; or the average supply for both, 1,893,000 bales.

Let us now inquire into the demand. In Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, the English consumption is put down as follows :—

1839,.....	1,054,000 bales.	1841,.....	1,150,000 bales.
1840,.....	1,293,000 "	1842,.....	1,195,000 "

In M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary :—

1837,.....	1,057,000 bales.	1840,.....	1,089,000 bales.
1838,.....	1,207,000 "	1841,.....	1,237,000 "
1839,.....	1,114,000 "		

From Brande's Encyclopædia :—

1840,.....	1,251,000 bales.
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From Cotton Brokers' Circular :—

1840,.....	1,285,000 bales.	1841,.....	1,196,000 bales.
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There is much agreement between these estimates, and great dependence may, doubtless, be placed on them. The average of all gives :—

1837,.....	1,073,000 bales.	1840,.....	1,276,000 bales.
1838,.....	1,222,000 "	1841,.....	1,173,000 "
1839,.....	1,084,000 "	1842,.....	1,195,000 "

The French consumption, according to Hunt, was as follows :—

1837,.....	361,000 bales.	1840,.....	446,000 bales.
1838,.....	392,000 "	1841,.....	419,000 "
1839,.....	326,000 "	1842,.....	445,000 "

Much of this was Egyptian; but how much, we cannot say. Most of the American exports go to Havre—the Egyptian to Marseilles; and the Havre imports are considerably below the French consumption. We will omit this, as it will not much affect our final results. Combining, now, the French and English consumption, we have—

1837,.....	1,434,000 bales.	1842,.....	1,640,000 bales.
1838,.....	1,614,000 "	Av. for 1837 and 1838,.	1,524,000 "
1839,.....	1,410,000 "	" 1839 and 1840,.	1,566,000 "
1840,.....	1,722,000 "	" 1841 and 1842,.	1,616,000 "
1841,.....	1,592,000 "		

Which gives an increase of less than 2 per cent per annum. The wants of 1843 and 1844 will, doubtless, outrun these. The opening of the Chinese trade, the general peace throughout the world, the favorable harvest in England, will increase the demand faster than usual. But, as we have had these circumstances all operating before, it is possible to tell the probable limit of the effects they will produce. The cotton trade has been increasing, for twenty or twenty-five years, with gigantic strides. For several years past, this rate has much slackened; and no one can suppose the rate hereafter, or for the next two years, will be as large. What, then, has been the rate of progress?

From M'Culloch, it appears that the English weekly consumption has been as follows:—

1825,.....	3,456,000 lbs.	1832,.....	5,330,000 lbs.
1826,.....	3,410,000 "	1835,.....	6,117,000 "
1827,.....	3,802,000 "	1836,.....	6,681,000 "
1828,.....	4,158,000 "	1837,.....	7,032,000 "
1829,.....	4,263,000 "	1838,.....	8,013,000 "
1830,.....	4,768,000 "	1839,.....	7,321,000 "
1831,.....	5,048,000 "	1840,.....	8,825,000 "

The consumption of 1833 and 1834 is not given.

The French consumption is given, in Hunt, in bales, for the whole year; but they may be turned into pounds, and the weekly consumption obtained very nearly, by taking the weight of the bags from M'Culloch. In 1825, the weight was 270 lbs.; in 1830, 300; in 1835, 331; &c.

	Bales.	Weight of a bag.	Weekly consumption.		Bales.	Weight of a bag.	Weekly consumption.
1825,....	216,000	270	1,123,000 lbs.	1832,....	272,000	312	1,632,000 lbs.
1826,....	281,000	276	1,489,000 "	1835,....	309,000	331	1,964,000 "
1827,....	280,000	282	1,512,000 "	1836,....	357,000	342	2,342,000 "
1828,....	240,000	288	1,344,000 "	1837,....	361,000	347	2,366,000 "
1829,....	265,000	294	1,510,000 "	1838,....	392,000	350	2,638,000 "
1830,....	251,000	300	1,456,000 "	1839,....	326,000	348	2,181,000 "
1831,....	244,000	306	1,440,000 "	1840,....	446,000	365	3,126,000 "

Combining the two, and taking the average of two years at a time, and getting the increase per cent for two years, we have the following table:—

	Weekly consumption.	Rate of incr. for two yrs.		Weekly consumption.	Rate of incr. for two yrs.
1825-26,....	9,478,000 lbs.	1835-36,....	17,104,000 lbs.	13 per cent.
1827-28,....	10,816,000 "	14 per cent.	1837-38,....	20,049,000 "	17 "
1829-30,....	11,997,000 "	11 "	1839-40,....	21,453,000 "	7 "
1831-32,....	13,450,000 "	12 "	Average increase,.....		12 "

The utmost rapidity of any period was 17 per cent; the average, only 12. To suppose that the increase per cent on the very large numbers now representing the consumption would be as great as it ever was, in

the past history of the cotton trade, would be preposterous; but we will take this as the utmost limit to which it will go. The result is as follows:—

	Bales.		Bales.
Consumption of 1837-38,.....	1,524,000	Possible cons. of 1843-44,.....	1,891,000
“ 1839-40,.....	1,566,000	Estim'd supply, 1843-44,.....	1,893,000
“ 1841-42,.....	1,616,000		

Here, then, is our conclusion. The stocks, at the end of 1844, will be larger than those on hand at the end of 1842; and an advance of prices, in the face of increasing stocks, is so utterly at variance with the laws of trade, that they cannot be sustained.

I have everywhere made liberal allowances and deductions, to avoid this conclusion. I have first supposed a very large increase in the demand from the northern manufacturers. I have supposed the demand in England and France to increase as fast as it has done in any period of the last eighteen years, or five times faster than it has done in the last six years. I have supposed the East India supply to fall off, next year, 50 per cent; which brings it lower than the average before the Chinese war, although it is known that there has been a great extension of production in India. I have not reckoned anything for French receipts from India, Egypt, and Brazil. I have made no reference to the large stocks in our Atlantic ports, which, at the end of 1843, were 55,000 bales larger than at the end of 1842; and, in spite of all, I have been forced to the conclusion that the supply for 1843 and 1844 will exceed the demand, and that the larger stocks on hand, at the end of 1842, will be increased at the end of 1844.

I will now go back, and examine this question with a different set of facts, not with reference to England and France alone, but for the whole of Europe. The crop and export of the last six years have been as follows:—

	Crop. Bales.	Exports. Bales.		Crop. Bales.	Exports. Bales.
1837,.....	1,422,000	1,169,000	1841,.....	1,635,000	1,313,000
1838,.....	1,801,000	1,575,000	1842,.....	1,684,000	1,465,000
1839,.....	1,360,000	1,076,000	1843,.....	2,379,000	1,990,000
1840,.....	2,177,000	1,876,000			

These are the crop and the exports of the United States at the end of the cotton year. If we had the increase or decrease of stocks in Europe at the same time, we would know the European consumption. These are made up at the end of the civil year, and differ considerably from what they are at the end of the cotton year. In comparing them, however, with one another, the results will be much the same. If the European stocks increase or decrease from September to September, they will increase or decrease nearly at the same rate from December to December. The stocks on hand at the end of the year were as follows:—

	England. Bales.	France. Bales.	Europe. Bales.		England. Bales.	France. Bales.	Europe. Bales.
1837,....	259,000	64,000	386,000	1840,....	464,000	96,000
1838,....	321,000	63,000	460,000	1841,....	538,000	136,000
1839,....	265,000	75,000	412,000	1842,....	561,000	138,000

The English imports from other countries than the United States were—

1837,.....	331,000 bales.	1840,.....	363,000 bales.
1838,.....	307,000 “	1841,.....	440,000 “
1839,.....	299,000 “	1842,.....	379,000 “

Average European supply for—

1837-38,.....	1,691,000 bales.		1841-42,.....	1,798,000 bales.
1839-40,.....	1,837,000 "			

Increase of stocks from—

1837 to 1838,.....	74,000 bales.		1840 to 1842,.....	139,000 bales.
1838 to 1840,.....	172,000 "			

Hence, actual average wants for—

1837-38,.....	1,617,000 bales.		1841-42,.....	1,649,000 bales.
1839-40,.....	1,635,000 "			

To this, add 17 per cent as the possible increase of demand, and it gives the European demand, 1,929,000 bales. The supply was before estimated, for the whole of Europe, at 2,053,000 bales, a very great excess in the supply over the wants. We are thus led to the same conclusion as before. The stocks in Europe must increase during 1843 and 1844; and, therefore, the price of cotton ought at least to fall back to what it was at the end of 1842.

I come now to a third method of settling this question; and in this, the elements I shall use will be independent of those already brought forward. The numbers will relate to the English market only; but, as this is by far the most important of all, what applies to it will apply to all.

ENGLISH IMPORTS, IN MILLIONS OF POUNDS.

	U. States.	India.	All others.		U. States.	India.	All others.	
1837,.....	320.7	51.6	35.0		1840,.....	487.9	76.7	26.9
1838,.....	431.4	40.2	36.2		1841,.....	358.2	97.4	32.4
1839,.....	311.6	47.2	30.6		1842,.....	387.3

The import from all other countries, except the United States and India, has been thus nearly stationary. The average for the last five years is 328,000,000. The India import, for 1842, was 255,000 bales. The average weight of an East India bag, from 1837 to 1841, was 358 lbs. This gives, for the India import for 1842, 91.3 millions; and for the whole English import of 1842, 511.4 millions. Hence, the average import for—

1837-38, was.....	457.5 millions.		1841-42, was.....	499.7 millions.
1839-40, ".....	490.4 "			

The exports were as follows :—

1837,.....	39.7 millions of lbs.		1841,.....	50.9 millions of lbs.
1838,.....	39.6 "			

The exports in bales are given, in M'Culloch, for the other years, and the weight of the packages imported, but not the weight of those exported. As but few United States bags are exported, the average weight of the imported will be a little too large, as the American bags are the heaviest. Taking them the same, the pounds exported will be as follows :—

1839,.....	40.8 millions of lbs.		1842,.....	52.5 millions of lbs.
1840,.....	42.7 "			

This leaves for the average amount retained for home consumption—

1837-38,.....	422.4 millions of lbs.		1841-42,.....	448.0 millions of lbs.
1839-40,.....	448.7 "			

Up to the 1st of September of the present year, the import into England was 1,382,000 bales. Last year, at the same date, the import was

993,000 bales; and for the whole year, 1,386,000 bales. Supposing the import for the rest of the year to fall off 25 per cent, the whole amount for 1843 will be 1,677,000 bales. Although the estimate of the crop for 1844 is higher than that of 1842, our English export of 1844 may not exceed that of 1842. Allowing the East India import to fall off 50 per cent, and that of all others to remain stationary, the imports for 1844 will be as follows :—

American,.....	1,019,000 bales.
East India,.....	137,000 "
All others,.....	123,000 "
Total,.....	1,279,000 "

And, as a large portion of this is American, the weight of the bags may be put at 380 lbs. This gives the English import as follows :—

1843,.....	637.3	Average,.....	560.6
1844,.....	486.0		

As the East India import falls off, the English export will decrease; but, let it be taken at the average of the last six years, which is 42.9 millions, and it leaves for English consumption, as the average for 1843 and 1844,..... 518.7 millions of lbs. The av. am't left for consumption in 1841-42, was 448. "

Increase for 1843,..... 70.7 "

Which is about 16 per cent.

Thus, although the stocks on hand increased, during 1841 and 1842, from 464,000 to 561,000 bales, the amounts retained for English consumption in 1843 and 1844 will exceed the amount retained in 1841 and 1842, by 16 per cent. As this increase is as great as any possible increase of the demand, it follows that the stocks must increase during 1843 and 1844, and therefore the price ought to recede, rather than advance. The present rise in cotton seems, therefore, like a bold endeavor to force the price above the rate required by the demand; and such an attempt can only result in injury to those who engage in it.

In conclusion, I would advert to some facts in the history of former speculations in cotton. The great rise in 1825 was accompanied by many circumstances to justify it. The import of 1824 was below the average import of the previous five years, although the consumption was increasing at the rate of 8 and 10 per cent per annum. The stock on hand fell off from 107 millions to 76; and yet the advance in prices was so completely unfounded, that a general bankruptcy overwhelmed all the speculators. A slight rise was proper enough; but the eagerness to make a fortune, which always belongs to a rising market, forced the speculators beyond all proper limits.

The rise in 1833 and 1834 was justified by a constantly decreasing stock. The stocks were as follows :—

1827,....	164.8 mill'ns of lbs.	452,000 bales.	1831,....	114.4 mill'ns of lbs.	275,000 bales.
1828,....	147.0 "	406,000 "	1832,....	103.7 "	245,000 "
1829,....	115.5 "	289,000 "	1833,....	94.4 "	215,000 "
1830,....	118.8 "	320,000 "			

The short crop of 1839 created a speculative rise here, which was not accompanied by a corresponding advance in England. The circumstances

attending that rise were somewhat similar to those of this year. The crop of 1838 was very large; that of 1839 was very small. By the official estimates at the custom-house of the United States, the prices were, for—

1838.....	10.1 cents.		1840.....	8.6 cents.
1839.....	14.5 "			

While, according to M'Culloch, they were, in Liverpool—

1838.....	7 pence.		1840.....	6 pence.
1839.....	7½ "			

The advance here being about four cents and a half, while in England it was only one and three-fourths of a cent. No one now hears, in the cotton-growing states, the universal complaints that were made in 1839; and yet the advance in prices is greater now, in the United States, than it was in Liverpool in that disastrous year.

There is nothing, therefore, in the history of the cotton trade; nothing in the present state of the demand and supply; nothing in the present or future state of the stocks on hand, to justify any advance over the prices of 1842; and all attempts of speculators to force prices, can only recoil on themselves. The laws of trade are as irreversible as those of nature; and these laws have more and more influence on the results, in proportion to the magnitude of the business. In the whole range of products, there is none in which man's influence is less than in cotton. We may, therefore, confidently expect that prices will fall back to their former rates, till the new planting of 1844 begins to exert its influence.

ART. IV.—THE UNION OF PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

PROTECTION TO AMERICAN INTERESTS IN UNION WITH THE PRINCIPLES OF TRUE FREE TRADE, ILLUSTRATED BY THE REPORT OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE HOME LEAGUE, AT ITS SECOND ANNIVERSARY.*

Gentlemen, Associates of the Home League:

We hail, with honest pride, the return of this anniversary. An important work has been accomplished by the friends of American interests, and the day is now with us.

In contemplating the striking contrast between the present condition of our country, and the discouraging state of its affairs when, at the call of the American Institute, we were first assembled in this city, we can discover ample cause for mutual congratulation.

Two years ago, when every portion of the country was laboring under embarrassments in all departments of business—when the laborer was without employ, and the capitalist without confidence—when our agriculturists sought in vain for a remunerating market for their products—when our manufactures were all but ruined by foreign importations, and threatened with a withdrawal of adequate protection—when our foreign commerce and shipping interest, *even under a low state of duties*, were, in every way, unprofitable—when the states and general government were

* The Annual Report of the Central Committee, prepared by C. C. Haven, being read, was unanimously adopted; and, being referred to the committee for publication, was ordered by them to be published in "Hunt's Merchants' Magazine."

embarrassed by increasing debts, and every interest in the commonwealth seemed to be at the mercy of an adverse current of events—a few individuals, of various professions, without dictation or reward from any quarter, except the satisfaction of acting with honest and patriotic motives, resolved to devote themselves to the task of devising some remedy for the existing evils; and for this purpose invited a convention of their fellow-citizens, from every section of the country, without distinction of party, which organized this association for the PROTECTION OF AMERICAN LABOR, and the promotion of RECIPROCAL FREE TRADE. This was the starting point of the HOME LEAGUE, and under this banner we have triumphed.

The following are some of the resolutions which were unanimously passed on that occasion. We think it important that they should now be remembered as the principles we then professed, and as having, so far, proved correct in practice:—

Resolved, That the primary object of the HOME LEAGUE will be to digest and recommend a national polity, for the promotion of the general interests of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and finance; exercising a continuous influence for the benefit of the Union, independent of sectional prejudices, aloof from party trammels, and free from vacillating and temporizing expedients.

Resolved, That, in the organization and proceedings of this League, no other influence is contemplated than such as will rest on principles and arguments which may be approved by the people, and sanctioned by Congressional enactments.

Resolved, That labor, corporeal and mental, is conservative of virtue, and the origin of wealth—its interests should, therefore, be the prime objects of legislation; while capital is competent to its own protection in the strife of interests, and needs little else than to be secured to its proprietors. No nation can be great or prosperous where labor is either dishonorable, or wasted for want of objects upon which it can be bestowed, or meets with no adequate reward.

Resolved, That no nation should tolerate any other than a reciprocal commerce; but, to receive the products of nations which refuse ours in exchange, is only another name for vassalage.

Resolved, That a policy which favors the augmentation of our exports, encourages home labor according to the directions our citizens may prefer to give it, and regulates or restricts importations so as to prevent, as much as possible, the balance of trade being against us, is best calculated to secure a stable revenue to the government, and promote the whole interests of the country.

Resolved, That the preservation of a sound currency can only be promoted by a steady security to domestic industry; whilst any other system of currency, not secured from violent changes, is liable to paralyze industry, to prostrate trade and confidence, and subject the country to revulsions imminently dangerous to its welfare.

Resolved, That in any adjustment of the tariff, for the purpose of revenue, due regard should be had to the protection of such articles as may render every portion of the country competent to supply its primary wants from home resources, in times of peace as well as war.

Resolved, That if a revenue for the economical support of government is to be the measure of protective favor to our manufacturers and me-

chanics, justice, as well as policy, demand that such a scale of duties be adopted as will not, by fostering an increased consumption of imported fabrics, favor *foreign labor*, when (by a higher scale, producing an equal revenue,) *our own industry may be aided, without injury to any home interest.*

Resolved, That adequate protection to the mechanical and manufacturing interests does not conflict with, but does essentially aid the agricultural and commercial industry of the country.

Resolved, That, based as our government is, on the principles of equality, both political and social, among its citizens, it depends, for its existence as a republic, upon such an administration of the laws as will secure to men of wealth the enjoyment of their property, and to the laboring man a sufficient and satisfactory return for his labor, and enable him not only to procure the necessaries, but to enjoy the comforts of life.

Modelled upon these principles, a highly acceptable tariff was at length enacted by the government; which, having been maturely prepared by practical men, has proved most beneficial and satisfactory in its operation. It has given new life, and a healthy action, to all departments of our national industry, and a new impulse to the popular mind. Our citizens, who were before divided in their opinions respecting its utility, can now clearly see the advantage of protection to our national concerns. None but the interested agents and venal presses in foreign employ, and monopolizing capitalists, who seek exclusive benefits from the labors of others, without laboring themselves, pretend any longer to deny its beneficial influence to the country at large. Permanency is now all that is wanted to secure its continued triumph. Even those who at first denounced it as an unjust and piratical manœuvre of northern manufactures, and tauntingly derided it as the Home League tariff, are now willing to participate in its advantages, and even affect to claim merit for having permitted its enactment.

We rejoice that our humble labors have been in any way satisfactory, even to those who have bitterly and unjustly aspersed our motives. Such a result proves the utility of popular associations, acting under the influence of constitutional privileges; and tests the value of free inquiry, independent of party trammels. With all the industrial classes of the community, the Home League has been decidedly popular; and the formation of more than a hundred auxiliary associations will prove its extended influence throughout the states. But, that hostility to our proceedings should be manifested by foreigners, interested in opposing it, or by sectional politicians in our own country, who misrepresent or misunderstand our principles, is not surprising.

The free institutions, and vast resources of our country, encourage speculation of every kind. Our government, being essentially liberal in its policy towards all nations, and constituted with establishments mainly devoted to foreign intercourse, and a national bias existing among the people in favor of our early commercial pursuits, overlooking the ten-fold importance of our home trade, we cannot be astonished either at the apathy or hostility shown towards our internal resources, and the necessity of giving them proper protection. LABOR, *the great staple of the farmer*; INDUSTRY AND SKILL, those vast levers of the manufacturing and mechanical interests; DOMESTIC INSTITUTIONS, *for encouraging the right direction of capital and talent in aid of our commercial intercourse at home*, have not only been subjected to a stinted or unstable patronage from the

government, but have too often been made the sport of party legislation and sectional jealousy. To have a *steady protective policy*, wisely fostering these great motive powers of a free, industrious, and enlightened people, one could hardly conceive would be thought questionable, especially when recommended and approved by all the constitutional fathers of the republic. But up to this hour the very name of *protection*, and the establishment of any *league* for mutual concert and action, although it may be a *home league*, are by some denounced as visionary; and, in fact, it has required no ordinary independence to uphold American interests in preference to foreign.

In the promotion, however, of our humble, but, as we trust, useful labors, the members of this Association are again organized for the purpose of carrying out its original designs. To study and digest the intricate principles of an American political economy—to be the rallying point for gathering statistical knowledge, and to disseminate principles and facts conservative of the industrial interests and prosperity of the country, will continue to be our leading object. The officers and members of this League, it is known, have no distinctive political influence in its proceedings. They are composed of men of all parties; but so far as regards what they consider to be independent American ground, viz. PROTECTION TO OUR HOME INTERESTS, they stand aloof from political partyism, and act above it. They are Americans; representing all the different interests and sections of the country, and heartily devoted to the permanent security, honor, and prosperity of the Union. The existing tariff, which we have labored to render an effectual relief and advantage to the whole community, it will be our glory, if necessary, to defend. The *protective policy*, embracing a *reciprocal commerce abroad*, and a *perfect free trade among ourselves*, we consider the only policy adapted to our national growth and security. Its success, we think, will eventually insure its universal popularity; but, as long as the government is without a *home department*, devoted to *home interests*—as long as our national legislature is not secure from the corrupt designs and vascillating tendencies of political partizans, we shall hold ourselves ready to act on the defensive, whenever the cause of American industry or *true free trade* shall be assailed. To both these we are devoted.

That these apparently antagonistic interests are not opposed to each other, however artfully they are made so to appear, we appeal to the arguments which this committee have repeatedly published. The subject requires to be looked at fairly, patiently, and closely. That the protection which wise governments give to their own interests is not inconsistent with, but decidedly promotive of national free trade, we think cannot be doubted. Take our own situation, to try the question. In discriminating judiciously what ought to be the leading pursuits of the people, what require fostering and encouraging, for the greatest advantage of all the individuals and classes of the community, government, which, with us, is the embodying of the people's will, selects and chooses what the majority decides shall be chosen. If every government does this, is not an international commerce treated, which is the perfection of free trade?

When the citizens of every country do that which they can do best, produce those things which they can produce to most advantage, and trade everywhere as they please in pursuit of commodities which they

covet, in exchange for those they wish to part with, is not this free trade? Now, let us suppose that these citizens give up to the government, or to the will of the majority, to decide what is the best thing to be done, what productions and occupations are likely to be most advantageous, taking into view all circumstances, climates, soil, motive-power, skill, capital, industry, &c., what is this but an organized free trade, for the benefit of the whole community? Each nation that adopts and maintains this, consults and protects the good of all. But suppose that any one government, influenced by selfish cupidity, or blinded by a perversity of will, monopolizes advantages which others are entitled to, and encroaches on the charter of free and fair trade by conflicting regulations—are not defensive and retributory measures justifiable? Should not such an infringement of the rights of all be counteracted? If self-protection is an individual right, is not national protection the prerogative of national sovereignty? Surely this cannot be denied. Reciprocal protection, then, and reciprocal free trade, are but one and the same principle. Romance as we may in pursuit of any more enlarged or subtle form of commercial freedom, we shall find the chase an idle one. The greatest good of the greatest number is the only fair and conservative rule of national as well as international policy; and the wise government that will faithfully discriminate for, and protect its own people, and will permanently pursue this course, is sure of independence and success.

Under the presumption that these premises are correct, we have next to consider what is the best mode of bringing about the results flowing from them. Is free trade to be defined and settled by a conventional agreement between different nations, through the means of commercial treaties, or by the independent legislation of separate states, or the unrestrained freedom of individual members, or classes of the community, managing their own separate interests, free from all restraints of tariffs, drawbacks, bounties, or governmental interference? Shall every one do as he pleases with his own, on the principle that he can manage his own affairs best—chase for himself, and protect himself best—the son as well as the parent, the subject as well as the sovereign, and one universal spirit of free trade roam through the world, on the principle of self-protectability? The latter is the most specious and popular delusion of the free trade theorists—the transcendental vision of millennial philosophy, which is prophesied by the political Magi “*as sure to be realized when the world is sufficiently enlightened.*” It may be so; but the day, we think, is distant, and the selfish nature of men and nations must be thoroughly changed before it dawns upon us.

Leaving this now impracticable theory, therefore, out of the question, we will proceed in solemn earnest to consider the feasibility of the *commercial treaty scheme*, which has, of late, been suggested by some of the profoundest political economists of this country and England, with a view to harmonize and perpetuate the great interests of trade between two nations so intimate and friendly in their commercial relations. As far as we understand the views of our own great statesman on this subject, we must do him the justice to state, that he appears himself very doubtful of their practicability. He admits that our first attempt has been a failure; that any diplomatic arrangement must, after all, be subject to the sanction of Congress; and that our great relation and rival cannot begin to give up to us those privileges which she considers her reserved rights,

and without which being conceded, no reciprocal advantage would be secured to us. These admissions, so far as a commercial treaty with England is a clue to what is to be the general policy, one would suppose, would settle the question definitely. There is no reciprocity or true free trade about it. The exclusive monopolizing, protective policy of England is as fixed as the foundations of her sovereignty. They are one, and indivisible. With an insular position, which she calls Great Britain, inferior in size to some of our states, she has, by this policy, contrived to command the trade of the world. Nay, more; with the wand of diplomacy, and under the mask of free trade, she has been able, until lately, to entrance almost every nation with which she has had intercourse, to give up to her a portion of their essential independence. Even of her own subjects, three-fourths are now bound in the chains of colonial vassalage; and this is the policy which she still seeks to fasten on the world, even on Americans, who have broken her fetters from their youthful limbs, and are able to trample their fragments in the dust. To deny to her the right, however, of any policy which she chooses to pursue for the maintenance of her gigantic power, would be to repudiate the same right which we claim for ourselves. Protection is "*sword and shield*" to her; and if we have to enter the lists with her as a rival, with whatever flourish of free trade offers she may make us under the commercial treaty flag, we must be armed in the same manner, or our Ajax, whoever he may be, will find his hand weaponless, and his diplomacy a foil.

As with England, so with France and other foreign powers; we doubt if any arrangement could be made by a commercial treaty, which would securely benefit us as an agricultural, manufacturing, or even as a trading people. Nations generally find out, in times of peace, what is most for their own interest; and it must be considered that if our country has youthful vigor and natural advantages, the older dynasties of Europe have more experience and better organized departments for estimating what is for their own interest, and for defending themselves against diplomatic skill. They would not consent to yield to us advantages without an equivalent, and settling a treaty of equivalents in trade, under constantly changing circumstances, and a fundamental difference between the values of things in old countries compared with what we have, (capital, for instance, and the rates of free and servile or pauper labor,) would be no easy task even for those who have been successful in drawing boundary lines of disputed territories. The sliding scales suited to such an adjustment, we fear, would be very liable to get out of order, even if we could place confidence in the good faith of governments generally. But we could not. All history is against it. The governments themselves are unstable; wars nullify treaties, and change of circumstances would render their ordinary fulfilment doubtful. As long as the foreign friendly relation would prove *advantageous* to any governments abroad, such as now exists by our unfortunate *miscalculated reciprocal treaties, which are striking a death-blow to our shipping interest*, we should probably enjoy the costly benefit of a commercial alliance; but the Metternichs and Perriers and Peels of Europe understand their trade too well to allow us any great advantage under treaty stipulations, first or last.

Our own commercial arrangements, both for revenue and protection, we think, may be best understood and adopted at home. Our commerce we wish to see flourish, and to be as free as the winds that waft it. In

every way that it can be protected, it should be ; but as long as the delusive reciprocal treaty policy continues, it' cannot be. The sea is free to all, and under *this ignominious treaty regulation, which is only nominally reciprocal*, our carrying trade and our maritime advantages are offered *gratis*, to give employment to cheaper ships and cheaper men than ours, the cheapest carrier taking the freight. Our own citizens here find out practically what an unprofitable, but falsely called free trade is. Were it not for our protected coastwise commerce, and the indomitable perseverance of our whaling adventurers, the country would have little to do with navigation of any sort ; and we fear that not until another general war in Europe can the neutral advantages we once enjoyed again restore the supremacy of our merchant marine. If, however, this unprotected interest can, in any way, be benefitted through the means of any commercial treaty, without disparagement to our leading home pursuits, (viz : agriculture, manufactures and internal trade, constituting at least nine-tenths of the exchangeable values in which our national industry and capital are embarked,) we should be glad to have the object secured at once, by the employment of the highest talent in the land.

One thing, at least, should be attempted—the carrying to market of our surplus products from our own ports direct to foreign countries, and not permitting them to be taken, under the plea of a relaxation of the English protective system, through the British colonies at a less duty than is charged per American vessels. Nothing could be more contrary to the spirit of true free trade than this attempt to evade it by a narrow colonial policy. In its tendency, our commerce and our rights are as much disparaged as if England were to invest our shores with her fleets, and blockade every harbor in the country. With this kind of preference for the commerce and navigation of her colonies, which we consider a complete violation of the pretended reciprocal treaty with her, we shall soon see cotton passing *up* the Mississippi to be exported through Canada, and every staple product of the country which England needs, made to pay a higher duty from our own ports than what it would have to pay if imported in British vessels from her colonial possessions. We trust that our citizens and our government will resist promptly this destructive and ignominious attack upon our commercial rights, as artful as it is invidious. If hams, flour, and other provisions are to be taxed with less duty in England, coming through Canada, than if imported direct from New-York, or any other American port, we do not see why the same policy may not be extended to cotton, tobacco, rice, and all our heavy staples. And we venture to predict, that it will be ; thus offering a specious bribe to our western farmers and southern planters, to send their products through the English colonies, rather than by the interdicted route of our own ports. The acceptance of such an advantage from an enemy in time of war, by any state in the Union, would be treason, and would not be tolerated. Why, then, should it be tolerated in times of peace ? It is a species of commercial warfare, equally offensive and destructive in its effects. This consideration, at least, may be worthy of a commercial treaty, the spirit of which should be, “MEASURE FOR MEASURE,” *for the benefit of the whole Union*. If England will not abandon this round-about evasion of the principles of true free trade, let us boldly interdict her navigation from our ports, or confine it, on the principles of her colonial policy, to prescribed limits. We want no great warehousing system in

Canada which would render our own warehouses useless, our harbors deserted, and our commerce a blank. Let us *freely* exchange with her our surplus products, and take from her all we actually want of her manufactures in return ; *but on principles of fair reciprocity*, and not at the expense of our own interests, whether commercial, agricultural, or manufacturing. If her population is redundant, let us welcome her oppressed subjects to our shores, *here* to be fed and clothed as freemen. If her superabundant capital at home is a burden, *here* is ample field for its employment. *Here* may the idle sons of her rich men find relief from their indolence and ennui, and her hard-working farmers and skilful artisans reap a golden harvest for their ingenuity and industry out of the reach of burdens they cannot bear. In this way will her people be truly benefited, and her government find repose.

When we contemplate the happy condition of our own country at this moment, contrasted with the misery which exists in other lands, under the withering influence of false systems of government, we cannot but exult in the life-giving power of our young and thriving republic. Nor can we fail to deplore the fatal effects of those grinding systems of monopoly, and heartless legislation, in older countries, which prevent that mutuality of interest and feeling which should characterize members of the great human family. A sympathy such as should be universal, and which is cordially proffered by the liberal policy of the United States, might soon alleviate the miserable condition of the suffering population of Europe. It is not the repeal of the corn laws alone, in England, nor of the monopolies of tobacco, and other luxuries, in France and elsewhere, nor by the costly maintenance of millions of paupers under privations of the most cruel character, inflicted upon the starving many by the pampered few, that the world is ever to witness the termination of the growing evils which now exist ; evils which, unfortunately, the cessation of wars among nations does not diminish ; but it is by allowing men to go where they can find a living by their labor, and the protection of their natural rights, that the great objects of free trade, in its legitimate sense, are to be accomplished. To carry food three thousand miles to fill the mouths of the starving multitudes, is too costly a sacrifice merely to maintain a commercial or manufacturing monopoly. Ours is the land to furnish this food in abundance ; and the poor, but honest and industrious, citizens of other countries should be permitted or assisted to come here and earn it for themselves. The mountain cannot be made to go to Mahomet, but his deluded worshippers should be invited to come to the mountain, and participate of prosperity which their labors would add to, rather than diminish.

Everything but labor, in this country, is now at a lower value than it has been for many years ; and it is a favorable time, both for the government and those who have lands to settle, as well as to the settler, to commence operations which will increase our *free* population. By the growth and encouragement of this, we shall, as a nation, eventually outgrow evils which were early fastened on us under the colonial policy of England, and which, being sanctioned by a constitutional compact, cannot, we fear, be otherwise got rid of. Monopolies of every sort are odious in this country ; and a monopoly of human labor, where the laborers are divested of the rights and comforts of freemen, is more odious than any other, inasmuch as it competes unfairly with the rates of free labor.

giving to capital an undue influence in our legislation, and reproaches our claim to being a free people. By the encouragement of those industrious foreigners, who come over among us with ample means for settling upon our soil, with the experience of exchanging a state of burdensome vassallage abroad for a free and fertile country here, our government will add to its revenue and reputation; and the cause of free industry, free discussion, and the right of instructing our representatives to listen to our wishes, instead of having them reject our petitions, will be promoted. Free laborers will also be multiplied in those states where labor is now above its *relative value in comparison with other values*. Of most articles, the *money value* is now one-fourth to one-half less than formerly. Labor has not declined in proportion, and if an active state of business continues, it will be higher, probably, instead of lower, *thus forcing up the general scale of values*, and making us less able to compete with producers in other countries. Our own laborers, who are opposed to monopolies of capital or power of any sort in other hands, must not themselves be sticklers for a monopoly of higher wages than is consistent with the maintenance of other values, and the general interest of the whole commonwealth. Their insisting on old rates of wages under the present hard money currency, which reduces the value of the provisions, clothing, luxuries, and necessities, of every sort which they want, would be unreasonable; but when hands are scarce, and high rates are offered by speculators under some new rage for over-building or over-trading, where would the virtue be found among laborers not to take advantage of these circumstances? Our general security lies in maintaining a proper equilibrium. To do this, we need labor in proportion to capital; and all honest, intelligent, or hard-working freemen should be welcome to our shores, to become members of the body politic. We certainly do not want, however, idlers and aliens, who flock here to reap a temporary relief from starving abroad, and who do not incline to be of us, but against us. As a general rule, we should be better off without a host of these foreign traffickers, who have no interest in our institutions, but hesitate not to revile them—those who never mean to become American citizens, and try to unsettle the allegiance of those who are such. But this is an evil which will cure itself. The protective policy is having its due effect in keeping us freer from this annoyance than we were formerly; and as long as we can preserve our home interests clear of a treacherous foreign influence, and the standard of free industry is secured by the tariff against the degrading competition with servile or pauper labor, no fears need be entertained of our permanent success.

The influence of low prices, both of our exports and imports, and of money, the measure of their values, we conceive deserves the consideration of all our citizens, but most especially of the laboring classes, who are still enabled to maintain relatively high rates of wages, and of our farmers and planters, for whose vast products a market must be found at remunerating prices. We are at this time realizing the effect of those happy coincidences when an industrious people, under judicious and adequate protection to their home interests, are enabled to realize the highest triumphs of political economy, to wit: a high rate of returns for labor, and an adequate employment of all their capital, consistent with security and permanency. The attainment of these is clearly owing to the possession of a favorable soil, climate, and superior natural advan-

tages for production ; to our skill in improving these advantages by all the forces of ingenuity and industry ; to our prudential and frugal disposition, the effect of reformed habits, brought about by our recent experience of adversity ; but more than all, perhaps, by the peculiar tendency of low prices to aid the protective influence of the tariff, and to place our products in a successful state of competition with the leading staples of other countries. On this basis of low values and our power of superabundant production, rests the main hope of our future triumph. Nothing, in our view, would be more deplorable than the return to our former inflated state of high values—nothing which would so effectually give encouragement to every species of smuggling, and so certainly nullify the protective aid of the tariff to all our interests—not merely to our home manufactures—but to our planters, to our farmers, our exporters of cotton, provisions—and all that we can raise or make and send to market cheaper than others can. This requires explanation, perhaps. Let us take, then, the cotton growth, that mammoth product of our southern clime and of labor peculiar to the south, of which over two millions of bales have this year been sent to a profitable market in Europe, thus repudiating the Macon doctrine of too much cotton and too little price.

At a *low* rate, we come in direct competition, not only with the growers of cotton in Egypt, Brazils, India and elsewhere, but with the producers of other staples which compete with cotton, viz : flax, hemp, wool, worsted, raw silk, &c., for the making of clothes, hats, gloves, hosiery, furniture stuffs, sails, and other fabrics. Of these staples, there is at present an immense consumption, but which, at the present low price of cotton, is daily diminishing, and will soon be inconsiderable. There is no possibility of producing them, even in those countries where labor is already down to almost starving rates, so as to prevent cotton being substituted for them, provided we go on to produce it abundantly at a low price. Here, then, lies the secret of making one source of our commercial independence permanent, and of securing a foreign market for our chief staple of export, whether we are able to take pay for it in goods or not. Its immense use, and indispensable demand for the employment of foreign capital and labor-saving machines, by the constantly increasing manufacturing classes, are certain to command a supply of it, even for specie returns.

The elements of our prosperity are now so clearly developed under the propitious effects of the existing tariff, that your committee does not, in conclusion, deem it important to point out any particular course of future proceedings, except to recommend the continuance of our associations in their several auxiliary relations throughout the country, for the purpose of acting on the defensive, should any attempt be made to unsettle the present protective policy. The growing popularity of this policy among the agricultural and planting states, is truly encouraging ; and were it not for the political intrigues which are continually interfering with our best interests, for selfish or party supremacy, we might have little cause for apprehension. But whilst these continue, we must vigilantly and unitedly strive to counteract them. At no former period was the general prosperity of our country so promising as it now is, nor its leading interest, *productive labor*, on so solid a foundation. Abundant products of industry at low values, an ample supply of specie, an equilibrium of exchanges so remarkable that the productions of the various sections of the country, amounting to more than two thousand millions of dollars, so nearly balance

each other, that monetary facilities are hardly called for ; a people out of debt to their government after having paid off all their credit bonds to the extent of many millions, and still carrying on a prosperous import trade, furnishing cash duties enough for an economical administration of its affairs, are certainly encouraging circumstances to make us proud of our advantages ; and, although our national character is impeached and justly reproached for the bad faith of some of the states, who, after having borrowed largely of foreigners on the credit of their confederates, are willing to let them share in the disgrace of their own delinquency, still there is a conservative tendency in the Union to repair this evil ; and with a country boundless in resources, progressive in improvements, and proud of its free institutions, we shall soon see our national debt extinguished and every state in the Union assuming its accustomed independence. With a wise and liberal government, permanently protective in its policy, and aided by an effective home department to look after and defend all our home interests, and a people co-operating in the promotion of a true reciprocal free trade, we shall not be ashamed of having taken the title of a "free, sovereign, and independent people." The successful experiment of popular institutions, exhibiting advantages that no other nation can boast of, ought to make us grateful and contented. In this feeling the members of this association have a right to participate deeply ; and having faithfully labored to advance the highest interests of the country at a time of general despondency, they may now be permitted to exult in their prosperity.

C. C. H.

ART. V.—WHAT SHALL CONGRESS DO ?

REDUCTION OF POSTAGE—COMMERCIAL TREATIES—THE NAVY, ETC.

It will be difficult to find a more decided contrast than that between the first and the last half of the present presidential term. At the opening of the first period, both president, senate, and house, were whig ; flushed with the recollection of a great popular victory, and encouraged by the prospect of still greater congressional triumphs. At present, while the senate is whig, and the house democratic, the president is at the head of a hermaphrodite faction, which unites the features of both parties without possessing the energies of either. With the late Congress, the danger was, that any measure which might be slung forward by the popular wave, should, through the absence of all opposition, be carried on by the swell till it reached the opposite shore. With the present Congress, no such danger exists. The sub-treasury bill will never get through the senate ; a national bank will be stopped in the house ; and unless both house and senate shut their eyes and open their mouth to receive whatever Mr. Tyler drops into it, the exchequer will never invite the constitutional fact of his signature. Congress will meet, will debate, and will adjourn ; but unless an emergency shall occur which shall alter or obliterate party land-marks, the adjustment of the cardinal points of political controversy will be postponed to a period when the co-ordinate branches of the government shall once more harmonize.

It will be a subject of congratulation for the people at large, if the journal of the debates of the next Congress does not exceed the register of its enactments. The great, perhaps the only lesson inculcated by the late Congress, however, leads us to expect a different result. We have been taught, by brawls without number, and harangues without end, that the less business there is to be done, the more trouble there is in doing it. A spirit of quibbling and quarreling has gained ground of late years in the capitol, which ascribes its origin to the corruption of party machinery, and proclaims its result in the destruction of parliamentary decorum. By the introduction of the system of ward committees and of party conventions, the old electoral franchise has been changed. The majority of the members of the lower house attribute their election, not to the voluntary choice of the people, embracing within its limits each of the various interests which possess the country ; but to a self-constituted caucus which represents but one interest, and that the basest of all. Political adventurers, office-seekers or office-keepers, tavern politicians, form, in fact, the constituents of a great part of the lower house ; and when such a tribunal is allowed to establish, in the heart of the country, an authority so potent, we need not wonder that it should lend its character to its ambassadors at the capitol. The ward committee, or the county committee, or the district committee, will be careful to select for office such men as will attend to the greatest good of the greatest number of those to whom they owe their election. Such committees, also composed of men who are generally better skilled in huckstering or prize-fighting than in legislation, will be awake to but few qualifications but those which come within the sphere of their own ambition. Whenever we are told of a man being sent either to the national or state legislatures, because he deserves well of his party, we may so conclude that his true title to distinction is either the adroitness with which he has tampered with, or the impudence with which he has bullied, that portion of the community which can either be corrupted or dragooned.

Disreputable as were the proceedings of the late Congress, the proceedings of the next will be still more so, unless the disapproval of the community be brought home to the promoters and abettors of congressional brawls. It is to be feared, that unless the voice of reproof be distinctly heard, the stress of circumstances—among which may be reckoned the diversity of opinion which will prevail at the capitol, and the confusion which will follow the retirement of those great parliamentary leaders who, in some measure, controlled the unruly elements about them—will assist in fomenting the uproar of the next campaign. Let unnecessary strifes be avoided, and if it be found that no bank bill can be passed, or that no modification of the tariff will be suffered, let the attention of Congress be turned from the agitation of subjects which it will be impossible to adjust, to the settlement of the less engrossing, though not less important points of business legislation. Such a restriction will not only remove from the field of action those topics of political excitement which, like the red flag of the Spanish-bull fights, serve only to engage the combatants, but will enable the legislature to enjoy that moral gratification which time well spent must create. It is the object of the present paper, to suggest a few points to which the attention of the business part of the community is directed, and to which the labors of Congress at the next session may be invited, with the belief that, in their discussion, brawls may be avoided, and that, by their adjustment, good will be produced.

I. THE POST OFFICE.

At the late session, the house of representatives passed a bill effecting a small reduction of postage, which was rejected by the senate, and which, had it been passed, would have been rejected by the country. The whole system of postages at present is bad, and any change that does not go to the root of the matter, may mitigate, but cannot remove the evil. If we start with the position that uniform reduction to five cents a letter, no matter what may be the distance, would not only increase the revenue, but would elevate almost incalculably the moral and intellectual standard of the country, a position which will presently be made good, we will be justified in treating as illusory the diminution proposed at the last session, of two cents in a hundred miles, and of four cents in two hundred. There is a story told, in one of the old Scotch histories, of a kirk where but one tune was sung, and that of so awkward a character as to defy the attempts at imitation which the stranger might make. The laird of the country having announced his intention of paying a visit to the neighborhood, efforts were made to get up a tune which would do more credit to the congregation. When the singing commenced, however, the laird found that the psalm was his old acquaintance, only pitched a key lower. The reduction of postage at the last session seems based on a similar principle. The tune was the same, though the key was lower. An entire remodeling of the system was called for; but instead of a reduction being effected of a character sufficiently decided to benefit both the revenue and the community, the Spanish currency was changed into the decimal, twelve and a half cents were made to give way to ten, and a measure was proposed, which, had it gone into operation, would have given us the evils of both systems without the benefits of either. The reduction of the postage rates, we maintain, to a uniform tax of five cents on the single letter, no matter how great may be the distance, will not only increase the revenue of the department, but will give a vast stimulus to the country in its moral and intellectual relations.

First, as to the revenue of the department.

The number of letters passing through the London general post-office in 1839, during which period, with the exception of four weeks, the old rates were in operation, was—

Unpaid letters,.....	17,662,437
Paid "	3,425,455
Total,.....	21,087,892

In 1840 and 1841, under the new uniform system of a penny per half ounce, the numbers were—

Year.	Unpaid.	Paid.	Stamped.	Total.
1840,.....	7,287,627	29,668,134	11,099,650	48,045,411
1841,.....	5,662,060	29,960,452	32,196,367	67,818,379

The increase per cent, from 1839 to 1840, was.....	127.88
" " " " 1841, "	221.60

REVENUE OF THE BRITISH POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, FROM 1801 TO 1842.

Year.	£	Year.	£	Year.	£
1801,.....	911,875	1806,.....	1,185,659	1811,.....	1,344,109
1802,.....	757,859	1807,.....	1,167,425	1812,.....	1,422,001
1803,.....	956,212	1808,.....	1,173,062	1813,.....	1,506,064
1804,.....	983,363	1809,.....	1,260,822	1814,.....	1,598,295
1805,.....	1,119,429	1810,.....	1,365,251	1815,.....	1,619,196

REVENUE OF THE BRITISH POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, etc.—Continued.

Year.	£	Year.	£	Year.	£
1816,.....	1,537,505	1825,.....	1,632,267	1834,.....	1,513,052
1817,.....	1,433,871	1826,.....	1,589,762	1835,.....	1,564,457
1818,.....	1,467,533	1827,.....	1,484,164	1836,.....	1,645,835
1819,.....	1,523,240	1828,.....	1,544,224	1837,.....	1,658,481
1820,.....	1,465,605	1829,.....	1,539,347	1838,.....	1,576,522
1821,.....	1,333,465	1830,.....	1,517,951	1839,.....	1,649,088
1822,.....	1,428,352	1831,.....	1,569,038	1840,.....	1,633,704
1823,.....	1,475,167	1832,.....	1,531,828	1841,.....	465,927
1824,.....	1,540,022	1833,.....	1,553,425	1842,.....	645,540

Why is it, it will be asked, that, from 1815 to 1840, with a population whose literary facilities have been on a vast and constant increase, the post-office revenue has remained stationary? The answer is, that the government, instead of lightening the tax as the tendency to correspondence developed itself, increased it, and diminished the number of letters passing through the office at the same rates as it augmented the premium which they were singly to pay. But observe, that though in the first year after the penny system went into operation, there was a reduction of 70 per cent in the gross revenue received, yet still, in the first place, when the official tables are examined, which we are not at present able to do, it will be found that the deficit takes place almost entirely in the revenue accruing from the foreign postage department, where the high rates are still preserved; and in the second place, that the quarterly aggregate increase, down to the present moment, is such as to promise, in 1845, an excess over the greatest former revenue. In one year after the taxes were let down, there was an increase of three hundred per cent on the amount of correspondence, and without doubt, in five years more, there will be a corresponding increase in the amount of revenue.

But where is the increase to come from? It may be safely answered, 1st, from the increased amount of correspondence; and 2dly, from the suppression of letter-smuggling. Remember, in the first place, that the domestic relations among the poorer classes are just as complicated as among the rich, perhaps more so, and that, with a few exceptions, one section is about as capable as the other of putting down on paper the usual topics of family interest; and yet remember that the shilling, or the quarter of a dollar, which the rich man does not notice, forms a passable portion of the poor man's wages. Go to the post master of one of our manufacturing or mining towns, and ask him whether the manufacturers or miners within his district appear often at his window. He will tell you that letters, decently superscribed, are sometimes brought, and that there is scarcely a man in the neighborhood who does not appear with his own little load once or twice in a season. With how much difficulty, however, the tax is borne, is shown from the fact that the return letters sometimes rest weeks before the postage is removed. The actuary of a savings' institution, which could point to depositors from one end of the land to the another, stated lately that the exorbitant rates of postage prevented his sending the annual statement of the institution to nearly a thousand of those interested in it, for the reason that he knew the burden would be onerous. Remove the load, and it is but fair to say, that at an uniform rate of five cents, an increase of one hundred per cent will be experienced. In the second place, there will be an increase equally great from the suppression of letter-smuggling.

Lord Brougham, in a recent visit to the north of Scotland, sent a pair of tartan trousers through the post-office the whole distance between Inverness and Edinburgh ; and it was lately stated, on high authority, that a member from one of our western states regularly sent his linen home, during the last session, to be washed, under the title of "public documents." The other day a mammoth newspaper was detected, the inside of which had been scooped out, and which concealed, within the hollow thus created, eight or ten letters, which had been conveyed from one end of the Union to the other for a single penny. It is said, and with how great truth most of the readers of this paper can testify, that a considerable correspondence is carried on between different sections by means of newspapers, the printed letters of which are marked in such a way as to enable the reader to spell out the communication intended to be conveyed. Not long ago a weekly paper was shown to us, in which quite a series of items of domestic interest were thus indicated. A Kentucky post-master complained, a short time since, that the people in that neighborhood wrote hieroglyphics on the covers of newspapers sent by mail ; and it is an actual fact, that firms of respectability communicate to each other by means not less clandestine. Thus, the date on which goods have been sent is designated, in an instance lately brought to light, by the following table :—

Mr. Smith,.....	Monday.	J. Smith, Esq.,.....	Thursday.
Mr. John Smith,.....	Tuesday.	John Smith, Esq.,.....	Friday.
Mr. J. Smith,.....	Wednesday.	— Smith, Esq.,.....	Saturday.

The despatch of goods is communicated by annexing the business title of the consignee ; that is, goods sent on Wednesday, the newspaper is directed to Mr. J. Smith, grocer, &c.

The receipt of goods is intimated by the omission of the trade ; that is, goods received on Friday, the address is, John Smith, Esq., 1 Market-street.

The changes of the market are thus rung :—

Tea-dealer alone,.....	Prices of teas rising.
Grocer,.....	" falling.
Grocer and tea-dealer,.....	Sugars rising.
Grocer, tea-dealer, &c.,.....	" falling.
Grocer, &c.,.....	Prices stationary.

By a combination, very easy of construction, the dates and events are brought into connection ; as, for instance, should sugars rise on Monday, the address is, Mr. Smith, grocer and tea-dealer, 1 Market-street, Philadelphia. Do you say that such a scheme is rarely practised ? We answer, that though the precise combination we have just exhibited may have been used but in one instance only, yet there are others, equally significant and equally safe, which are in constant use. Red, and blue, and black ink, combining with wafers of all imaginable colors, contrasted with paper of various shades, designate as effectually the leading idea to be presented, as the flag of a ship at sea does its country. A system of smuggling is thus established in the face of the post-master, making use of post-office machinery for its operations, and smuggling in utter freedom from detection.

But it is not by such devices alone, ingenious as they are, that the force of the post-office is broken. Very considerable, it is true, are the losses which are thus sustained ; but far more so are those which arise from

the depredations of private appointments and public expresses. A clergyman of New Haven, than whom no one can possess a more accurate knowledge of the district which is covered by his labors, has intimated that more than one-half the letters which pass between New Haven and Hartford, are carried outside of the mail. If the fact be good in a more extended sphere, it will be seen how great are the losses which the high rates of postage provoke. Is it not true, we would ask, that so heavy has the tax been felt in one of our greatest manufacturing towns, that, periodically, mail bags, if they can be called so, are opened in connection with some of the larger manufactories, in which the workmen are invited to deposit letters to their friends, if they have any in an adjacent large city, which are conveyed by the proprietor free of expense ? The burden on him is but small, as he can transport the aggregate bundle at a trifling premium to its destination ; and he is aware that nothing can conduce more amply to the preservation of a healthy atmosphere among the young people under his charge, than the opportunity of free communication with their parents and friends. But does not such a fact exhibit, in a lamentable light, the inconsistencies of a government, which, while it depends wholly for its stability upon the intelligence and good feeling of the people, and professes to do all it can to educate and elevate them, interposes an effectual clog on the action of those domestic relations on which the happiness and good order of the community depends ? With our treasury encumbered with debt, with our credit languishing in dishonor, we should think that any honorable expedient for increasing our income, would commend itself to our attention ; but here, on the post-office department, thirty years have gone by, in which through the bad economy of heavy rates, the revenue has fallen within the corresponding expenditures. And what an important portion of our history do those thirty years cover ! In that time we have nearly trebled our population, and we have marched forward in still greater haste on the scale of mere intellectual cultivation. Within that period the common schools have sprung up. Within that period the press has acquired a prodigious force ; operating, not as it used to do, solely within the narrow sphere of its immediate neighborhood, but, through the facilities afforded to newspaper transmission, over a tract of country occupying half a continent. Can you go into a house, no matter how remote, without seeing there the printed evidence that not only do its inmates read, but that they receive, periodically, the intelligence of Mr. O'Connell's agitation, of the opening of the Chinese seals, and of the alternate successes of parties over the face of our own mottled country ? Within that same period of thirty years, also, bible and tract societies have gone into operation, and have succeeded in extending, in the more populous sections of the country at least, a bible and a few tracts to each household. Political discussions have swept on over the horizon, as swift and quick as summer clouds ; questions of deep religious interest have been discussed fully and warmly by the public prints ; there has been a free circulation of thought on the general and outward circumstances of the republic ; and yet the amount of letters passed through the mail is stationary. Does not such a fact tell badly for the country ? Is it not a bad sign, that matters of domestic interest, of social concern, should be thus neglected ? Can we resist the conclusion, that, when we allow margin for the great necessary increase of commercial correspondence, the ratio of family letter-writing to the community

is one-third less now than it used to be? God grant that the feelings which prompt an interchange of thought and affection between members of a scattered family, and between friends once parted, may not wither away completely. It is our misfortune, that when families once break asunder, they forget their old relations, and that, through the enterprising and energetic spirit of the age, as soon as a young man can shoulder his axe, or comprehend his arithmetic, he flings to the winds the ties which bound him to his home. But is this wise? Is it wise that ligatures, which are the sinews of the republic, should be thus snapped? Intelligence, we do not want; accuteness, we do not want; that quick and accurate perception of things worldly, which arises from a constant acquaintance with what is going on from Greenland to the Cape of Good Hope, we do not want; energy enough to make a bold bargain, and dexterity enough to avoid its penalties, we do not want; but what we do want is, that simple fundamental regard for the laws of honesty and the impulses of good feeling which shudders at injustice, not because it is punishable, but because it is wrong. The young man hurled, before his beard is grown, into the western whirlpool, or sent to work along those great state improvements on whose lips the evil humours of the state break out and fester; or the young woman, transferred from a farm-house home, to the wily little world of a manufactory,—do not these require the sanctions and restraints which arise from a free intercourse with the householders they have left? A leading manufacturer has lately declared, that more than a hundred young girls at work under his charge were prevented from corresponding with their parents, except at rare intervals, by the exorbitant post-rates. Can this conduce to the morality, to the order, to the happiness of a class, which, when we look into it, and observe that it comprehends more than half of the younger portion of the working classes, demands the best offices of government? No one who has felt how solemnly and how weightily a letter from a father or a mother acts upon the mind of a young man, when removed from the shelter of home; what a mighty barrier it opposes to those subtle temptations which then crowd forward; with what almost supernatural influence counsels thus imparted drop upon the heart, when inflamed by passion or agitated by doubt—can deny that in destroying the power of home upon the character, we are destroying the power which, next to that of the gospel, is most necessary both to the safety of the citizen and the well-being of the republic. And yet not only is it destroyed, as far as it well can be, by the hand of government, but contrary and inimical influences are let in to occupy its station and usurp its power.* Say not that it is a question of dollars and cents,—if it was, we have shown that change should be expedient,—but rest it not on the mere diminution or increase of revenue. It is not in dollars and cents that the merits of the question repose. The safety of the country asks for a change; not a mere nominal reduction, but a change which will call into action, once again, the elements of these domestic sanctions on which our welfare depends.

* We are at a loss, also, to discover the justice of a system by which newspapers, large enough to paper a moderate-sized room, are rated at 1½ cents over 100 miles, while periodicals, composed certainly of more substantial, and generally of more useful material, are charged 2½ cents for the same distance, for every sixteen octavo pages; the whole sixteen being in size about one-half that of the ordinary sixpenny papers.

We have pressed one consideration alone at present, not because it is the only one to be brought forward, but because it is the most general and obvious. That the mercantile interests demand a reduction to the five cent rates is well known; and it is almost equally well ascertained, that if that reduction be made, the amount of letters, as far as those interests are concerned, will be trebled. A member of a leading London house, engaged in the importation of Mediterranean fruits, lately stated, that notwithstanding the great monetary reverses, the business of his firm had doubled, from the fact that orders from petty country dealers, which had previously been pent up by the old rates, had come flocking in by the hundreds as soon as the door was opened. We trust that Congress will enter fully into the investigation; and if that task be performed, we are conscious that the same result will ensue which followed in the British house of commons that the uniform minimum rates will be adopted.

II. COMMERCIAL TREATIES.

Another great object to which the attention of Congress can safely be directed, is the establishment of a commission for the consideration, in conjunction with Great Britain, of a commercial treaty. The present tariff will remain untouched. The conflicting relations of Congress will prevent its amendment; and if such were not the case, the expediency of present alterations is doubtful. We do not mean to vex again the old question of the domestic system. Our increasing debt, and our shattered credit, require a revenue which will leave margin enough for the most timid protectionist, as well as the most adventurous free trader. One thing is clear, and that thing is, that the revenue necessary for our present emergency is ample enough to justify duties sufficient to protect whatever deserves protection. Articles which cannot be raised in this country at less than 60 per cent beyond the foreign value, must, it will be admitted on all sides, be dismissed as unworthy the trouble of manufacture; and all other articles will be sufficiently protected by duties framed in such a way as to afford the maximum of revenue. Let the country enjoy rest for two years at least, and do not throw the manufacturing and consuming interests once more at sea by unavailing efforts to shake a tariff, which, bad as it is considered by some, is not so bad in its results as that species of pendulum legislation which occupies itself in swinging from one end to the other of the political cycloid. But, though it is clear that the complexion of both houses will prevent a new tariff from passing, is it equally clear that a commission could not be instituted to enter into negotiations with Great Britain on the subject of a commercial treaty? The objection usually made, that by such a procedure we take the tariff out of the hands of Congress and put it into those of the executive, is unfounded, inasmuch as such a treaty, before it could be acknowledged, would require a vote of two-thirds of the senate, and, before it could go into effect, would require the appropriations of the house. Such a commission, from the very idea of its constitution, would tend rather to allay than to excite the sensibilities of the manufacturing community. If we are constantly liable to have a tariff sprung upon us, no matter how unexpectedly, capitalists will be led to withdraw their money from protected investments for fear duties may be lowered, and speculators to enter into such as are unprotected in hopes they may be heightened. No matter how ponderous the tax may be, the manufacturer will be afraid to manufacture lest the rates may be let

down; no matter how low they are, the merchant will be afraid to import, lest they may be increased. As the tide ebbs or flows, the one interest will be in danger of being left high and dry, and the other of being swept out to sea. But the appointment of commissioners for the negotiation of a commercial treaty can give no such shock. One year, at least, must elapse between the inception of the work and its completion, so far, at least, as the commissioners are concerned; and after a treaty is framed, it will be subject to the approval or disapproval of both executive, senate, and house, under circumstances which will bring it fairly before the country. Whatever change may be made, will be made after due notice to all concerned; and when the change is made, it will be the earnest of rest for a few years at least, and not of future perpetual agitation.

But do our commercial relations with Great Britain require revision? Certainly they do; and one great cause of the fluctuations of our markets for the last few years rests with the clumsiness, the want of reciprocity, in our respective tariffs. We are constantly jarring against each other. Instead of tooth fitting into tooth as the wheels move round, the whole machinery is kept in a jump from the irregularity of the corresponding functions. A naked American, with two bushels of corn on his head, meets a starving Englishman with two coats on his back, and just as they are about to effect an exchange, by which the American can be clothed and the Englishman fed, without loss to either, up starts the Secretary of the Treasury and stops the bargain. It is hard to believe that, when the two nations come together calmly to consider the absurdity of thus vexing themselves under pretence of vexing each other, they will not take measures for their mutual benefit. Take, for instance, the common illustrations of Indian corn and tobacco. Nothing would be more ludicrous than for England to attempt to raise the latter staple, or more troublesome than to raise the former; and yet so great are the duties on the one as to make the revenue very inconsiderable, and so complete are the prohibitions on the other, as to put an end to its introduction altogether. Why should not Indian corn be admitted through the English custom-house? It could not interfere with the British farmer, because there is no farm on the island that raises a bushel of it. But how important it would be for the United States that such a staple should be admitted into the intercourse between the two countries! In 1840 we produced 377,531,871 bushels of Indian corn, and but 85,000,000 of wheat. How much more we could raise, no one could tell, as at present we have more than enough for every imaginable domestic purpose. That, in a year's notice, we could produce enough to make up the present balance against us, who can doubt; and by so doing we will not only be able to pay cheaply for English goods, but the most important of our interests, that of agriculture, will receive a protection more efficient than that of a thousand tariffs. And would not such a change be important for Great Britain also? Look at her hives of laborers, starving, not from indolence, but from the actual insufficiency of provision. Is it impossible to doubt but that Indian meal, freely introduced, would not only relieve a vast amount of misery, but would encourage the drooping manufactures of the realm far more completely than all the prohibitions that could be imagined piled on one another?

We have advanced a single illustration, and further than that, at present,

we cannot go. The great objection, at present, to a modification of the tariff, is, that however fair the principles of free trade may be, could they be universally adopted, it is nonsense for one nation alone to attempt to carry them into practice. Without admitting the force of such a position, it is worthy of remark, that by the mutual and simultaneous amelioration effected by a commercial treaty, the danger is removed. Great changes, it is true, cannot be made by a process so cautious, so slow; but benefits, distinct and definable, will ensue, which it will be folly to neglect. We trust, therefore, that the propriety of instituting such a commission will provoke grave attention, and that, if possible, in its consideration, party war cries will be forgotten, and party fetters thrown aside.

III. THE NAVY.

The last point we propose to notice, concerns the navy; and were it not for the absurd attacks which every session introduces upon what is the most defenceless and least objectionable object of public expenditure, we should not open again subjects which have already been fully discussed in these pages. But the cry of retrenchment, both of ships and of officers, has so often been heard, that it might eventually, by its clamor alone, be able to convince the public that moral sentiment is more efficacious a defence to our commerce against the snares of the civilized world and the violence of the savage, than a ship of the line; and that a shop-keeper or a backwoodsman is better adapted, both for sailing and fighting, than a man who has been brought up in the service. Certainly, if declamation without limit, if shouting out the word economy at every imaginary pitch, is sufficient to prove to the mercantile interests that they can protect themselves by the mere respectability and value of their cargoes against piracy and insults, the work is already performed. But to a cautious mind,—to one who feels that there are millions of property at stake on the high seas, as well as the honor and credit of the country,—something more than the appropriation debates of the late session, stained as they are with fighting and huckstering, is necessary to maintain the position that the navy should be emasculated. Have we too few ships? Only the other day, owing to the want of an adequate force on the African coast, an American merchantman, temporarily wrecked, was broken up, and her crew massacred. Where is the evidence of strength enough on the Asiatic seas to enforce the respect of nations who can only be held back from plunder by naked force? Are we not, at this very moment, engaged in silly attempts to vex the Oregon question with but one man-of-war on that great coast to protect, not the mere territory alone, but the shipping that hugs it? The only points where we are sufficiently manned, are the ports whose docks have been cumbered, through the inefficiency of Congress, with half-built vessels.

The objections towards a decent compensation to those engaged in the service, are equally futile. Young men of spirit, and energy, and education, will not enter a profession where they will be starved; and even could that objection be surmounted, and glory be accepted as meat and drink, the privation and humiliation to be undergone would soon drive away those in whose breast there still remained an aversion to dirt and degradation. If lately, through the utter stoppage of the channels of promotion, the tone of the service has been lowered, the fault rests not

with the department, for there, at least, during the last few years, energy most honorable, both to the country and the secretary, has been displayed. The fault rests with Congress, and by Congress alone can it be met and remedied.

We have thus touched upon three points to which it is probable the attention of Congress will be turned. There is, generally speaking, much more danger of over-legislation than under-legislation; and though the hostile creeds of the two houses renders it probable that the danger of the former evil is not now imminent, still, no matter how little may be done, the country will be well satisfied, provided that that little be done in decency and order. There is still room to trust that such will be the case. If Mr. Adams would refrain, not from pressing the right of petition, for it is well that a right so cardinal should be defined and established, but from pressing it with those weapons of invective and sarcasm which no man can use so bitterly and so surely,—or if members from the south would recollect that generosity is the better part of chivalry,—then would the evil omens of the soothsayers be brought to nought. But if such be not the case,—if the law makers combine the law breakers,—if the journals of Congress continue blurred with brawls and blotted with blood, farewell to the hopes of this young and great republic. The affections of the better part of the community will become alienated from bodies whose proceedings evince so total a disregard of personal honor and national interest; and when once the legislation loses the respect of the people, there may be found no medium between a relapse into anarchy and a return to despotism.

ART. VI.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER III.

COLLISION OF SHIPS.

WHENEVER one vessel does damage to another within the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, the offending vessel becomes hypothecated to the vessel and cargo sustaining the injury, to repair the damages occasioned by the collision. The injured persons have a lien or privilege upon the guilty property by the general maritime law of all nations, to the extent of the injury sustained; and they may pursue and enforce their remedy in the courts of admiralty jurisdiction, by attachment, condemnation, and sale, to pay damages and costs.

In the discussion of this subject, we apply the term *collision* to all cases of vessels running foul, though the terms *allision* and *collision* are not exactly synonymous. The term *allision* applies to the act of one vessel striking against another; and the term *collision*, to the act of two vessels striking together. But the inquiry upon a claim for damages, in such cases, is not so much whether either ship be active or passive, as whether the act was occasioned by accident, or by the negligence or the design of one or both of them.

Sir William Scott, in pronouncing judgment in the case of the *Woodrop Sims*,* says there are four possibilities under which a collision may occur:—

* 2 Dodson's Admiralty Rep., 85.

First. It may happen without blame being imputable to either party : as where the loss is occasioned by a storm, or any other *vis major*. In that case, the misfortune must be borne by the party on whom it happens to light, the other not being responsible to him in any degree.

Second. A misfortune of this kind may arise where both parties are to blame—where there has been a want of due diligence or of skill on both sides. In such a case, the rule of law is, that the loss must be apportioned between them, as having been occasioned by the fault of both of them.

Third. It may happen by the misconduct of the suffering party only, and then the rule is, that the sufferer must bear his own burthen.

Fourth. It may have been the fault of the ship which ran the other down, and in this case, the injured party would be entitled to an entire compensation from the other.

There is often great difficulty in determining the facts of each particular case, arising sometimes from the darkness of the night, or the danger and violence of a storm, or the confusion of the moment, and from a want of observation ; and frequently, from the strong and almost overpowering motives of interest, personal vanity, party feeling, and strong bias of witnesses. The master and crew of each vessel are generally the only witnesses in the case, and, from necessity,* they are often used as witnesses in a court which tries the controversy ; although the witnesses may stand in a situation of direct interest in the cause, and the result of it. Each side often represent the transaction most favorably to themselves, and endeavour to throw all the blame upon their opponents ; this renders the whole investigation the most perplexing and unsatisfactory which can be brought into a court of justice. Care, attention, vigilance and philosophical knowledge is required of counsel who conduct such proceedings ; and a person practically acquainted with navigation, has a decided advantage over an opponent who is deficient in that branch of knowledge. The court, too, frequently has to decide upon great diversity of statement as to the courses the vessels were steering, or the quarter from which the wind was blowing at the time when the accident occurred ; besides the doctrine of *currents* of the water, the force of the winds, the size, model, and trim of the vessels, the weight of their cargoes on board, the manner their sails are set, together with many other nautical matters, are ingredients out of which the court are to form and pronounce its decree. The court of admiralty possess equitable powers, to adjust and litigate the interests of suitors when before them. But suits for collision may be prosecuted at common law, by an action against the masters and owners of the vessel doing the damage, and then the cause is to be tried before a jury. In such cases, it frequently happens that the jury which decides the facts of the case by their verdict do not possess sufficient nautical knowledge to judge of the propriety or impropriety of the things done or omitted on the part of one party or the other. The court of admiralty generally proceeds directly against the property offending by an arrest, and the vessel and cargo are liable to be condemned and sold to pay the damages and costs of the injured party, and this as well in case of domestic as of foreign vessels. The lien or privilege in both cases is the same, and may be enforced by suit in *rem* in admiralty, which is the preferable method of proceeding, especially when the owners are absent, or the master is irresponsible in his pecuniary ability.

* 2 Haggard's Rep., 145. Catharine, of Dover.

In cases of *collision*, it is often the practice in the British court of admiralty in London, to call in to the assistance of the judge, who tries the cause, one or more experienced navigators of the association of *Trinity House*. These persons are called *Trinity-masters*, who, after hearing the evidence given in the cause, and the arguments of the advocates for the respective parties, are called upon to express their opinion upon the merits of the case; and as they pronounce their opinion, the judge generally renders his sentence of condemnation or acquittal. The courts in the United States have the aid of experienced ship-masters and navigators, who are sworn as witnesses in the case; and their opinions, very justly, have their weight and influence with the court in making up its decree.

Damage in cases of *collision* of ships, or in running foul, may be reduced to three classes:—

First. By design.

Second. By negligence.

Third. By accident, and this is called a peril of the sea. All known maritime laws compel the wrong-doer to make reparation in the two first cases. There are certain rules of navigation which have been adopted by the courts of different nations as positive law, to govern cases litigated before them:—

First. The vessel that has the wind free, must get out of the way of the vessel that is close hauled.

Second. The vessel on the starboard tack has a right to keep her wind, and the vessel on the larboard tack is bound to bear up or heave about, to avoid danger, or be answerable for the consequences.

Third. The vessel to the windward is to keep away when both vessels are going the same course in a narrow channel, and there is danger of running foul of each other.

Fourth. A steamboat is generally deemed as always sailing with a free and fair wind, and therefore is bound to do whatever a common vessel going free or with a fair wind, would, under similar circumstances, be required to do in relation to any other vessels which it meets in the course of its navigation. Steamboats receive their impetus from steam, and not from sails, and are capable of being kept under better command, and ought always to give way in favor of vessels using sails only,* all other circumstances being equal.

Fifth. The master of a vessel, entering a port or river where other vessels are lying at anchor, is bound to make use of all proper checks to stop the headway of his vessel, in order to prevent accidents; and if, from want of such precautions, a loss ensue, he and his owners are responsible.

Sixth. So it is held, that if two vessels, or ships of unequal size, are in the same stream, the less must give way to the greater.

Seventh. So a ship clearing out of a harbor must make way for another vessel that enters.

Eighth. Where two ships are clearing out of a harbor, the hindmost ship must have care to the one putting out before her.† The question in all cases of collision is, whether proper measures of precaution are taken by the vessel which has unfortunately run down the other. This is a

* Story on Bailments, p. 386.

† Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 338. 3d Kent's Com., 230.

question partly of nautical usage, and partly of nautical skill. If all the usual and customary precautions are taken, then it is treated as an accident, and the vessel is exonerated; if otherwise, then the offending vessel and its owners are deemed responsible. Indeed, all rules are held subordinate to the rule prescribed by common sense; which is, that every vessel shall keep clear of every other vessel, when she has the power to do so, notwithstanding such other vessel may have taken a course not conformable to established usages. A case can scarcely be imagined in which it would be justifiable to persist in a course after it had become evident that *collision* would ensue, if, by changing such course without injury, the collision could be avoided; and where vessels are sailing on the wind and approaching each other, and the vessel is so far to windward on the larboard tack, that if both keep their course, the other will strike her on the lee side abaft the beam or near the stern, in such a case the vessel on the starboard tack, contrary to the rule laid down above in the second division of this subject, must give way, because she can do it with greater facility and less loss of time and distance than the other.* And in case of a collision tried before the honorable Sir William Scott, judge of the court of admiralty in England, it appeared that a fishing-smack, called the *John and Mary*, had been run down by the sloop *Thames* off the port of Great Yarmouth, steering about north-northeast and hauled close to the wind, with a fresh breeze from the northwest-by north; and the sloop the *Thames* was sailing at that time to the *southward*, with the wind free, and drove against the fishing-smack, and struck her with such violence on her starboard bow that she soon after sunk, and was totally lost, with her cargo and fishing apparatus on board.

A Trinity-master was called in to assist the learned judge in the hearing of this cause, and he gave it as his opinion that, upon the testimony, it appeared that the *Thames* wanted to obtain information from the fishing-smack, and to take in some herrings from her. He said that the *Thames* did not act in a seaman-like manner for this purpose; that in attempting this object it doth not appear that the *Thames* ever altered sail, but ran down upon the fishing vessel. He said the *Thames* should have put about, by which means all danger would have been avoided. That it appeared to him, that the loss had been occasioned by the bold manœuvre of the *Thames* in attempting to run all at once along side of the fishing-smack, which did not appear to have altered her course. That the particular manner in which the blow was stated to have been received, on the starboard bow of the smack from the larboard bow of the *Thames*, could not have happened whilst the vessel was passing, unless owing to the improper course and directions in which the *Thames* was steered.

That it appeared to him that the accident was owing to the unseaman-like manner in which the *Thames* was navigated.

The court, in this case, after Captain Hubdart, the Trinity-master, had given in his opinion, proceeded to pronounce a decree against the owner of the *Thames*, for full damages sustained by the libellant, and for his costs. The pleadings in this case showed a great diversity of statements, and facts were contradictory from the witnesses.

Whenever two ships run foul of each other, or one vessel runs against another, the following matters are to be taken into consideration:—

* Story on Bailments, p. 365. Steamboat Portland.

First. What wind was there at the time operating upon the vessels, or either of them ?

Second. Upon what tack the one vessel was, before it came in collision with the other ?

Third. What part of the one ship struck upon the other, and what sail was set upon both ships at the time of the collision ?

Fourth. What means had the masters of both vessels, or the ships' company, taken to prevent the collision ?

Fifth. How were the sails of the vessels respectively braced and set ?

Sixth. Which way did the helms lie, and whether competent and faithful persons were at the helms at the time of the collision, and what was the character of each vessel in regard to the ready obedience of their respective helms ?

Seventh. Whether, on one or other of these vessels, the mizen-sail was not set or clewed up ?

Eighth. Whether, or not, before they struck, the jib upon either of them was set or down ?

Ninth. Whether both vessels were steering the same way or in opposite directions, and what was the course of each vessel which they were pursuing at the time and before the collision ?

Tenth. What were the currents and tides that affected each vessel, and how fast were they going through the water ?

Eleventh. How was each vessel loaded ? Whether in part or in ballast ? And what was the model of the vessel : for the ship's behaviour will depend as much upon the manner in which she is loaded and ballasted as upon her model ?

So the height of the masts of a ship materially affect the principles of sailing, and, it is said, that as soon as a ship inclines, her velocity diminishes in proportion as her inclination increases.

By some of the treatise on navigation, it is declared, that if on one or the other of two vessels coming in collision, the mizen-sail was set, and the jib or the foretop staysail was also set, that this is an incontestible sign that each vessel was going to the leeward ; and, therefore, that the other vessel should have kept to the windward. In which case the vessel which has struck the other with her bow, and therefore to the windward, was entitled to greater damages ; and that the one which was struck on the lee side, and was injured, to less damages.*

A first-class merchant ship contains no less than twenty-seven sails, or pieces of canvass, when all set and in use. Besides, the various masts, yards, sails, and the several parts of the rigging and apparel of the ship, number about one hundred and forty-eight in a modern-built vessel.

And in cases of collision at sea, the different workings of a ship are all to be taken into consideration, as well as the respective size, tonnage, and class of each vessel, which, in the merchant's service, number as many as eight and more.

First. We have the ship proper, which is a three-masted vessel.

Second. The barque is also a three-masted vessel as well as the ship, and the great difference between them is, that the ship has square sails on the mizen-mast, which the barque has not.

Third. A full-rigged brig.

Fourth. An hermaphrodite brig.

Fifth. A top-sail schooner.

Sixth. A fore-and-aft schooner.

Seventh. Sloops, and these may be built in the form of the yacht.

Eighth. Steamboats, of various sizes, models, and power.

Ninth. Vessels of various sizes and modelling, some of which are peculiar to particular countries, like the Dutch galliot and dogger, the French polacca and bilander, and the Chinese junk and English ketch.

The workings of a ship are to be demonstrated by proofs of the effects of every sail and of the rudder, separately or altogether considered, both with respect to the points where these machines are placed in the ship, and to the different dispositions which either are given them in the changes of evolutions, or which arise from their obliquities alone. So they present more or less obliquely their sides to the course of the water or the wind.

The general workings of a vessel at sea are set forth in a small treatise, the "Seaman's Friend," by R. H. Dana, jr., author of "*Two Years Before the Mast.*"

Mr. Dana's books are well known to the public, and are excellent of their kind, and ought to be in the hands of every person interested in maritime affairs.

He says that* "a ship is acted upon principally by the rudder and sails. When the rudder is fore-and-aft, that is, on a line with the keel, the water runs by it, and has no effect upon the ship's direction. When it is changed from a right line to one side or the other, the water strikes against it and forces the stern in an opposite direction. For instance: if the helm is put to the starboard, the rudder is put off the line of the keel, to port. This sends the stern up to the starboard, and, of course, to the ship turning on her centre of gravity, her head goes in an opposite direction to port. If the helm is put to port the reverse will follow, and the ship's head will turn off her course to starboard. Therefore, the helm is always put in the opposite direction from that in which the ship's head is to be moved. Moving the rudder from the right line has the effect of deadening the ship's way more or less, according as it is put at a greater or less angle with the keel. A ship should, therefore, be so balanced by her sails that a slight change of her helm may answer the purpose."

If a vessel is going astern, and the rudder is turned off from the line of the keel, the water, striking against the back of the rudder, the pushing the stern off in the same direction in which the rudder is turned. For instance: if stern-way is on her, and the helm is put to the starboard, the rudder turns to port, the water forces the stern in the same direction, and the ship's head goes off to the starboard. Therefore, when stern-way is on a vessel, put the helm in the same direction in which the head is to be turned.

A current, or tide, running astern—that is, when the ship's head is towards it—will have the same effect on the rudder as if the ship were going ahead, and when it runs forward it will be the same as though the ship were going astern.

It may now be well to show how the sails act upon the ship with reference to her centre of rotation.

Suppose a vessel to be rigged with three sails, one in the forward part,

one at the centre, and the third at the after part, and her left or larboard side to be presented to the wind, which we will suppose to be abeam, or at right angles with the keel. If the head sail only were set, the effect would be that the wind would send the vessel a little ahead, and up to the starboard on her centre of rotation, so as to bring her stern slowly round to the wind. If the after sail only were set, the vessel would shoot ahead a little, her stern would go off to the starboard, and her head come up to the wind. If only the centre sail were set, the effect would be the same as if all three of her sails were set, and she would go ahead in a straight line. So far we have supposed the sails to be set full; that is, with her tacks forward and their sheets aft. If they were all set *aback*, the vessel would go astern nearly if the rudder were kept steady in a straight line. If the head sail only is set, and aback, she will go astern and round upon her axis with her head from the wind much quicker than if full. So, if her after sail alone were set, and aback, she would go astern, and her head would come suddenly into the wind.

These principles of the wind acting upon the sails, and the water upon the rudder, are the foundation of the whole science of working a ship. In large vessels the sails are numerous, but they may all be reduced to three classes, viz: head sails, or those which are forward of the centre of gravity or rotation, having a tendency to send the ship's head off from the wind; after sails, or those abaft the centre of rotation, and which send the stern off and her head toward the wind; and lastly, centre sails, which act equally on each side the centre of rotation, and do not turn the ship off her course one way or the other. These classes of sails, if set aback, tend to stop the headway and send the ship astern, and also to turn her off her course in the same direction as when set full, but with more rapidity. The further a sail is from the centre of rotation, the greater is its tendency to send the ship off from the line of her keel. Accordingly, a jib is the strongest head sail, and a spanker the strongest after sail.

The centre of rotation is not necessarily at the centre of the ship. On the contrary, as vessels are now built, it may not be much abaft that part of the deck to which the main tack is boarded. For the main breadth or dead flat being there, the greatest cavity will also be there, and of course the principal weight of the cargo should centre there, as being the strongest part. Therefore the centre of rotation will greatly depend upon proper stowage. If the ship is much by the stern, the centre of rotation will be carried aft; and if by the head, it will be carried forward. The cause of this is, that when loaded down by the stern, her after sails have but little effect to move her stern against the water, and a very slight action upon the forward sails will send her head off to leeward, as she is there light and high in the air.

Accordingly, to keep her in a straight line, the press of sail is required to be further aft; or, in other words, the centre of rotation is further aft. If a ship is loaded down by the head, the opposite results follow, and more head and less after sail is necessary. A ship should be so stowed, and have her sails so trimmed, that she may be balanced as much as possible, and not be obliged to carry her helm much off the line of her keel, which tends to deaden her way. If a ship is stowed in her best sailing trim, and it is found, when on a wind, that her head tends to windward, obliging her to carry a strong weather helm, it may be remedied by taking in some

after sail, or adding head sail. So, if she carries a lee helm—that is, if her head tends to fly off from the wind—it is remedied by taking in head or adding after sail. Sometimes a ship is made to carry a weather helm by having too much head sail set aloft; for if she lies much over on a wind, the square sails forward have a tendency to press her downwards, and raise her proportionally abaft, so that she meets a great resistance from the water to leeward under her bows, while her stern, being light, is easily carried off, which, of course, requires her to carry a weather helm.

The general rules, then, for turning a ship, are these: to bring her head to the wind, put her helm to leeward, and bring the wind to act as much as possible on the after sails, and as little as possible on the head sails. This may be done without taking in any sail, by letting go the head sheets so as those sails may lose their wind, and by pointing the head yards to the wind so as to keep the head sails shaking. At the same time, keep the after sails full, and flatten in the spanker sheet; or, if this is not sufficient, the after sails may be braced aback, which will send the stern off and the head to windward. But as this makes back sails of them, and tends to send the vessel astern, there should be either head or centre sails enough filled to counteract this, and keep headway upon her. On the other hand, to turn the head off from the wind, put the helm to windward, shiver the after sails, and flatten in the head sheets. Brace the head yards aback if necessary, being careful not to let her lose headway if it can be avoided.

The vessel may be assisted very much, in going off or coming to, by setting or taking in the jib and spanker, which, if the latter is fitted with brails, are easily *handed*.

A merchant ship, that is run down by a public armed vessel in the service of the government, will have in equity a claim to the same indemnity and contributions for the loss, as where the accidents happened by collision by and between merchant vessels; yet we know of no case where the ship of war has been arrested by a suit in admiralty, to obtain satisfaction for the damage. The master of the government vessel, in such a case, might be liable to a personal action for negligence or trespass to the party injured; though a more direct method to obtain satisfaction would be to petition the government of the country for redress of grievances, and payment of all losses occasioned by the collision. The commercial code of France, article 407, provides that, in case of running foul, if the occurrence was purely accidental, the damages are to be borne without remedy by the suffering vessel. If the running foul proceeded from the fault of one of the captains, the damages are to be paid by the one who occasioned it. If there be a doubt which of the two vessels was in fault in running foul, the damages are to be repaired at their common expense, in equal portions between them. There are some differences in the rules which are applied to the cases of vessels running foul amongst the various commercial nations. By the laws of Holland, in cases of collision, if the damage is done reciprocally, such damage is apportioned in common between the parties; if the damage is wholly created by one ship through the fault of the master, he is to repair the damages alone, if he is able; otherwise, the owners are liable to the extent of their interest in the vessel and cargo, and no further. This is understood to be also the law of England, by virtue of the statutes; as well as the law in the states of Maine and Massachusetts, by virtue of their local laws. In England it is said that, by the common law, in cases of

collision where there is a common fault, neither party can recover any compensation against the other, and the loss, however unequally distributed, must be borne where it has alighted; and the result is the same where the fault cannot be ascertained or brought home by satisfactory evidence. But in the court of admiralty, where there is a manifest fault on both sides, the damage is to be apportioned in the aggregate.*

The ancient general maritime law, exacted a full compensation out of all the property of the owners of the guilty ship, in cases of collision, upon the common principle applying to persons undertaking the conveyance of goods at sea. They were answerable for the conduct of the persons whom they employed, and of whom the other parties, who suffered damage, knew nothing, and over whom they had no control. This is presumed to be the law at the present day, in those countries which have not made any regulations respecting it, by statutory enactments.† Yet it appears, that by various authorities, that the cargo on board of the offending vessel has not been held liable, in some instances, in England, to contribute to the damage done to the injured vessel and cargo. The injured vessel and cargo, could call upon the offending vessel for reparation to both vessel and cargo, but the contribution was only between the vessel, on one hand, and the ship and cargo, on the other, which was injured. The ship, only, was to contribute to the loss. The house of lords, in England, in the case of *Le Neve vs. the Edinburgh and London Shipping Company*, which was a case in appeal from Scotland in 1824, decided that the ship and cargo, that was sunk and lost by collision, should both receive the benefit of contribution from the offending vessel and owners; but they did not decide the question in this case, whether the offending vessel, and cargo on board, should be held liable, jointly or severally, to contribute for the loss.‡ We will suppose that the value of the ship and freights are insufficient to pay the damage done; why should not the cargo be called in to contribute its share in making reparation? The cargo on board adds to the force and power of the collision, and increases the damage. The owner of the cargo is represented by his agent, the master of the offending vessel, and so are the owners of the ship; and the owners of the cargo ought to be responsible for the acts of their agent. By the laws of Holland, both ship and cargo are liable to condemnation in cases of collision. Thus, where a ship and cargo run foul of another vessel in ballast, the ship and cargo was condemned to pay one-half of the damage sustained by the other vessel, and this condemnation was made after information obtained upon marine usage in like cases.§ So, in case where a Dutch ship had run foul of a Lubec trader in a storm, without fault on either side, with such violence that they, the master and crew, were compelled to run upon the strand, to save their lives and their ship and cargo, the senate of Dantzic decreed, that both cargoes and vessels should be valued and summed up together, and each party should be indemnified dollar for dollar.

The old Danish sea-laws are replete with provisions under the head of collision. The Scandinavians once had so many ships in the sound, that it was said to be easy to pass over them from Zealand to Schoon; and they felt early, in their abundance of shipping, in their long nights and tem-

* Kent's Com. p. 230. Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 328. † 1 Haggard's Rep., 109.

‡ Bell's Com., vol. i, p. 580.

§ Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 328.

pestuous seas, the necessity of mutual assistance in the accidents which might befall them. They adopted the rule, that when two ships under sail, without the fault of either party, by day or night, run foul, the damages arising are to be divided equally between the parties. The Swedish code* subjoins the same law, and the provision of these northern powers seem to have been handed down from the earliest periods to the present time, and influenced the codes of all maritime powers. By the term division, we are to understand what is known at the present day as apportionment. The Russian law determines, like the common law of England, that each party is to bear his own loss, without recourse to the other, where neither party is in fault; and by the Prussian code, if two ships at anchor are, by the force of the winds or waves, driven together so as to occasion damage to one or both of the parties, such damage is to be computed together; and where a ship at anchor, from the badness of her cables or other negligences of the master, breaks loose, and is driven upon other vessels made fast, the master of such ship must make good all damages done to the other. The owners of the vessel, in cases of collision, are liable to the extent of their shares, and no more, which is regulated by article 1929 of their code. The northern European maritime codes contain various laws in regard to ships running foul, while one or both are at anchor, but they all adopt the principle generally, that the vessel in fault must pay the whole damage; but when the collision occurs by inevitable accident, the loss is to be borne by apportionment between the vessels. The Prussian law declares, that when a ship or vessel is driven against another at anchor, without fault, the vessel doing the damage shall pay its own, and one-half of the damage sustained. The owner is held liable in subsidium for all damages. By the laws of France, vessels going out of port are bound to have regard to those before them, and if the hindmost ship injures the one forward, she is bound to pay all damages; and in two cases where vessels had put out of the harbor of Marseilles, in France, and another vessel in each case had followed and run down the vessels going out first, the offending vessels were condemned to pay all damages and costs of suit; and in another case in the same port, where two vessels approached the harbor, and the hindmost vessel ran down the forward one, the hindmost vessel was adjudged to have incurred the blame, because she had not waited until the other vessel passed in, and the admiralty court of Marseilles condemned her to pay all damages and costs. So, where two vessels of unequal size are in the same stream, the less vessel ought to give way to the greater.†

Most maritime nations consider it negligence, on the part of masters, not to keep watch on board their vessels. In the night-time this is absolutely necessary for the safety of the vessel; and where there is negligence in this particular, the vessel will be held to blame in cases of collision.

In channels, or narrow seas, the practice of ringing bells in foggy weather ought to prevail, and the general injunction to keep a good look out is insufficient.

The master of a *Hamburgh* ship, in the night time, in foggy weather, passing the *Catagat*, observed a sailor on board who did not belong to the crew. "From whence came you?" was the question, in amazement.

* See Jacobson's *Sea Laws*, p. 328.

† See Jacobson's *Sea Laws*, p. 338.

The answer was, "From a Dutch brig, which you have just run down. I was on the yards at the time, and jumped on board." The collision was not observed until the sailor gave the astonished captain the information.

By the Spanish law, every ship or vessel above the burthen of sixty tons, shall have a light in the lantern of the ship at night, as well at sea as in the roads, under a penalty. The want of a lantern in narrow seas and ports has always been looked upon as an omission and neglect, not entitling the party to redress, if injured. The supreme court of Holland have so decided; and this appears to be the law in other European countries, as well as in the United States of America. By the laws of the state of New York, any steamboat that is navigating any waters in the night time, within the jurisdiction of the state, shall have, and carry, and show, two good and sufficient lights, one of which shall be exposed near her bows, the other near her stern, and the lights shall be raised at least twenty feet above her decks; and every master who shall violate this law is held liable to forfeit the sum of \$250 for each and every offence, to be sued for in the name of the people; and in case the penalty cannot be collected of the master, the owners are jointly and severally liable to pay the penalties, as sureties of such master; and the owners are declared by statute to be responsible for the good conduct of the masters employed by them; and the term "master" is declared to apply to every person having, for the time being, the charge, control, and directions of any steamboat or other vessel comprised within the provisions of the statute.* And when steamboats meet each other within the jurisdiction of the state, each boat shall go towards that side of the river, or take that which is to the starboard or right side, so as to enable the boats meeting to pass each other in safety; and while the boats on the Hudson river, or Lake Champlain, are at anchor, they are bound, in the night time, to lower their peak, to have a sufficient light shown in some part of the rigging, at least twenty feet above the deck, and from the taffrail of the boat, under a penalty of \$50, to be collected of the master, in the first instance, and in case he is unable to pay it, then the owners are held to pay the same.

By the same statute, it is enacted that when a steamboat is going the same direction with another steamboat, the steamboat behind shall not approach to pass the head steamboat within the distance of twenty yards, nor can the steamboat ahead be navigated so as to unnecessarily come within twenty yards of the steamboat following it. A copy of the statute is to be posted up in a conspicuous place in every steamboat navigating the waters of the state, for the inspection of all persons on board thereof.

We have before stated that steamboats, when navigating, are deemed to be what is called, technically, *before the wind*, and are considered as having the wind free, and are, therefore, bound, at all events, to avoid a collision with other vessels. This is the general rule, but it has some exceptions. Thus, in the case of the steamboat *North America*, tried in the month of June, eighteen hundred and forty-two (1842), in admiralty in the United States district court for the Southern District of New York, before the Honorable Samuel R. Betts, United States district judge, it

* 1 Revised Statutes, p. 682.

appeared that the British barque *George Canning*, was lying at anchor in the port of New York, in the Hudson river, within three hundred yards of the Battery, during the night of the 30th March, 1842.

At about four o'clock in the morning, the steamboat *North America*, coming from Albany, rounded too just below the *George Canning*, in order to come into her berth at the foot of Courtland-street.

This was the usual method of bringing her to the slip, and on this occasion she also followed the accustomed route, going below the dock, slackening her speed, and then being brought round and worked up to her landing place. In making her way up she came upon the barque, and both vessels were considerably injured by the collision. The barque, at the time, had no light suspended in her rigging, and no watch on deck.

Much testimony was called on both sides to prove the state of the atmosphere at the time; on the part of the barque it being attempted to be proved that daylight had appeared, and was sufficiently advanced to enable persons on board the *North America* to see the barque a distance off, amply sufficient to take measures to avoid her; and, on the other side, that it was so thick and dark at the time, that the barque, without the aid of a light hung out, could not be seen the length of the steamboat from her.

His honor, Judge Betts, in pronouncing his opinion, says: "I think a decided preponderance of proof established these facts:—

"That the collision was wholly accidental, free of intended neglect or fault on either side; that the steamboat was navigated with reasonable care and precaution, and was pursuing the usual course of her voyage at the time of collision with the libellant's vessel; that it was night time, and thick dark weather on the water.

"That the vessel of the libellant, at anchor off Castle Garden, had no watch on deck at the time, and no light exhibited in the rigging, and none within view on deck; and she was not seen on board the steamboat until the boat was too near to avoid collision.

"That if a light had been suspended in the rigging of the vessel, she might have been discovered from the boat in time to avoid her."

And further, in delivering the opinion of the court, the learned judge says, "I have no hesitation in saying, that not only was the *George Canning* acting in violation of an express law in lying at her place of anchorage, without showing a light, but that, independent of the state statute, it was culpable negligence in her to remain in the then darkness of the night, without both such light and a watch on deck."*

So in another case, which was an action in *rem*, *Pezant vs. the Steampacket Charleston*, brought against the steamboat in the same court, before the same learned judge, for a collision in running down a vessel in the Delaware bay, the libel was dismissed with costs, because it appeared that the vessel run down was sailing up the Delaware bay in the night time, and had altered her course, and thereby the steamboat came in collision with her. The court held that the steamboat, though she was to be considered as a vessel sailing before the wind, with the wind free, yet, the other vessel having unnecessarily changed her course and run athwart the course and bows of the steamboat, she, the latter vessel, must be con-

* See the case reported at length in the *N. Y. Legal Observer*, May 13, 1843, p. 67. See also 6 *Wharton's Reps.*, 311—*Simpson vs. Hand*. 1 *Gilpin*, 519—*Reeves vs. The Ship Constitution*.

sidered as faultless, and the vessel driven by sails as the one which had received damage by an unnecessary collision. The cause having been appealed to the United States circuit court, before the Honorable Smith Thompson, the circuit judge, the decree of the district judge was affirmed with costs.

The learned circuit judge, in pronouncing the decree of affirmation, stated, that steamboats were regarded in navigation as always having the wind free. Nevertheless, they could not be held liable when the collision happened through the fault or mismanagement of a vessel driven by sails. That in this case it appeared from the evidence that, had the vessel run down kept her course coming up the Delaware bay, she would have passed the steamboat without collision; but she had unnecessarily undertaken to alter her course, and the steamboat, pursuing her course without deviation, had come in collision with the vessel.

The vessel run down had been injured by her own mismanagement or fault, and she could not, from the fact that she was navigated by sails alone, call upon the steamboat for damages.

In Holland there is a distinction between the collision of sea vessels and a collision of *river craft*. Such distinction, in practice, must exist in the United States, where vessels navigate the internal waters of the country. The maritime jurisdiction of the United States, is confined to the waters within the ebb and flow of the tide; consequently, vessels navigating fresh water rivers and lakes are not within the cognizance of courts of admiralty jurisdiction. In the state of New York, cases of collision upon the internal waters of the state, are brought within the practice of arresting the offending vessel by the statute.*

By the civil law, every vessel which floated upon the water, whether of a small or large class, or driven by oars or sails, or both, or by machinery, were liable to the jurisdiction in *rem* for the contracts and torts of the master. And the jurisdiction equally applied to all vessels, whether they navigated the ocean, seas, lake, rivers or ports; and whether the waters were fresh, or under the influence of the flow and reflux of the tide. But the constitution of the United States confines the jurisdiction of the United States tribunals, proceeding in *rem*, to cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, and therefore collisions arising upon the great fresh water lakes in North America, and on the rivers where the tide does not ebb and flow, or above it, are not embraced within the jurisdiction of the courts of the United States.

The state legislatures are competent to pass laws which shall give the remedy against offending vessels on the internal waters of a state, by a proceeding in *rem*. The statutes of New York, Missouri and Ohio, have provided such a remedy; and we see no objection to the extending it, by state laws, to cases of contracts which concern the navigation and maritime employment of the vessel.

We are certain that this remedy would be many times beneficial. As, along the shore of some of the great lakes, numerous territories, states, and countries, each claiming a separate and independent code of laws, are to be found, besides, the dangers and hazards of navigation on the lakes in North America equal those upon the ocean and foreign seas. Losses which arise by collision are held in the law of insurance to be within the term known as perils of the sea, and are subject to the doc-

* Act passed April 26, 1831.

trine of averages. When a vessel is so damaged at sea by collision, and without any fault of the owner, and the master is obliged to put back, or run into port for repairs, to enable her to prosecute her voyage, the expenses of repairing the vessel, and of unloading the cargo to make the repairs, are held to be a general average within certain limitations.

If the ship gains a lasting benefit by the repairs, a deduction from the amount of the general average must be made on that account, which is usually set down at one-third of the expense of the new fixings of the vessels.* Certain damages which accrue to a ship and cargo by collision, are held by the civil law, as well as by a law of England, as a particular average. By the Spanish law, the damage happening to a ship and cargo, by the accidental running foul of another vessel, is declared particular average, and each party, as in other casual misfortunes, is to bear his own loss; if the damage be occasioned by misconduct or negligence, the guilty party must indemnify the other to the full extent of the loss. Such is the Russian law; but by the law of Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Sweden, losses, in all cases of accidental collision, are to be apportioned on both vessels—their freights and cargoes are held to be general averages.† Where a loss occurs through the mistakes, ignorance, and inattentions of the master or mariners of a vessel by collision, this is held in England to be a barratry. But when a collision has happened, and there is no proof of negligence in the master or crew of the damaged ship, the insurer is liable for the damage, and he may sue the party who has wilfully been the cause of the damage. A very interesting case was decided in the supreme court of the United States, in regard to a loss by collision of vessels without fault on either side, which occurred on the river Elbe, on a voyage from Hamburg to Gottenburg, in Europe. The American ship Paragon, in the passage above-mentioned, while proceeding down the river with a pilot on board, came in contact with a Dutch galliot called the Frau-Anna, and sunk her; by this accident the Paragon sustained so much damage as to be obliged to put into Cuxhaven for repairs, and this port being within the jurisdiction of Hamburg, the captain of the galliot libelled the Paragon in the admiralty court for his damages, alleging that the loss of the vessel was caused by the carelessness or fault of those on board of the Paragon. But upon hearing, the court determined that the loss accrued without fault or carelessness on either side. This made the loss one of general average, to be borne equally by each party; that is to say, the Paragon was to bear one-half of the expense of her own repairs, and to pay one-half of the value of the galliot; and the galliot was to bear the loss of one-half of her own value, and to pay one-half of the repairs of the Paragon. The court became possessed of this case in America by a suit of the owners of the Paragon against the *Warren Insurance Company*, for the amount which they had paid in Hamburg for the collision; this amount was \$2,600. The supreme court of the United States decided that this loss by collision, without fault on either side, was a loss by the perils of the sea, and came within the protection of the policy of insurance; the Paragon had no cargo on board at the time of the collision, and was in ballast, no freight had been earned, and the owners having no funds in Hamburg, the captain was obliged to raise the money

* 3d Maule and Selw. Rep., p. 432—Plumber vs. Wildman.

† Benecke on Average, p. 146—Benecke, p. 369.

on the bottomry of the vessel, and thus the Paragon was obliged to bear the whole loss.*

If the ship or goods on board be damaged by collision, the loss is considered by insurance writers to be a peril of the sea, within the terms of an insurance policy, and the underwriters must make good the loss. Where a collision takes place between an American vessel and a foreign one, within a foreign jurisdiction, the case will be decided according to the rules of law which govern the foreign jurisdiction; so *vice versa*, when a collision happens within the jurisdiction of the United States.†

Collisions often arise between vessels while coming out or going into port, and while one or both of the vessels are under the government or control of a pilot. In such cases, a question occurs whether the owners of the vessel are liable for the damage occasioned by the guilty vessel. Sir William Scott held that the parties who suffered by collision in such cases, without their own fault, are entitled to have their remedy against the vessel which occasioned the damage, and are not under the necessity of looking to the pilot, from whom redress is not always to be had, for compensation; the owners are responsible to the injured party for the acts of the pilot, and they must be left to recover, as well as they can, the amount against him. The learned judge says, that the circumstance of having a pilot on board, and acting in conformity to his directions, cannot operate‡ as a discharge of the responsibility of the owners. But the rule of law is different when the statutes, or the laws of a country, require that a pilot shall be taken on board. Thus, in a case decided by the supreme court of the United States§, the law is declared to be such that the owners of vessels, which are compelled to receive a pilot on board, shall be exonerated from the payment of any loss which happens by collision, while the vessel is under the government of the pilot. The American ship Francis Depeau was in the harbor of Liverpool, and was run foul of by the barque Tasso, which was, at the time the accident happened, in charge of a regular pilot, and leaving the Prince's dock on her homeward voyage. The Francis Depeau was at anchor in the harbor laden with salt, and ready to sail; both were American vessels. It appeared, that by the British statute then in force, that vessels leaving ports in Great Britain were obliged by law to take a pilot on board. The Francis Depeau sustained considerable damage by the collision. The owners brought an action against the owners of the Tasso to recover damages, and the defendants pleaded that the offending vessel was in charge of a regular pilot at the time of the collision, and that the pilot, by the statutory regulations of England, was required to be on board. The cause was tried in the circuit court of the United States, in the District of Columbia, and the judge who tried the cause instructed the jury that the defendant, under the statute of England, was not responsible to the plaintiffs for any damage occasioned by the default, negligence, or unskillfulness of the pilot on board the Tasso. Upon a writ of error, the supreme court held that the circuit court was right in their instructions given to the jury; they further decided that it was for the jury, upon the whole evidence, to say whether the injury was the result of accident, aris-

* 14 Peter's Rep., p. 99—Peters vs. Warren Insurance Company.

† Phil. on Insurance, p. 94, vol. i.

‡ 2 Dodson's Rep., 467—the Neptune.

§ 1 Howard's Rep., p. 28—Smith vs. Caudry.

ing from strong wind and tide, against which ordinary skill and care could not have guarded, or the fault of the pilot, or the misconduct, negligence, or unskilfulness of the crew, or the insufficiency of the hawser ropes, or the equipments with which the vessel was furnished. In the two first instances, the owners of the *Tasso* are not answerable; in the two latter, they are culpable.

The reason why owners are not liable for the acts of a pilot, put on board by legislative authority, is, that he is not chosen by the owner, and his qualifications are determined by others; and that it is conformable to natural justice to hold the owner exempted from responsibility for the acts of persons who are not his agents.

When a party pleads the act of the pilot to exonerate himself in cases of collision, such party is bound to show in evidence on his part affirmatively the truth of his plea, or he will be held responsible.

The statute law of Massachusetts and the state of Maine, following the statutory law of England and Holland, have exonerated the owner of a vessel upon his abandoning the ship and freights, from damage and liabilities in cases of collision.

A. N.

CREDIT GIVEN AND TAKEN.—Bitter experience has taught those who seek to do an over-large business at small profits, that very little credit can be given; since the only inducement for reducing prices below an average standard, is a certainty of payment. If you do business with all the world, you may rely upon having a world of trouble and anxiety in return; and after all, the nett profit upon an extensive business carried on in this way, is seldom more than would be realized without a tenth part of the trouble. My advice to you is, to establish and maintain a *local* business. As it is almost impossible to carry on such a business without giving credit, you must weigh well in your mind beforehand, to what extent you may with propriety do so. The amount of credit you take, will of course depend upon the amount you give. If you are doing a safe and current business, you need fear little on this head; only take care in making your purchases to bargain for *time* sufficient. This is important if you have a capital, but absolutely indispensable if you have none.

FAIR PROFESSIONS.—Be on your guard against those who make the fairest and most numerous professions. Depend upon it, all the commerce of the world is founded upon self-interest; and if you cannot see any cause for deserving such kindness and attention, suspect it of being merely affected, and keep yourself out of danger. To be secure, put yourself in no man's power. There are, no doubt, many men in the world who are strictly honest and upright, and who could not be influenced by any consideration whatever, to be guilty of a dishonest action; but such characters are rare, and although the conclusion may be thought uncharitable, you will find yourself safest in considering every man a rogue till such time as you have had an opportunity of proving him the reverse.

Experience will soon convince you that a great proportion of mankind make use of virtue only as a stock in trade, which they are ready to bring to market as soon as they see an opportunity of disposing of it to advantage.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

REPRESENTATIONS IN REFERENCE TO PROPERTY INSURED.

In the case of *Alston vs. the Mechanics' Mutual Insurance Company of Troy*, brought before the Court of Errors of the state of New York, at the December Term, 1842, the following decision was made:—

This action was founded upon a fire policy on a building, and some personal property belonging to the plaintiff, bearing date August 27th, 1838. The term of insurance was five years, commencing with the date of the policy. In the policy, the building was described as a brick dwelling-house and shop; and, after setting forth the size of the building, and its height above the basement, the policy added, "which basement is privileged as a cabinetmaker's shop." The personal property covered by the mortgage consisted of stock in trade in the cabinet business, household furniture, wearing apparel, and family stores. Among other conditions contained in the policy, was this:—"If the said Alston shall make any misrepresentation or concealment, or if said building or premises shall be occupied in any way, so as to make the risk more hazardous than at the time of insuring, this policy shall be void, and of no effect." On applying for his policy, the plaintiff promised the underwriters, verbally, that, if they accepted the risk, he would discontinue the use of a fire-place in the basement, and use a stove instead thereof, which he omitted to do.

The Court of Errors held that the omission of the plaintiff to perform this promise constituted no defence for the insurance company, in an action on the policy. A representation in the nature of a promise, or stipulation for future conduct on the part of the insured, must in general be inserted in the policy, or the underwriters cannot avail themselves of it. Parol evidence of what passed between the insured and the underwriters, at and previous to the delivery of the policy, is not admissible with a view to vary its terms.

USURY.

This was an appeal from the Court of Chancery to the Court of Errors of the state of New York. Anderson filed his bill against Rapelye, for the purpose of setting aside an assignment, by the complainant to the defendant, of a bond and mortgage executed by John Anderson, and also to have delivered up and cancelled, a bond, given by the complainant and A. A. Remsen, guarantying the payment of the bond and mortgage.

It appeared, from the proofs and pleadings of the case, that Anderson held a bond and mortgage for \$3,000, payable one year from date, with interest, to become due half yearly, and on which over five months' interest had already accrued. This he assigned absolutely to the holder, for \$2,600, in order to raise money. The assignment stated the consideration paid by the assignee to be \$3,000, and contained a covenant that thus much was due and owing on the bond and mortgage. At the time of executing the assignment, Anderson also executed to Rapelye a bond, upon which A. A. Remsen was security, conditioned that the mortgager should pay the \$3,000, with interest, by the day appointed for that purpose, in the securities assigned.

The Court reversed the decision of the chancellor, and declared that the transaction was on its face a mere sale of a bond and mortgage, and therefore not usurious in itself.

INSURANCE—DAMAGES FOR INJURY TO MERCHANDISE.

In the Superior Court of New York city, Judge Oakley presiding.

Benjamin W. Storm, a merchant residing at Salem, Mass., brought an action against the Guardian Insurance Company, to recover damages for injury done to a quantity of coffee, being part of a cargo imported from Sumatra in the course of last summer. Part

of the coffee was sold on its arrival, and part of it was stored in a store in Front-street. While the coffee was in the store, a fire took place in the second story of it, and reached the loft above it, and smoked the whole building, and damaged the coffee, which was insured at three insurance offices, viz: the Sun, Mutual Safety, and Guardian Insurance Companies, of which \$15,000 was insured with the defendants. After several attempts to settle the matter by arbitration, the plaintiff finally sold the coffee by auction for \$22,258, and brought his action to recover the difference between what it sold for, and its value before it was injured by the fire. The method by which the plaintiff undertook to prove the quantity of coffee stored in the premises injured by the fire, was, by first showing the quantity imported, then how much of it was sold, and to take the balance as the quantity stored in those premises; and then, whatever quantity less than that amount remained after the fire, was to be set down as having been destroyed by the fire. And for this amount, and also for the deterioration in value on what remained of the coffee, the plaintiff claimed remuneration in the amount of \$5,891.

From the evidence adduced for the plaintiff, it appeared that the coffee was carefully weighed at Padang, the place of importation, and that it weighed six hundred and sixty-five thousand and ninety-four pounds, nett weight, besides an allowance of four pounds to every thousand that was shipped; that it was well dried when being shipped, and that it had been stored some time before; and that coffee coming from that climate rather gains than loses in weight on board ships, from their dampness. It also appeared that, on arriving at New York, two thousand bags were sold at the wharf, which weighed about two hundred and eighty thousand pounds, and that the balance of the coffee was put into this store about the 1st of November, where it remained until the fire took place, in January, 1843. That immediately after the fire, the whole number of bags which were originally put into the store were then found in it; but that some of them were browned, and nearly blackened with the smoke, and that the coffee remaining in them was crisped and dried up, and its flavor injured; and that, when it was sold by auction, the whole two thousand nine hundred and seventy bags weighed only three hundred and sixty-eight thousand pounds, instead of three hundred and eighty-five thousand, which would be the amount that ought to have remained of the six hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds, after deducting the two hundred and eighty thousand pounds, which had been sold at the wharf. And this difference, being about seventeen thousand pounds, the plaintiff contended was the loss on the weight of the coffee, occasioned by the fire.

In relation to the value of the coffee, there was some variance in the evidence. But the lowest value set on it was seven cents per pound, and it appeared that coffee of a similar quality had been sold in January for seven and a half cents.

For the defence, it was contended that there could be no reliance placed on the mode by which the plaintiff undertook to fix the amount of coffee placed in the store; and that the way was, to average the weight of coffee contained in the bags which went into the store by the weight of those which were sold on the wharf; and, as it appeared that the two thousand bags sold at the store averaged only one hundred and twenty-three pounds to a bag, and the two thousand nine hundred and seventy bags which were in the store averaged one hundred and twenty-four pounds, it was evident that those bags in the store could have lost nothing in weight by the fire.

In answer to this, however, it was shown in evidence that there was nothing like uniformity in the size of the bags, and that some of them weighed forty pounds more than others.

The Court charged the jury that, from the different data laid before them, they must fix the quantity and sound value of the coffee in the store before the fire, and from that they must deduct the amount of the proceeds by the sale at auction, and the plaintiff would be entitled to the balance. Verdict for plaintiff, \$2,900.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The state of financial affairs now, throughout the Union, is of a most extraordinary character. The whole appearance presents the action of business in a country, rich beyond parallel, filled with an industrious and enterprising population of ceaseless activity, whose whole internal operations of trade are disordered by the absence of a circulating medium in certain sections, with immense accumulations of money at other points, waiting, at extraordinary low rates, some channel of profitable employment. In all sections, the products of industry are superabundant; the amount of individual indebtedness, comparatively very small—immense scores having been liquidated by bankruptcy, compromise, and the bankrupt act—yet trade languishes, and money for circulation is very scarce. The whole presents the appearance of a great and rich country emerging from the ruin and disaster attendant upon the breaking down of an immense paper system, but not yet recovered its due proportion of the precious metals, previously driven from circulation by the too free use of paper money. In the western and central parts of the Union, whence the products of the soil are the last to reach market, the proceeds of industry exist in great profusion, while money is absolutely not to be procured. A person stationed at Cincinnati finds a redundancy of products, and a scarcity of money, perfectly surprising. The same state of things prevails north and west of that point. If, however, he approaches the Atlantic on the east, or the Gulf of Mexico on the south, he finds, at each approach, produce less redundant, and specie more plenty, accompanied by a gradual rise in the money prices of the articles he has occasion to purchase. The torrent of paper wealth has swept by, leaving the country without circulation. The banking system has, in a great degree, perished, and is unable to renew its issues of paper. The precious metals must be supplied from without. During the past year, all the seaports have received large sums of money, indicated as follows:—

ARRIVALS OF SPECIE AT BOSTON, NEW YORK, AND NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1843.

Boston,.....	\$7,044,222
New York,.....	9,500,000
New Orleans,.....	10,541,000
Total three cities,.....	\$27,085,222

Part of that arrived at New Orleans was received from the north. This specie, for the most part, has accumulated in the banks, whence it slowly finds its way into circulation. Of the \$10,500,000 arrived at New Orleans, but about \$4,000,000 has remained in the banks—the remainder has found its way up the valley of the Mississippi, as far as St. Louis, in general circulation. From New York and Boston, money finds its way slowly to the western country, for two principal reasons. One is, that the consumption of articles of western produce, on the Atlantic, is mostly supplied from the Atlantic states—the surplus of the west must go abroad. The other is, that the people of the west, having been long accustomed to paper money, the foreign gold coin, which is the shape in which specie arrives in the seaports, circulates with difficulty among them; and, as there are no mints at the points of arrival, the expense and trouble of coinage are almost insuperable bars to converting it into American money. At this juncture, there is probably \$13,000,000 of English gold in the vaults of the New York banks; while American gold, before their doors, commands $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent premium. The actual cost of carrying the gold to Philadelphia to be coined, would be about $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent; a charge which no individual feels disposed to incur, nor is it to the interests of the banks that they should. The expense and trouble of the operation, therefore, forms a premium in favor of taking bank paper instead of

gold; which arrives on our shores, goes into vaults, and remains idly there, until adverse exchanges again carry it abroad.

In order that we may estimate the extent to which bank paper has circulated, and thereby the want now felt for specie in its place, we will take the capital, loans, and circulation of the banks in nine leading states, in 1839, a year of great expansion; and also the same features for the present year:—

BANK CAPITAL, LOANS, AND CIRCULATION, IN NINE STATES, IN 1839 AND 1843.

	1839.			1843.		
	Capital.	Loans.	Circulation.	Capital.	Loans.	Circulation.
Louisiana,	\$47,736,768	\$56,856,610	\$6,280,588	\$12,932,820	\$31,987,280	\$1,218,116
Alabama,	11,996,332	25,842,884	9,333,202	1,500,000	1,560,000	None.
Florida,...	4,582,236	5,236,293	519,290
Mississip.,	30,379,403	48,333,728	15,171,639
Missouri,	1,112,433	2,320,667	672,950	1,500,000	626,973	230,000
Illinois, ..	5,435,055	6,046,615	3,729,513
Arkansas,	3,495,857	3,956,636	1,199,120
Michigan,	3,018,701	2,885,364	969,544	240,000	340,000	150,000
Ohio,.....	10,507,521	16,029,540	7,424,014	2,150,000	3,849,032	2,135,351
	\$112,204,306	\$167,587,377	\$45,229,060	\$18,322,820	\$38,363,286	\$3,733,467
Specie,.....	7,131,404	7,088,947

Of the amount of specie now held by the banks, over \$6,000,000 is in those of New Orleans. Consequently, about \$5,000,000, which was in the banks in 1839, has passed into circulation, while \$42,000,000 of bank paper has been withdrawn; making a diminution of \$37,000,000 in the circulating medium. Nearly as much specie has arrived in this country during the past year, but has not yet found its way into the channels of circulation. It remains in the Atlantic cities, competing for employment, and reducing interest to extraordinary low rates. This state of affairs has greatly raised the value of public stocks, notwithstanding that the discredit attending the delinquency of many of the sovereign states of the Union still retards the return of confidence in the minds of capitalists. The immediate effect of the rise in stocks has undoubtedly been the necessity of the banks to find some mode for investing the accumulating funds in their possession. This has been done partly by direct investments in sound stocks, but mostly by loans upon pledge of them. The effect of these operations upon stocks has been as follows:—

PRICES OF STOCKS, AND VALUES OF THE STATE ISSUES, IN JANUARY, 1843, AND OCTOBER, 1843.

Stocks.	January, 1843.		September 30, 1843.		
	Capital.	Prices.	Value.	Prices.	Value.
New York,.....	\$27,000,000	\$88	\$23,760,000	\$100	\$27,000,000
Illinois,	12,500,000	20	2,500,000	40	5,000,000
Indiana,.....	13,000,000	20	2,600,000	39	5,100,000
Ohio,.....	13,700,000	67	9,179,000	100	13,700,000
Kentucky,.....	3,500,000	82	2,870,000	100	3,500,000
Pennsylvania, ..	36,000,000	42	15,112,000	63	22,680,000
United States,...	17,000,000	100	17,000,600	107	17,119,000
Total,....	\$122,700,000		\$73,021,000		\$94,099,000

This gives a rise of \$20,000,000 in the aggregate value of the stocks; but they are yet far below their total par values. Of the above states, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, are delinquent in their interest; and, with Michigan, Maryland, Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Florida, making nine defaulting states, fill up the measure of the national dishonor. Maryland and Pennsylvania are without excuse for the disgraceful disregard for state faith, which has so long characterized them. They have, for the most part, received the full value for their obligations, which have been issued according to law, and the proceeds invested in public works, which are now in operation as state projects. The whole operation of borrowing money to build these works was a speculation entered into by the

people of each state, through their representatives. If the works had proved enormously profitable, or yielded revenues like the Erie canal, of New York, the debts would have been paid, principal and interest, and the people have enjoyed the whole profit of the operation. The speculation has, however, hitherto failed; and the people, with ineffable meanness, have thrown the loss upon those of whom they borrowed the money, which they refuse to repay, while they hesitate to part with the works at a fair equivalent. The people have, however, been less to blame in this matter, than the party politicians who have neglected to urge upon their constituents the importance of taxation, and a manly dependence upon their own resources. They have, on the other hand, for years, held up some paper phantom, by which the people have been amused with the idea that they can get out of debt, and preserve their honor, without meeting their obligations. Illinois, having contracted the largest debt on the smallest foundation, was one of the first to fail from necessity; while Pennsylvania pursued the same course from choice. As Illinois was one of the first to stop, she has been the first to get back into the road of honor. In our June number, we mentioned the departure of the Illinois commissioners for London, to negotiate with the foreign creditors a compromise, the nature of which we then described as follows:—

“The canal requires \$1,600,000 to finish it, and open a communication for the whole trade of the chain of lake navigation with the valley of the Mississippi. To obtain this, the new canal law proposes to the holders of the canal bonds that they shall advance the necessary sum; and, to secure them, they shall be put in possession of the canal and its lands, the latter to be sold within three months from the completion of the canal, the proceeds to reimburse the new loan, principal and interest; after which, the balance of lands, and revenues of canal, shall pay the interest on the canal bonds, then that upon the improvement bonds; next, the principal of the canal bonds; and, finally, that of the improvement bonds.”

The canal debt is about \$5,000,000, and the advance of \$1,600,000 is about 32 per cent of the face of each bond. The holders here readily subscribed the amount, and the commissioners departed to London, whence they have just returned, after having fully succeeded in the object of their mission, not exactly in the terms of the law, but in a manner much more advantageous for the whole country. There never has been, in the minds of the most eminent men in Europe, connected with American affairs, the slightest doubt but that all the outstanding American debts would ultimately be paid. Unfortunately, however, for the credit of republican institutions, an impression is rife with the European public that there is a want of will to pay—a premeditated design to run in debt, and evade the payment. It is a matter of first necessity to remove this injurious impression, which weighs heavily on all transactions connected with America, and is a bar to any movement of the leading houses towards compromise. The initiatory movement must come from this side, and that in the substantial form of actual taxation. Hence, when the Illinois commissioners presented themselves to the creditors of the state, and proposed a compromise, they were met with the declaration that the terms offered, so far as they were sufficient for the actual payment of the canal debt of Illinois, were satisfactory; but they did not remove the blot on the financial character of the Union, inasmuch as it evinced no desire to support the burden of taxation in order to discharge debts. A counter proposition was then made, to the effect that, instead of paying down the whole 32 per cent now, the four leading firms, Baring Brothers, Rothschilds, Hope & Co., Magniac, Jardine & Co., would subscribe positively 12½ per cent, on condition that all the bondholders did the same—that with this amount, the commissioner, Michael Ryan, Esq., should return to Illinois, in company with an agent of the bondholders, and commence operations upon the canal; and, when the legislature of the state again meets, if a law should be passed imposing a small tax, in some shape, towards the payment of the improvement debt of the state, then the remaining instal-

ment, 19½ per cent, should be forthcoming. Pursuant to this arrangement, three gentlemen of Boston, Messrs. Abbott Lawrence, T. W. Ward, and William Sturgis, were appointed to nominate an agent on behalf of the bondholders. The Honorable John Davis accordingly accepted the mission, and proceeded to Illinois, in company with Michael Ryan, Esq., and an engineer, to make surveys, preparatory to the lettings. Thus, this great and important enterprise is likely soon to be brought to a successful issue. Perhaps no better choice than John Davis, Esq., could have been made, as an agent for the bondholders. He is eminently capable of appreciating the vast national importance of a work like the Illinois canal, as well as the immense advantages which will be derived to the manufacturing interests of Massachusetts, from such an internal communication with New Orleans. Near \$500,000 will be spent upon the canal during the present year; and when the legislature meets, the alternative will be forcibly presented to the people, of submitting to a small tax towards the improvement debt, and thereby securing the inestimable advantages of a complete canal, through which the produce of the state will find a ready and profitable market, or of rejecting the tax, and with it the hope of ever completing the canal, or of emerging from the foul dishonor of a repudiated debt. There is no doubt but that the first course will be pursued; and that Illinois, having cast off the rotten banking system, will stand "redeemed, regenerated, and disenfranchised," from the whole paper system. While Illinois is thus in the way of regaining her rank, states of such wealth and population as Pennsylvania cannot be backward in the race, but will turn their attention to their own resources; and, reposing with manly confidence in their own energies, discharge in full the claims upon them.

We have remarked that many of the states of the Union are now destitute of banks. We will now trace the movement of those institutions, still in existence at the leading points, whose periodical returns have been made during the past year, as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS, NEW YORK, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND OHIO.

	Loans.			
	New Orleans.	Ohio.	South Carolina.	N. York city.
1842—September,...	\$48,228,173	\$5,291,181	\$4,077,486	\$29,709,537
“ October,	48,101,210	5,131,000	4,161,271
“ November,...	48,453,068	4,870,290	4,243,255
“ December,....	30,632,929	4,120,340	4,155,554
1843—January,.....	31,628,624	3,892,533	4,053,730	29,579,088
“ February,.....	37,903,518	3,890,874	3,912,323
“ March,.....	31,987,280	3,907,230	3,917,965
“ April,.....	32,340,136	3,933,906	3,780,222
“ June,.....	32,762,313	4,053,952	3,825,772
“ July,.....	32,443,990	4,071,220	3,830,298
“ August,	31,695,439	4,084,220	3,915,404	36,514,332
“ September,...	31,339,338	3,848,825	3,912,992
“ October,	31,220,330	3,849,033	3,936,540
“ November,...	31,315,129	4,004,758
	Specie.			
1842—September,...	\$1,208,455	\$795,622	\$419,142	\$5,280,032
“ October,.....	1,504,661	782,230	442,825
“ November,...	1,911,954	724,340	400,415
“ December, ...	3,746,020	623,560	400,435
1843—January,.....	4,596,784	524,096	444,384	7,279,560
“ February,.....	4,708,810	692,879	484,632
“ March,.....	4,164,783	630,726	424,438
“ April,	4,717,647	639,466	471,993
“ June,.....	6,301,415	688,543	652,075
“ July,.....	6,104,086	692,130	701,125
“ August,	5,858,557	735,861	685,476	12,965,944
“ September,...	5,965,363	705,818	655,155
“ October,.....	6,352,130	716,152	662,449
“ November, ...	6,389,349	672,802

This table gives the fact that, in all sections, the same movement, in a greater or less degree, has been going on. The aggregate loans at the four points, in September, 1842 and 1843, were as follows:—

	Loans.	Specie.
September, 1842,.....	\$87,306,377	\$7,703,251
“ 1843,.....	76,236,395	20,202,107
Increase,	\$12,498,856
Decrease,	\$11,069,682

This is a singular result; and, coupled with the decrease of paper in circulation, and the import of specie into the country, indicates the magnitude of the revolution which has been going on in the moneyed system of this country. When we consider the immense increase which has taken place in products of the soil, and the exchangeable values of the country, coupled with the extreme low rates and uniformity of the internal exchanges, we become convinced of the soundness of the business doing, and the probability of a great and long-continued season of prosperity. The same features which have distinguished the banking system in this country, have also marked that of England, in a greater or a lesser degree. The revulsion which overtook the commercial world, consequent upon the failure of an English harvest, in the midst of a general and immense inflation of paper credits, powerfully shook the paper system of England, while it destroyed that of the United States. The latter is now passing to comparatively a specie currency, while the former is again on the way to inflation. The following is a table of the movements of the Bank of England, and the current rates of discount in the London market, on the dates of the bank's reports:—

MOVEMENTS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

	Current rate of interest.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Security.	Bullion.
1842—January,.....	6 p. cent.	£16,632,000	£7,948,000	£22,880,000	£5,799,000
“ February,.....	6 “	16,631,000	8,576,000	22,680,000	5,337,000
“ March,.....	4 “	16,769,000	8,954,000	23,699,000	5,687,000
“ April,.....	4 “	17,235,000	8,323,000	21,898,000	6,590,000
“ May,.....	3½ “	17,586,000	8,045,000	21,366,000	7,032,000
“ June,.....	3½ “	17,795,000	8,061,000	21,083,000	7,320,000
“ July,.....	2½ “	18,279,000	8,565,000	21,713,000	7,818,000
“ August,.....	2½ “	18,952,000	9,331,000	22,525,000	8,495,000
“ September,.....	2½ “	19,714,000	9,833,000	23,159,000	9,177,000
“ October,.....	2 “	20,074,000	9,368,000	22,573,000	9,633,000
“ November,.....	2 “	19,973,000	9,072,000	21,934,000	9,789,000
“ December,.....	2 “	19,562,000	8,957,000	21,210,000	9,984,000
1843—January,.....	1½ “	19,342,000	10,407,000	21,672,000	10,705,000
“ February,.....	1½ “	19,739,000	11,205,000	22,695,000	10,945,000
“ March,.....	1½ “	20,073,000	12,003,000	23,837,000	11,054,000
“ April,.....	1½ a 2 p. ct.	20,233,000	11,634,000	23,587,000	11,190,000
“ May,.....	1½ a. “	19,853,000	11,155,000	22,696,000	11,291,000
“ June,.....	1½ a. “	19,521,000	10,495,000	21,604,000	11,472,000
“ July,.....	1½ a. “	19,280,000	10,724,000	21,462,000	11,615,000
“ August,.....	1½ a. “	19,358,000	11,218,000	21,890,000	11,820,000
“ September,.....	1½ a. “	19,496,000	11,724,000	22,394,000	12,018,000
“ October,.....	2 a 2 “

From January, 1842, up to the present time, it appears that specie in bank has rapidly and uninterruptedly accumulated; and the increase is now near 200 per cent, equal to near \$65,000,000. The amount of bullion on hand has not been so high since the close of 1823, when it stood at £14,000,000, with a circulation of £19,000,000. At that time commenced that enormous speculation in foreign stocks, which produced the disastrous revulsion of 1825. In those years, near \$250,000,000 of foreign stocks were negotiated in London; and conducted, to a great extent, to the terrible revulsion which followed, by

producing a drain of bullion from England, which was not easily recovered. Those loans were made to most of the small states, both of Europe and South America. The following is a statement of the greater proportion of them:—

FOREIGN LOANS CONTRACTED IN ENGLAND.					
Name of Loan.	Contractors.	Year.	Rate of int.	Rate of issue.	Am't of loan.
Austrian,.....	Rothschild.	1823	5 per cent.	82	£2,500,000
Belgian,.....	Rothschild.	1822	5	75	3,000,000
Brazilian,.....	Wilson & Co.	1824	5	75	3,200,000
Brazilian,.....	Rothschild.	1825	5	85	2,000,000
Buenos Ayres,....	Rothschild & Wilson.	1829	5	...	800,000
Chili,	Barings.	1824*	6	85	1,000,000
Colombian,	Hallett.	1822*	6	70	1,000,000
Colombian,	Herring & Co.	1822*	6	84	2,000,000
Danish,.....	Goldschmidt.	1824*	6	88½	4,750,000
Greek,.....	Wilson.	1825	3	75	5,500,000
Greek,.....	Ricardos.	1825	5	56½	2,000,000
Guatemala,	Loughman.	1824*	5	59	800,000
Guadelquiver,	Powles.	1825*	6	73	1,428,571
Mexican,.....	Ellward.	1825*	5	60	600,000
Mexican,.....	Goldschmidt.	1824*	5	58	3,200,000
Neapolitan,.....	Barclay.	1825*	6	89½	3,200,000
Russian,.....	Rothschild.	1824	5	92½	2,500,000
Russian,.....	Rothschild.	1818	5	72	5,000,000
Portuguese,.....	Rothschild.	1822	5	84	3,500,000
Peruvian,	Goldschmidt.	1823	5	87	1,500,000
Peruvian,	Keys & Chapman.	1822	6	88	850,000
Peruvian,	Keys & Chapman.	1824*	6	82	750,000
Russian,	Keys & Chapman.	1825	6	78	616,000
Russian,	Rothschild.	1822	5	82	3,500,000
Spanish,	Haldimanes.	1821*	5	56	1,500,000
Spanish,	Campbell & Co.	1823*	5	30½	1,500,000
Other loans,.....	Various firms.	to 1838	4 to 5 p. ct.	...	10,000,000
Several U. States,.	Various firms.	to 1839*	5 to 5 p. ct.	80 to par.	30,000,000

Total loans,..... £96,794,571

Those marked * are delinquent in their interests, and the amount is large. We have marked the United States loans in the same manner, although but a portion of them are delinquent; yet the odium extends over all.

Here was a sum of money, extending to nearly the incredible sum of \$500,000,000, loaned out of England, and a large proportion of it lost. The certificates representing it are floating, at nominal prices, upon the London stock exchange—a standing warning against the embarkation in such another speculation. Hence, notwithstanding the extreme abundance of money in London, the accumulation of coin in the bank, and the low rate of interest, the prejudice against foreign stocks seems rather to increase than subside. This feeling is a great drawback upon the export trade of Britain. Of the above large amount of capital sent out of the kingdom, but a small proportion of it was actually money. It consisted, for the most part, in English manufactured goods, furnished to the borrowing country from the manufacturing districts, on the credits opened to their account by the capitalists of London. Of this nature, consisted nearly all the American loans. The proceeds were consumed here, on the credit of banking institutions which have ceased to exist, and the indebtedness of the consumers has been wiped out by the operation of the bankrupt law; while England, having sold her wares at a profit, claims a perpetual annual tribute from all the countries, equal to \$25,000,000, except from the United States, where the tribute is for twenty years' continuance. These corporate and government credits have been powerful instruments in promoting the export trade of Great Britain; and their cessation is a leading cause in the depression of trade.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COTTONS, LINENS, WOOLLENS, WORSTEDS, AND BLANKETS,

EXPORTED FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK, PHILADELPHIA, BOSTON, AND BALTIMORE.

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the quantity of cottons, linens, woollens, worsteds, and blankets, exported from Liverpool to New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Baltimore, in the first nine months of each of the last eight years; that is, from 1836 to 1843, inclusive. It is derived from the circular of Messrs. Gibson, Ord & Co., of Leeds; and gives a very accurate indication of the progress of trade. It will be seen that the exports of cottons in 1843 have been far less than for any year of the series; and, of any of the other articles, they exceed the extremely low exports of last year.

EXPORTS FROM LIVERPOOL—JANUARY 1 TO SEPTEMBER 30.

Year.	Cottons.					Total. Packages.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836,.....	22,706	3,098	967	3,658		31,429
1837,.....	8,930	631	521	1,081		11,163
1838,.....	10,926	2,006	948	749		14,629
1839,.....	15,593	4,004	836	1,729		22,162
1840,.....	7,924	1,781	698	847		11,250
1841,.....	13,110	2,632	526	2,137		18,405
1842,.....	9,009	1,365	147	1,844		12,365
1843,.....	6,336	935	230	2,350		9,821
	Linens.					
1836,.....	12,361	1,854	671	1,099		15,985
1837,.....	4,359	584	431	489		5,863
1838,.....	7,585	1,411	400	629		10,025
1839,.....	10,638	3,121	665	1,084		15,508
1840,.....	6,665	1,504	494	788		9,451
1841,.....	12,383	2,618	378	1,504		16,863
1842,.....	7,156	1,357	146	924		9,583
1843,.....	8,615	852	349	1,154		10,970
	Woollens.					
1836,.....	17,184	4,168	1,635	1,924		24,911
1837,.....	6,458	1,517	514	189		8,678
1838,.....	8,723	1,540	1,022	584		11,869
1839,.....	14,231	2,739	1,571	847		19,388
1840,.....	4,836	969	676	488		6,969
1841,.....	8,556	1,586	620	862		11,624
1842,.....	7,600	712	255	876		9,443
1843,.....	9,378	1,194	646	1,293		12,511
	Worsteds.					
1836,.....	5,906	402	219	1,606		8,133
1837,.....	3,232	681	157	327		4,397
1838,.....	4,924	598	93	236		5,851
1839,.....	5,497	1,170	128	661		7,456
1840,.....	2,890	272	63	394		3,619
1841,.....	4,740	869	87	1,241		6,937
1842,.....	3,670	477	...	953		5,100
1843,.....	3,853	573	16	1,480		5,922
	Blankets.					Total Blankets.
1836,.....	3,862	817	153	298	5,130	84,588
1837,.....	2,039	244	123	71	2,477	32,578
1838,.....	1,341	142	77	85	1,645	44,019
1839,.....	2,961	452	95	234	3,742	68,256
1840,.....	834	172	69	98	1,173	32,462
1841,.....	1,548	379	127	172	2,226	56,075
1842,.....	1,588	41	...	155	1,784	38,275
1843,.....	1,607	174	46	136	1,963	41,187

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The annual statement of the commerce of New Orleans, embracing the imports of produce, &c., from the interior, into New Orleans, and the exports of the great staples, as cotton, tobacco, sugar, molasses, flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, whiskey, &c., is made up to the 31st of August in each year, with great care and accuracy, by the editor of the New Orleans Price Current, Commercial Intelligencer, and Merchants' Transcript. In the Merchants' Magazine, for November, 1841, Vol. V., No. V., we published these tables entire, embracing a period of ten years, from 1831 to 1841; and in the number for October, 1842, we continued the statement, bringing it down from the 1st of September, 1841, to the 31st of August, 1842. We now proceed to lay before our readers a statement of the commerce of New Orleans for 1843. We give—

1.—Exports of Cotton from New Orleans, for the year commencing 1st of September, and ending 31st of August, 1843.

Whither exported.	1842-43.	Whither exported.	1842-43.
Liverpool,bales	624,681	Spain and Gibraltar,.....bales	401
London,.....	61	West Indies,.....	21,177
Glasgow and Greenock,.....	35,831	Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....	17,662
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,.....	15,939	China,.....	4,303
Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....	2,926	Other foreign ports,.....	1,342
Havre,.....	159,658	New York,.....	48,036
Bordeaux,.....	2,861	Boston,.....	73,891
Marseilles,.....	9,982	Providence, R. I.,.....	674
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen,.....	8,374	Philadelphia,.....	3,253
Amsterdam,.....	2,593	Baltimore,.....	3,278
Rotterdam and Ghent,.....	2,173	Portsmouth,.....
Bremen,.....	13,303	Other coastwise ports,.....	5,000
Antwerp, &c.,.....	17,693		
Hamburg,.....	13,664	Total,.....	1,088,870
Gottenburg,.....	114		

2.—Exports of Tobacco from New Orleans, for the year commencing 1st September, 1842, and ending on the 31st of August, 1843.

Whither exported.	1842-43.	Whither exported.	1842-43.
Liverpool,hhds.	6,788	Spain and Gibraltar,.....hhds.	4,496
London,.....	9,851	West Indies,.....	1,063
Glasgow and Greenock,.....	Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....	1,760
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,.....	10,798	China,.....
Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....	Other foreign ports,.....	217
Havre,.....	4,648	New York,.....	10,533
Bordeaux,.....	2,332	Boston,.....	3,650
Marseilles,.....	4,660	Providence, R. I.,.....
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen,.....	Philadelphia,.....	2,845
Amsterdam,.....	2,700	Baltimore,.....	2,433
Rotterdam and Ghent,.....	2,933	Portsmouth,.....
Bremen,.....	7,888	Other coastwise ports,.....	2,194
Antwerp, &c.,.....	5,657		
Hamburg,.....	1,477	Total,.....	89,891
Gottenburg,.....	963		

3.—Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco, at New Orleans, for ten years, from September 1, to August 31, in each year.

Years.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HHDS.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1842-43,.....	1,089,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,891	4,873
1841-42,.....	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,255
1840-41,.....	822,870	821,288	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839-40,.....	954,455	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838-39,.....	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,852	1,294
1837-38,.....	742,720	738,313	9,570	37,588	35,555	3,834
1836-37,.....	695,813	588,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,857
1835-36,.....	495,442	491,495	4,586	50,555	43,098	10,456
1834-35,.....	536,172	536,991	3,649	35,059	33,801	1,821
1833-34,.....	467,984	461,026	4,682	25,881	25,210	717

4.—Imports into New Orleans, from the interior, from the 1st of September, 1842, to the 31st August, 1843.

Articles.	1842-43.	Articles.	1842-43.
Apples,.....bbls.	67,803	Hay,.....bundles	28,059
Bacon, asst.,.....casks	16,568	Iron, pig,.....tons	211
Bacon hams,.....hhds.	13,588	Lard,.....hhds.	1,433
Bacon in bulk,.....lbs.	1,453,798	Lard,.....bbls.	104,540
Bagging,.....pieces	89,721	Lard,.....kegs	307,871
Bale rope,.....coils	89,932	Lime, western,.....bbls.	1,159
Beans,.....bbls.	8,878	Lead,.....pigs	571,949
Butter,.....kegs	18,530	Lead, bar,.....kegs	701
Butter,.....bbls.	894	Lead, white,.....	50
Beeswax,.....bbls.	985	Oats,.....bbls.	120,430
Beeswax,.....lbs.	2,677	Onions,.....	4,614
Beef,.....bbls.	17,549	Oil, linseed,.....	1,356
Beef, dried,.....lbs.	51,400	Oil, castor,.....	4,976
Buffalo robes,.....packs	5,135	Oil, lard,.....	1,818
Cotton, La. and Miss.,.....bales	824,045	Peach brandy,.....	72
" Lake,.....	14,289	Pickles,.....kegs and bbls.	445
" N. Ala. and Tenn.,.....	191,410	Potatoes,.....bbls.	48,060
" Arkansas,.....	30,511	Pork,.....	204,643
" Mobile,.....	10,687	Pork,.....hhds.	2,371
" Florida,.....	3,381	Pork, in bulk,.....lbs.	6,814,750
" Texas,.....	15,328	Porter and ale,.....bbls.	1,050
Corn meal,.....bbls.	5,415	Packing yarn,.....reels	1,465
Corn in ears,.....	255,058	Skins, deer,.....packs	1,496
Corn, shelled,.....sacks	427,552	Skins, bear,.....	97
Cheese,.....casks	3,572	Shot,.....kegs	1,588
Candles,.....boxes	1,271	Sugar,.....hhds.	65,036
Cider,.....bbls.	1,026	Soap,.....boxes	2,627
Coal, western,.....	255,568	Shingles,.....	147,000
Dried peaches,.....	718	Staves,.....	1,165,400
" apples,.....	958	Tallow,.....bbls.	6,995
Flaxseed,.....tierces	13,489	Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds.	91,454
Flour,.....bbls.	521,175	Tobacco, chewing,.....kegs	4,902
Furs,.....boxes	37	Tobacco,.....bales	3,008
Furs,.....bundles	326	Twine,.....bundles	1,903
Feathers,.....bags	1,484	Whiskey,.....bbls.	83,597
Hemp,.....bundles	14,873	Window glass,.....boxes	2,342
Hides,.....	45,957	Wheat,.....bbls. and sacks	118,248
Horns,.....	1,700		

5.—Exports of Sugar and Molasses from New Orleans, for the year 1843, (up the river excepted,) commencing 1st of September, and ending 31st of August.

1842-43.

Whither exported.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,.....	31,549	7,285	28,030
Philadelphia,.....	14,474	708	1,288	9,091
Charleston, S. C.,.....	1,090	100	63	3,986
Savannah,.....	240	1,640
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,.....	576	106
Boston,.....	2,814	976	4,809
Baltimore,.....	8,660	663	1,162	8,459
Norfolk,.....	610	28	947
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,.....	2,337	216	2,316
Alexandria, D. C.,.....	592	575
Mobile,.....	3,011	375	3,313
Apalachicola and Pensacola,.....	565	306	2,260
Other ports,.....	102	100	800	1,369
Total,.....	66,044	2,280	12,366	66,901

6.—Exports of Flour, Pork, Bacon, Lard, Beef, Lead, Whiskey, and Corn, from New Orleans, for the year commencing the 1st of September, 1842, and ending on the 31st of August, 1843.

Destination.	1842-43.							
	Flour. Bbls.	Pork. Bbls.	Bacon. Hhds.	Lard. Kegs.	Beef. Bbls.	Lead. Pigs.	Whisk. Bbls.	Corn. Sacks.
New York,.....	101,336	69,275	6,669	203,057	1,140	225,077	5,402	160,707
Boston,.....	81,955	60,278	1,359	115,475	561	112,670	216	166,599
Philadelphia,....	3,540	4,794	1,363	8,953	55,594	534	2,873
Baltimore,.....	67	6,881	1,343	12,630	12,765	2,573
Charleston,.....	1,494	137	2,906	3,441	30	2,613	20,507
Other coast pts.,	40,717	6,974	6,678	6,705	638	20,663	128,266
Cuba,.....	26,747	550	255	88,607	150	510	50
Other for. ports.,	82,916	10,885	2,810	298,861	1,905	135,556	135	193,314
Total,.....	338,772	159,774	23,383	737,729	4,424	542,172	32,136	672,316

7.—Monthly Arrivals, at New Orleans, of Ships, Barques, Brigs, Schooners, and Steamboats, from September 1st, 1842, to August 31st, 1843.

Months.	1842-43.					Steamboats.
	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.	
September,.....	16	7	9	15	47	124
October,.....	53	10	27	15	105	145
November,.....	124	35	30	35	224	185
December,.....	67	41	49	38	195	266
January,.....	39	28	54	35	156	285
February,.....	47	30	77	70	224	246
March,.....	75	50	95	83	303	240
April,.....	60	25	82	79	246	221
May,.....	105	28	47	50	230	220
June,.....	57	16	38	45	156	175
July,.....	24	7	7	34	72	127
August,.....	12	6	17	25	60	90
Total,.....	679	283	532	524	2,018	2,324

8.—Direct Imports of Coffee, Sugar, and Salt, into New Orleans, for three years—from September 1 to August 31, in each year, since 1840.

	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.
Coffee, Havana,.....bags	67,183	37,509	78,470
Coffee, Rio,.....	85,438	126,610	85,231
Sugar, Havana,.....boxes	2,333	7,736	11,636
Salt, Liverpool,.....sacks	239,427	156,781	187,678
Salt, Turk's Island, &c.,.....bush.	129,520	113,400	192,694

9.—Statement of Cotton.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	bales	4,428
Arrived since the 25th ultimo,.....		1,079
Arrived previously,.....		1,088,563
Total receipts for twelve months,.....		1,089,642
		1,094,070
Exported since 24th ultimo,.....	683	
Exported previously,.....	1,085,187	
Total exports for twelve months,.....		1,085,870
Add—sent coastwise, not cleared,.....		1,000
“ Shipped to western states,.....		2,000
Loss in re-picking, burned, &c.,.....		500
		1,089,370
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	bales	4,700

10.—Statement of Tobacco.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	hhds.	2,255
Arrived since 25th ultimo,.....	335	
Arrived previously,.....	91,089	
Total receipts for twelve months,.....	91,424	
Accumulated by reprisal and stripping,.....	1,085	
	<hr/>	92,509
		<hr/>
		94,764
Exported since 25th ultimo,.....	905	
Exported previously,.....	88,986	
Total exports for twelve months,.....	89,891	
	<hr/>	89,891
		<hr/>
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	hhds.	4,873

REMARKS.

It seems, from the foregoing statements, that, for the year ending September 1st, the imports into New Orleans are valued at ten and a half millions of dollars, which, of course, falls short of the real amount. It is remarked that, notwithstanding the large receipts during the year, the stocks on hand were never at a lower point before. Notwithstanding the large supply of cotton through the year, only about 1,800 bales remain on hand.

The exports of this article have largely increased. To Great Britain have been shipped 679,438 bales, greater than last year's export by 257,988 bales. France has taken less; and, indeed, the export to that country has steadily declined since 1839-40, when the quantity was 240,490 bales. The last year, it was but 183,875. The north of Europe has taken a large amount compared with former years; and there is an increase of the export to the northern states, but they still receive less than in 1840-41. The whole amount exported during the year closing with September 1st, was 1,088,870 bales—the receipts for the same time were 1,075,394.

The total receipts of cotton at all the ports, (New Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, Charleston, Florida, Virginia, North Carolina,) were 2,383,245 bales. Increase over the receipts of 1841-42, 702,979. The gulf states furnished nearly three-fourths of the whole amount for export.

The total number of hogsheads of tobacco exported during the year was 89,891; more than double the number in 1839-40, and 20,000 more than in 1841-42. Since 1834-35, there has been a small increase of the export to the northern states.

The sugar crop of last year was abundant, turning out from 40,000 to 45,000 more hogsheads than in 1841. Notwithstanding this, the average of the prices was higher than last year, owing, it is supposed, to the increased duties on foreign sugars, and the diminished product of the West Indies. The average of sugar exported coastwise, during the year, was 66,044 hogsheads, and 2,280 barrels.

The receipts of western produce have been large, and the prices much better sustained than was at first anticipated. An unusual quantity has been forwarded directly to other markets on country account; and to such an extent was this carried, that during the months of April and May, when the receipts were largest, the quantity actually on sale, of some descriptions, was inadequate to meet the demand.

The present stocks, except lard, and some descriptions of bacon, are not considered heavy; and the supply of salted provisions, such as pork and beef, is unusually light—so that there is likely to be a tolerably bare market for the reception of another year's product. As to the prospects of the ensuing year, ready sales, at favorable prices, are anticipated.

EXPORTS FROM FRANKLIN, LA.

Statement of Exports, by Sea, out of the State, from the port of Franklin, District of Teche, from 30th September, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

Whither exported.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		LIVE OAK.	MOSS.
	Hhds.	Bbbs.	Hhds.	Bbbs.	Feet.	Bales.
Portsmouth,	12,300
Norfolk,	270	42	318	36,000
Charleston,	1,481	10	1,722
New York,	2,138	1	3,727	1,445	33,400	39
Mobile,	317	176	458
Richmond,	507	119	149
Philadelphia,	503	25	500	47
Baltimore,	115	100	140
New Haven,	330	9
Total,	5,331	26	4,474	4,732	81,700	95

Statement of the Number of Vessels from the port of Franklin, District of Teche, with the aggregate tonnage, from 30th September, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

OUTWARD BOUND.

	No. of vessels.	Total.
From September 30, to December 31, 1842,	21	2,618.92
“ December 31, 1842, to March 31, 1843,	47	5,573.00
“ March 31, to June 30, 1843,	26	2,866.69
Total,	94	11,038.66

INWARD BOUND.

From September 30, to December 31, 1842,	32	3,852.10
“ December 3, 1842, to March 31, 1843,	43	4,805.46
“ March 31, to June 30, 1843,	16	1,983.75
Total,	91	10,641.36

COMMERCE OF APALACHICOLA, FLORIDA.

Number of Clearances from Apalachicola, from 1st January, 1835, to 30th September in each year, to 1843.

	Schrs.	Brigs.	Barques.	Ships.		Schrs.	Brigs.	Barques.	Ships.
1835,	82	49	2	13	1840,	84	56	12	26
1836,	99	51	11	24	1841,	88	79	14	24
1837,	93	68	10	16	1842,
1838,	102	55	8	17	1843,	10	91	33	49
1839,	92	37	8	17					

It will be observed that the list of clearances commences on the first day of January each year; therefore, it will take three months more to complete the list for 1843.

TONNAGE.

The amount of tonnage for the year ending September 30, 1843, is 60,625.

EXPORTS.

The value of foreign exports from this port, for the year ending 30th September, as per custom-house books, is,	\$1,282,364 08
Estimated value of exports coastwise,	1,602,591 00
Total,	\$2,884,956 08

In this calculation for coastwise exports, nothing has been added for export of lumber, staves, cedar, hides, furs, tallow, &c.

IMPORTS OF SILK MANUFACTURES INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Greeley & McElrath have published No. VI. of their series of "Useful Works for the People," in a pamphlet of eighty pages, entitled "The Silk Culture of the United States; embracing complete accounts of the latest and most approved modes of hatching, rearing, and feeding the silkworm, manufacturing the silk, &c.; with brief historical sketches of the silk business, natural history of the silkworm, &c. Illustrated by numerous engravings of machinery, and progress, &c." It is the most valuable manual for those engaged, or otherwise interested in the silk culture, that has fallen under our observation. The following table, exhibiting the value of importations of silk manufactures into the United States, from foreign countries, and exports of the same, from 1821 to 1841, inclusive, being a period of twenty-one years, was compiled from official documents, expressly for this work:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Year.	Imports.	Exports.
1821.....	\$4,486,924	\$1,057,233	1833.....	\$9,310,856	\$1,266,416
1822.....	6,480,928	1,016,262	1834.....	2,626,997	896,801
1823.....	6,713,771	1,512,449	1835.....	16,597,983	765,501
1824.....	7,203,284	1,816,325	1836.....	22,889,684	760,822
1825.....	10,271,527	2,965,442	1837.....	15,133,064	1,207,812
1826.....	7,104,837	3,234,720	1838.....	9,842,276	666,529
1827.....	6,545,245	1,690,126	1839.....	21,678,086	750,916
1828.....	7,608,614	1,223,184	1840.....	9,761,223	1,212,721
1829.....	7,048,628	920,958	1841.....	15,511,009	580,756
1830.....	5,774,010	952,079			
1831.....	10,804,393	1,041,610	Total..	\$210,541,051	\$26,827,285
1832.....	7,147,712	1,288,323			
Total imports for 21 years.....					\$210,541,051
“ exports “.....					26,827,285
Consumption for 21 years.....					\$183,713,766
Annual average for 21 years.....					\$8,748,274
And, including the estimated consumption of foreign silks for 1842 and 1843, amounts, for 24 years, to.....					\$200,000,000

RAW SILK.

Imports and Exports of Foreign Raw Silk, (included for the above,) for five years.

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Year.	Imports.	Exports.
1837.....	\$211,694	\$118,434	1841.....	\$254,102	\$227,113
1838.....	29,938	79,251			
1839.....	39,258	4,692	Total,...	\$769,227	\$629,719
1840.....	234,235	200,239			

In 1839, we purchased of other countries silk to the amount of nearly \$23,000,000, as follows:—

Silks from India and China, piece goods.....	\$1,738,509
“ “ “ sewings.....	50,650
“ sewings from other places.....	78,884
“ raw.....	39,258
“ from other places than India—veils, shawls, &c., &c.....	345,490
“ other manufactures, from other places than India.....	18,685,295
Manufactures of silk and worsted, \$2,319,884, (allowing one-half the value to be silk,).....	1,159,942
Total.....	\$22,838,028

The importations of silk are one-fourth more than of any other article.

The amount of cotton manufactures imported was.....	\$14,692,397
Of iron.....	12,051,668
Of cloths and cassimeres.....	7,025,898
Other woollen manufactures.....	3,507,161
One-half the value of silks and worsteds.....	1,159,942
Total woollen goods.....	18,831,907

In the Burlington (N. J.) Silk Record, for January, 1842, it is stated that in England the importation of raw silk, from the year 1821 to 1828, was 24,157,568 lbs.; which, when manufactured, was worth £120,770,580 sterling; and the hands required for its manufacture were more than 400,000. This sum is equal to \$536,222,237, or \$76,190,462 each year. Of this amount, Italy alone furnished \$59,881,233. In 1835, Great Britain consumed, at wholesale prices, to the value of \$28,282,582 of manufactured silks. The sum paid to weavers alone, not taking into the account what was paid for throwing, winders, doublers, drawers, warpers, the soap, the dye-stuffs, and to various mechanics, was little short of \$14,000,000. The amount of silk goods, now produced in that kingdom, is stated to be \$75,000,000; but they raise not a pound of the *raw material*.

EXPORTS OF PETERSBURGH AND RICHMOND—1841-43.

We are indebted to a correspondent residing at Richmond, Va., for the following comparative statement of the exports of tobacco, cotton, and flour, from Petersburg and Richmond, for three years, commencing October 1st, 1840, and ending 30th September, 1841, 1842, and 1843:—

	1841.	1842.	1843.		1841.	1842.	1843.
Tobacco, .hhds.	34,662	32,565	36,236	Cotton, ...bales	5,152	5,678	1,817
Stems,.....	6,172	3,245	2,000	Flour,bbls.	47,505	48,464	73,726

These exports went to Cowes, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Havre, Bordeaux, Bremen, Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Marseilles, Trieste, Genoa, Rio, Pernambuco, &c., &c.

TOTAL INSPECTIONS OF TOBACCO IN VIRGINIA, ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER,

	1841.	1842.	1843.
Tobacco inspected,.....hhds.	51,994	52,743	56,792
Stock on hand,.....	9,080	11,100	12,000

INSPECTIONS OF FLOUR IN RICHMOND, ENDING 30TH JUNE,

1841,.....	162,896 bbls.	1843,.....	184,677 bbls.
1842,.....	134,244 "		

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO AND FLOUR FROM JAMES RIVER.

Exports of Tobacco and Flour from James River, Virginia, from October 1st, 1842, to September 30th, 1843.

To	Hhds.	Tierces and kegs.	To	Hhds.	Tierces and kegs.	Stems.
London,.....	4,867	468	Dunkirk,.....	435
Liverpool,.....	4,030	537	Rotterdam,....	4,073	302
Bristol,.....	489	Amsterdam, .	2,282	19
Glasgow,.....	253	Bremen,	3,013	1,243
Leith,.....	294	Antwerp,.....	4,814
Cowes, &c., for orders,.	5,459	Stockholm, ...	60	136
Havre,.....	2,979	Trieste,.....	452
Bordeaux,.....	697				
Marseilles,.....	512	Total,.....	34,619	1,005	1,700

Exports of Flour from James River, from October 1, 1842, to September 30, 1843.

To South America,.....	bbls.	58,135
" Great Britain,.....		6,954
" West Indies,.....		3,364
Total,.....		68,453

A COMMERCIAL PANIC IN 1782.

When it happened, says the Liverpool Mail, that between 1782, and April, 1783, some 7012 bags of cotton were imported, a perfect panic was produced by this unusual supply. During the last week, however, some 130,000 bags were imported into Liverpool alone, without producing the most trifling decline in prices! What a contrast.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE NEW CHINESE TARIFF.

A Bristol correspondent of the London Morning Herald has reduced the duties levied by the new Chinese tariff to English weights, measures, and moneys, as annexed. The same rate of duties are applicable to American commerce:—

EXPORTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1. Alum,.....cwt.	0	0	6	38. Nankeen and cotton cloths, of all kinds,.....cwt.	0	5	0½
2. Anniseed, star,.....	0	2	6¼	39. Pictures, viz: large paint- ings,.....each	0	0	7¼
" oil of,.....	1	5	2½	40. Paper fans,.....cwt.	0	2	6¼
3. Arsenic,.....	0	3	9¼	41. Paper of all kinds,.....	0	2	6¼
4. Bangles, or glass armlets,...	0	2	6¼	42. Pearls, (i. e., false pearls,)..	0	2	6¼
5. Bamboo screens, and bam- boo wares of all kinds,....	0	1	0	43. Preserves and sweetmeats, of all kinds,.....	0	2	6¼
6. Brass leaf,.....	0	7	6¼	44. Rattan work of all kinds,...	0	1	0
7. Building materials,.....	Duty free.			45. Rhubarb,.....	0	5	0½
8. Bone and hornware.....	0	5	0½	46. Silk, raw, whether from Chekiang, Canton, or else- where, all kinds,.....	2	10	4¼
9. Camphor,.....	0	7	6¼	Coarse or refuse silk,.....	0	13	7¼
10. Canes of all kinds, per 1,000,	0	3	0	Rice paper pictures, pr. 100,	0	0	7¼
11. Capoor cutchery,.....cwt.	2	1	10	Organzine, all kinds,.....	2	12	4¼
12. Cassia,.....	0	3	9¼	Ribands, threads, &c.,.....	2	10	4¼
" buds,.....	0	5	0½	Silk piece-goods of all kinds, as silks, satins, pongees, velvets, crapes, lustrings, &c.,.....	3	0	5¼
" oil,.....	1	5	2½	N. B.—The additional duty of so much per piece, hith- erto levied, to be hence- forth abolished.			
13. China roat,.....	0	1	0	47. Silk and cotton mixtures, silk and woollen mixtures, and goods of such classes,	0	15	1½
14. Chinaware, all kinds,.....	0	2	6¼	48. Shoes and boots of leather, satin, or otherwise,.....	0	1	0
15. Clothes, ready made,.....	0	2	6½	49. Sandal-wood ware,.....	0	5	0½
16. Copperware, pewter do., &c.,.....	0	2	6¼	50. Soy,.....	0	2	0¼
17. Corals, or false coral,.....	0	2	6¼	51. Silver and gold ware,.....	2	10	4¼
18. Crackers and fireworks of all kinds,.....	0	3	9¼	52. Sugar, white and brown,...	0	1	3
19. Cubebs,.....	0	7	0¼	53. Sugar-candy, all kinds,....	0	1	9¼
20. Fans, as feather-fans, &c.,	0	5	0½	54. Tinfoil,.....	0	2	6¼
21. Furniture of all kinds,.....	0	1	0	55. Tea,.....	0	12	7¼
22. Galingal,.....	0	0	6	56. Tobacco of all kinds,.....	0	1	0
23. Gamboge,.....	0	10	1	57. Turmeric,.....	0	1	0
24. Glass and glassware of all kinds,.....	0	2	6¼	58. Tortoiseshell ware,.....	2	10	4¼
25. Glass beads,.....	0	2	6¼	59. Trunks of leather,.....	0	1	0
26. Glue, as fish glue, &c.,....	0	2	6¼	60. Treasure, (i. e., coin of all kinds,).....	free.		
27. Grass cloths, all kinds,....	0	5	0½	61. Vermilion,.....cwt.	0	15	1½
28. Hartall,.....	0	2	6¼				
29. Ivoryware, all kinds,.....	1	5	2½				
30. Kittysols, or paper umbrel- las,.....	0	2	6¼				
31. Lackered ware, all kinds,...	0	5	0½				
32. Lead—white lead,.....	0	1	3				
33. " real lead,.....	0	2	6¼				
34. Marble slabs,.....	0	1	0				
35. Mats, straw, rattan, bam- boo, &c.,.....	0	1	0				
36. Mother-of-pearl ware,.....	0	5	0½				
37. Musk,.....lb.	0	2	6½				

** Articles unenumerated in this tariff pay a duty of 5 per cent, *ad valorem*.

IMPORTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1. Assafœtida,.....cwt.	0	5	0½	3. Betel nut,.....cwt.	0	0	9
2. Beeswax,.....	0	5	0½	4. Biche le mer, 1st qual., or b'k.,	0	4	0½

IMPORTS—Continued.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
4. Biche le mer, 2d quality, or white,.....cwt.	0	1	0	18. Fish maws,.....cwt.	0	7	9½
5. Birds' nests, 1st q., cleaned, .	1	5	2½	19. Flints,	0	0	3
" 2d " good ind.,	0	12	7½	20. Glass, glassware, and crystalware, of all kinds, 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .			
" 3d " unclean'd,	0	2	6½	21. Gambier,	0	0	9
6. Camphor, Malay, 1st quality, clean,.....lb.	0	5	0½	22. Ginseng, 1st qual.,.....	9	11	7
Camphor, Malay, 2d quality, refuse,.....	0	2	6½	" 2d " or refuse, .	0	17	7½
7. Cloves, 1st q., picked, .cwt.	0	7	6½	23. Gold and silver thread:—			
" 2d " mother,	0	2	6½	1st quality, or real,.....lb.	0	0	7½
8. Clocks, watches, spy-glasses, all kinds of writing-desks, dressing-boxes, cutlery, perfumery, &c., 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .				2d " or imitation,...	0	0	1½
9. Canvass, 30 to 40 yards long, 24 to 31 inches wide, per piece,	0	3	0	24. Gums—Benjamin,cwt.	0	5	0½
10. Cochineal,	1	5	2½	Olibanum,.....	0	2	6½
11. Cornelians, .per 100 stones,	0	3	0	Myrrh,	0	2	6½
" beads,.....cwt.	2	10	4½	Gums unenumerated, 10 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .			
12. Cotton,.....	0	2	0½	25. Horns, bullocks' and buffaloes',	0	10	1
13. Cotton, manufactured, viz:				26. Horns, unicorns' or rhinoceros',.....	0	15	1½
Long cloths, white, 30 to 40 yards long, 30 to 36 inches wide, .pr. piece,	0	0	10½	27. Linen, fine, as Irish or Scotch, — yards long, — inches wide,.....per piece	0	3	0
Cambrics and muslins, 20 to 24 yards long, 40 to 46 inches wide,.....	0	0	10½	Coarse linen, as linen and cotton mixtures, silk and linen mixtures, &c., 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Gray or unbleached cottons, viz: long cloths, domestics, &c., 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 inches wide,.....	0	0	7½	28. Mace, or flower of nutmeg,	0	5	0½
Gray twilled cottons, 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 inches wide,.....	0	0	7½	29. Mother-of-pearl shells,.....	0	1	0
Chintz and prints of all kinds, 20 to 31 yards long, 28 to 31 inches wide,.....	0	0	2½	30. Metals—viz:			
Handkerchiefs under 1 yd. square, 72 ea.,.....	0	1	0½	Copper, manufactured, as in pigs,.....	0	5	0½
Handkerchiefs above 1 yd. square, 108 ea.,.....	0	0	1	Copper, manufactured, as in sheets, rods, &c.,....	0	7	6½
Ginghams, pullicates, dyed cottons, velveteens, silk and cotton mixtures, woollen and cotton mixtures, and all kinds of fancy goods, not in current consumption, 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .				Iron, manufactured, as in pigs,.....	0	0	6
14. Cotton yarn and cotton thread,	0	5	0½	Iron, manufactured, as in bars, rods, &c.,.....	0	0	9
15. Cow bezoar,.....lb.	0	5	0½	Lead, in pigs, or manufactured,	0	2	0½
16. Cutch,	0	1	6½	Quicksilver,.....	0	15	1½
17. Elephants' teeth, 1st quality, whole,.....	1	0	2	Steel, unmanufactured,....	0	2	0½
Elephants' teeth, 2d quality, broken,.....	1	10	1	Tin,.....	0	5	0½
				Tin plates,.....	0	2	0½
				Unenumerated metals, 10 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .			
				31. Nutmegs, 1st quality, or cleaned,.....cwt.	1	10	1
				Nutmegs, 2d quality, or uncleaned,.....	0	5	0½
				32. Pepper,	0	2	0½
				33. Putehuck,.....	0	3	9½
				34. Rattans,	0	1	0
				35. Rice, paddy, and grain of all kinds,			Duty free.
				36. Rose maloes,.....cwt.	0	5	0½
				37. Saltpetre, to be sold to government agents only,....	0	1	6½
				38. Sharks' fins, 1st quality, or white,.....	0	5	0½
				Sharks' fins, 2d qual., or bl'k,	0	2	6½

tained, the penalty will be five hundred dollars, and confiscation of the goods so discharged.

The consul, having taken possession of the ship's papers, will immediately send a written communication to the superintendent of customs, specifying the register tonnage of the ship, and the particulars of cargo she has on board, all of which being done in due form, permission will then be given to discharge; the duties levied as provided for in the tariff.

IV. COMMERCIAL DEALINGS BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE MERCHANTS.—It having been stipulated that English merchants may trade with whatever native merchants they please, should any Chinese merchants fraudulently abscond or incur debts which they are unable to discharge, the Chinese authorities, on complaint being made thereof, will of course do their utmost to bring the offenders to justice; it must, however, be distinctly understood, that, if the defaulter really cannot be found, or be dead, or bankrupt, and there be not wherewith to pay, the English merchant may not appeal to the former custom of the Hong merchants paying for one another, and can no longer expect their losses made good to them.

V. TONNAGE DUES.—Every English merchantman, on entering any of the above-mentioned five ports, shall pay tonnage dues at the rate of five mace per register ton, in full of all charges. The fees formerly levied on entry and departure, of every description, are henceforth abolished.

VI. IMPORT AND EXPORT DUTIES.—Goods, whether imported to, or exported from, any one of the above-mentioned five ports, are henceforward to be taxed according to the tariffs as now fixed and agreed upon, and no farther sums are to be levied beyond those which are specified in the tariff. All duties incurred by an English merchant vessel, whether on goods imported or exported, or in the shape of tonnage dues, must first be paid up in full; which done, the superintendent of customs will grant a port clearance, and this being shown to the British consul, he will thereupon return the ship's papers and permit the vessel to depart.

VII. EXAMINATION OF GOODS AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.—Every English merchant having cargo to load or discharge, must give due intimation thereof, and hand particulars of the same to the consul, who will immediately despatch a recognized linguist of his own establishment to communicate the particulars to the superintendent of customs, that the goods may be examined and neither party subjected to loss. The English merchant must have a properly qualified person on the spot to attend to his interest when his goods are being examined for duty; otherwise, should there be complaints, these cannot be attended to. Regarding such goods as are subject by the tariff to an *ad valorem* duty, if the English merchant cannot agree with the Chinese officer in fixing a value, then each party shall call two or three merchants to look at the goods, and the highest prices at which any of these merchants would be willing to purchase shall be assumed as the value of the goods. To fix the tare upon any article (such as tea,) if the English merchant cannot agree with the custom-house officer, then each party shall choose so many chests out of every one hundred, which, being first weighed in gross, shall afterward be tared, and the average tare upon these shall be assumed as the tare upon the whole, and upon this principle shall the tariff be fixed upon all other goods in packages. If there should still be any disputed points which cannot be settled, the English merchant may appeal to the consul, who will communicate the particulars of the case to the superintendent of customs, that it may be equitably arranged. But the appeal must be made on the same day, or it will not be regarded. While such points are still open, the superintendent of customs will delay to insert the same in the books, thus affording an opportunity that the merits of the case may be tried and sifted.

VIII. MANNER OF PAYING THE DUTIES.—It is herein-before provided, that every English vessel that enters any one of the five ports, shall pay all duties and tonnage dues before she is permitted to depart. The superintendent of customs will select certain shroffs, or banking establishments, of known stability, to whom he will give licenses authorising them to receive duties from the English merchants on behalf of government, and the receipts of these shroffs for any money paid them shall be considered as a government voucher. In the paying of these duties, different kinds of foreign money may be made use of, but as foreign money is not of equal purity with sycee silver, the English consuls appointed to the different ports will, according to time, place, and circumstances, arrange with the superintendent of customs at each port, what coins may be taken in payment, and what per centage may be necessary to make them equal to standard or pure silver.

IX. WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Sets of balance yards, for the weighing of goods, of money weights, and of measures, prepared in exact conformity to those hitherto in use

at the custom-house at Canton, and duly stamped and sealed in proof thereof, will be kept in possession of the superintendent of customs, and also at the British consulate, at each of the five ports, and these shall be the standard by which all duties shall be charged, and all sums paid to government. In case of any dispute arising between British merchants and the Chinese officers of customs regarding the weights or measures of goods, references shall be made to these standards, and disputes decided accordingly.

X. **LIGHTERS OR CARGO-BOATS.**—Whenever an English merchant shall have to load or discharge cargo, he may hire whatever kind of lighter or cargo-boat he pleases, and the sum to be paid for such boat can be settled between the parties themselves without the interference of government. The number of these boats shall not be limited, nor shall a monopoly of them be granted to any parties. If any smuggling take place in them, the offenders will of course be punished according to law. Should any of these boat-people, while engaged in conveying goods for English merchants, fraudulently abscond with the property, the Chinese authorities will do their best to apprehend them; but, at the same time, the English merchants must take every due precaution for the safety of their goods.

XI. **TRANSHIPMENT OF GOODS.**—No English merchant ships may tranship goods without special permission; should any urgent case happen where transhipment is necessary, the circumstances must first be submitted to the consul, who will give a certificate to that effect, and the superintendent of customs will then send a special officer to be present at the transhipment. If any one presumes to tranship without such permission being asked for and obtained, the whole of the goods so illicitly transhipped will be confiscated.

XII. **SUBORDINATE CONSULAR OFFICES.**—At any place selected for the anchorage of the English merchant ships, there may be appointed a subordinate consular officer, of approved good conduct, to exercise due control over the seamen and others. He must exert himself to prevent quarrels between the English seamen and natives, this being of the utmost importance. Should anything of the kind unfortunately take place, he will in like manner do his best to arrange it amicably. When sailors go on shore to walk, officers shall be required to accompany them; and should disturbances take place, such officers will be held responsible. The Chinese officers may not impede natives from coming alongside the ships to sell clothes or other necessaries to the sailors living on board.

XIII. **DISPUTES BETWEEN BRITISH SUBJECTS AND CHINESE.**—Whenever a British subject has reason to complain of a Chinese, he must first proceed to the consulate and state his grievance. The consul will thereupon inquire into the merits of the case, and do his utmost to arrange it amicably. In like manner, if a Chinese have reason to complain of a British subject, he shall no less listen to his complaint, and endeavor to settle it in a friendly manner. If an English merchant have occasion to address the Chinese authorities, he shall send such address through the consul, who will see that the language is becoming, and if otherwise, will direct it to be changed, or will refuse to convey the address. If, unfortunately, any disputes take place of such a nature that the consul cannot arrange them amicably, then he shall request the assistance of a Chinese officer, that they may together examine into the merits of the case and decide it equitably. Regarding the punishment of English criminals, the English government will enact the laws necessary to attain that end, and the consul will be empowered to put them in force; and regarding the punishment of Chinese criminals, they will be tried and punished by their own laws, in the way provided for by the correspondence which took place at Nanking after the concluding of the peace.

XIV. **BRITISH GOVERNMENT CRUISERS ANCHORING WITHIN THE PORTS.**—An English government cruiser will anchor within each of the five ports, that the consul may have the means of better restraining sailors and others, and preventing disturbances. But these government cruisers are not to be put upon the same footing as merchant vessels, for as they bring no merchandise and do not come to trade, they will of course pay neither dues nor charges. The resident consul will keep the superintendent of customs duly informed of the arrival and departure of such government cruisers, that he may take measures accordingly.

XV. **ON THE SECURITY TO BE GIVEN FOR BRITISH MERCHANT VESSELS.**—It has hitherto been the custom, when an English vessel entered the port of Canton, that a Chinese hong merchant stood security for her, and all duties and charges were paid through such security merchant. And these security merchants being now done away with, it is understood that the British consul will henceforth be security for all British merchant ships entering and in the aforesaid Chinese ports.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

TARIFF OF FREIGHTS ON THE SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

	FROM CHARLESTON TO	Columbia.	Hamburg.
Salt per sack, not exceeding four bushels,.....		\$0 40	\$0 40
Drygoods, shoes, saddlery, boxes furniture, hats, bonnets, and all measurement goods,.....per cubic foot,		12½	12½
Bacon, bagging, beeswax, confectionary, coffee, copper, drugs, glass, hides, hardware, lard, butter, leather, molasses in barrels, mill and grindstones, oil, paints, rope, rice, sugar, tallow, tobacco, tin, and all other articles by weight,.....per 100 lbs.		25	25
Hogsheads of molasses and oil,.....		40	40
“ “ “ if at risk of shippers,.....		25	25
Hogsheads and pipes of liquor, not exceeding 120 gallons,.....		3 00	3 00
Quarter casks and barrels of liquor, beef and pork, tongues and fish,.....each		75	75
Half barrels of liquor, beef and pork, tongues and fish,.....		50	50
Kegs of liquor, not exceeding 5 gallons,.....		25	25
“ “ “ 10 “		50	50
Demijohns, jars, and jugs, not exceeding 2 gallons,.....		25	25
“ “ “ 5 “		75	75
Carboys of vitriol,.....		1 25	1 25
Barrels of beets, bread, crackers, flour, potatoes, fruit, oysters, onions, and ice, and all light barrels,.....each		50	50
Half barrels of beets, bread, crackers, flour, potatoes, fruit, oysters, onions, and ice,.....each		37½	37½
Barrels of lime, by the car-load,.....		50	50
“ by less quantity,.....		75	75
Smiths' bellows,.....		1 50	1 50
Buckets and tubs in nests,.....		50	50
Shovels, spades, scythes, and brooms,.....per dozen		37½	37½
Chairs,.....		3 00	3 00
Rocking-chairs,.....each		75	75
Cotton-gins, fans, and mills,.....		3 50	3 50
Straw cutters,.....		1 50	1 50
Ploughs and wheelbarrows,.....		50	50
Collars,.....per dozen		75	75
Close carriages, and stage-coaches,.....each		15 00	15 00
Barouches and Phaetons,.....		10 00	10 00
Buggies and wagons,.....		7 50	7 50
Gigs, sulkeys, and common Jersey wagons, or carryalls,.....		5 00	5 00
Specie, per 1,000 dollars,.....		1 00	1 00
All small packages,.....		25	25

DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

Cotton, in round and square bales, at present rate per 100 lbs., (subject to variation by bale or by weight,).....		25	25
Cotton yarns, cotton fabrics, and indigo,.....per 100 lbs.		25	25
Grain—oats, bran, rice-flour, in sacks,.....per bushel,		8	8
“ corn meal, grist, peas, beans, ground-nuts,.....		10	10
“ wheat, rye, and grass seeds,.....		12½	12½
Hay, blades, and straw in bales,*.....per 100 lbs.		20	20
A single horse, mule, ox, or cow,.....each		10 00	10 00
Two “ “ “		7 50	7 50
Three “ “ “		6 00	6 00
Four “ “ “		5 00	5 00
Live sheep and goats, by car-load,.....		50	50
Lambs, kids, and pigs,.....		37½	37½
Calves,.....		1 00	1 00

* If sent by ton or car-load, as may be agreed upon, the owners loading and unloading.

the other from Decatur to Charleston. The sum of \$12 is to be charged from Memphis to Decatur, and the sum of \$25 from Decatur to Charleston. By this arrangement, it appears that the time from Memphis to Charleston will be six and a half days, at a charge of \$37, and to New York nine days, at a charge of \$62. According to the rates now fixed by the resolutions adopted, and the speed already established on the line, the traveller will make the trip from Tuscumbia to New York in seven days; and the expense will be \$52 for conveyance, and about \$10 for other expenses, viz:—

Tuscumbia to Decatur, railroad, 43 miles.....	\$2 00
Decatur to Madison, Ga., stage, 260 miles.....	16 00
Madison to Charleston, railroad, 241 miles.....	9 00
Charleston to Baltimore, steamboat and railroad.....	19 00
Baltimore to Philadelphia, railroad.....	3 00
Philadelphia to New York.....	3 00
	<hr/>
Eating and sleeping, say.....	\$52 00
	10 00
Total.....	<hr/>
	\$62 00

The expense from Tuscumbia to New York, by the way of Nashville, Louisville, Wheeling, &c., is \$72.

LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY.

The receipts of the company for the conveyance of passengers during the last six months, are nearly twenty-five thousand dollars less than for the corresponding period in the year 1842. Happily there has been no material decrease in the income from freight. A reduction in the disbursements, too, has fully neutralized the falling off in the gross receipts.

Receipts for the last six months,	£108,960 10s. 1d.
Expenses " "	51,897 18s. 6d.
Nett profit " "	<hr/>
	£57,062 11s. 7d.

This amount, by the addition of an undivided surplus, was increased to £60,450, equal to 5 per cent on 12,090 shares entitled to dividend. A dividend of 5 per cent was accordingly agreed to, payable on and after the 8th instant.

Great progress has been made during the last six months in the construction of the Leeds Junction line; and it is expected that a continuous line of railway from Liverpool to Leeds, York, and Hull, will be in operation early in the ensuing year.

TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE ON THE WABASH AND ERIE CANAL.

It is a fact, says the Indianapolis Journal, that we are beginning to send produce west to the New York and Boston markets. Large quantities of hemp and other articles are now being forwarded in wagons to La Fayette, some sixty-five miles northwest, by our enterprising citizens, to be sent on the Wabash and Erie canal to Boston and New York markets. For one hundred and fifty miles above this place, along the rich valley of the White river, this canal can be reached by our farmers, by travelling north and west some sixty or sixty-five miles. Heretofore, they have been compelled to transport their products in wagons one hundred and fifty to two hundred miles, to reach Cincinnati, and other points on the Ohio.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY.

WE have received from the officers of this philanthropic institution a circular, appealing to the friends of the institution for aid. The Society, having given largely of their funds, and devoted much of their time to the furtherance of the objects of the Society, feel warranted in asking aid from those who are alike interested with themselves in the moral improvement of seamen—an object so deeply affecting all the mercantile interests of this great commercial emporium.

The last call on the public was made for the means of building the Sailor's Home, which has been completed, and is now in successful operation. In relation to this institution, the Board are convinced, from careful observation, that it is fully answering the purpose for which it was established; and that it is doing more for the *protection, comfort, and moral improvement* of seamen, than any other of the means directed to this object. It is only by such an establishment as the "Home," that a prominent example can be presented of a boarding-house for seamen, which shall produce a constant moral influence; and without it, the many respectable private boarding-houses which now exist, would sink under the discouragements by which they are surrounded, growing out of the profligate character of many of the houses into which seamen are allured to their ruin. The following is a statement of the condition of the house up to the 1st of October, 1843:—

Boarders received since May, 1842.....	4,755	
“ received from 1st May, 1843, to 1st October, 1843, 5 months.....	1,771	
“ shipped in 518 vessels.....	1,497	
“ in the hospital.....	10	
“ dismissed for disorderly conduct.....	20	
“ left for other houses.....	8	
“ “ different parts of the country.....	47	
“ deceased—in hospital.....	2	
“ “ suddenly, in Walnut-street.....	1	
“ “ drowned.....	1	
	—	4
“ remaining in the house.....	185	
		1,771

Some hundreds of these men have arrived at the "Home" after shipwreck, or in poverty from other causes, and have been relieved, who, from their destitution, have necessarily departed in arrears to the house. The directors, however, believe that the relief of such is furthering the designs of the institution, and that no worthy seaman ought to be refused a kind reception. It appears that the receipts of the house, thus far, have fallen short of the expenditures, owing to the very considerable amount of arrears due from seamen. The Board have not deemed it proper to avail of any of the incidental advantages of a clothing-store, or of an allowance from those who supply seamen with clothing, or from washing, or any other perquisite, conceiving that the only proper course in these respects is one entirely disinterested. The committee believe, however, that as far as the house may have been a source of expense to the friends of seamen, the benefit to the public has been commensurate. They point with confidence to the improved character of seamen; to the sobriety and promptness with which they go on board of ship when about to sail; to their increased temperance and efficiency, and to the reasonable hope of still greater improvement in all these respects. The directors speak with the more confidence on this subject, as a large part of them are merchants and shipmasters, and well acquainted with the past and present character of seamen. The debt of the Board, which it is

the object of this effort to pay off, has been of long standing, and operates in many ways to the disadvantage of the institution. When paid, the directors confidently believe the expenditures will be met by the ordinary receipts. The committee do not dwell on the beneficial influence exerted by the chaplains of the Society abroad, on the character of the seamen, as this appeal is more especially made to the merchants and citizens of New York, with reference to the Sailor's Home. With a view to the more full satisfaction of the public, a select committee of the directors has been recently appointed to inspect, in detail, the management and condition of the Home, and the result has been perfectly satisfactory, showing that the *moral* and *religious* order of the house, and the economy of its management, are all that the friends of seamen could desire.

The following gentlemen constitute the officers of the Society:—Edward Richardson, President; Charles N. Talbot, Treasurer; Thomas Hale, Rec. Secretary; John Spaulding, Fin'l Secretary; and James Boorman, Anson G. Phelps, D. W. C. Olyphant, W. H. Aspinwall, Ephraim Corning, John C. Green, Robert B. Minturn, Augustus Whitlock, N. Briggs, Rufus Davenport, Henry Holdrege, Jasper Corning, Nathaniel W. Merrill, Peletiah Perit, Daniel Fanshaw, E. D. Hurlbut, Thomas De Witt, J. C. Brigham, Reuben Brumley, Directors.

UNITED STATES HOME LEAGUE.

The anniversary meeting of the United States Home League was held in New York on the 17th of October, 1843, at the Repository of the American Institute. We publish, by request, in another part of this Magazine, the very able report of Mr. C. C. Haven, which was read at the meeting, and unanimously adopted. The following officers were chosen for the ensuing year:—

President—Gen. James Tallmadge, New York. Vice-Presidents—Gov. Mahlon Dickin-son, New Jersey; James Brewster, Connecticut; J. W. Thompson, M. D., Delaware; Hon. Harmar Denny, Pennsylvania. Recording Secretary—L. D. Chapin, Esq., New York. Corresponding Secretary—T. B. Wakeman, Esq., New York. Treasurer—William G. Lambert, Esq., New York. Central Committee—Joseph Blunt, C. C. Haven, Adoniram Chandler, J. D. P. Ogden, Charles A. Davis, Esquires, New York city; Samuel Oakley, Esq., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Henry Burden, Esq., Troy, N. Y.; Charles S. Morgan, Esq., Virginia; John S. Riddle, Esq., Philadelphia; Joseph Grinnell, Esq., New Bedford, Mass.; Stephen Fairbanks, Esq., Boston, Mass.; William B. Kinney, Esq., New Jersey.

SHOES MANUFACTURED BY MACHINERY.

The New York Evening Post gives the following description of the manner of making shoes by a machine, owned by Mr. Ruggles, of 60 Gold-street, in this city:—The sole-leather is first pressed between wooden rollers, which makes it extremely firm and compact—much more so than hammering can do. It is then placed under a cutting machine, which, at one operation, cuts it into the proper shape. Meantime, another machine is busy making steel wire into screws of about three feet in length, all of which is done with surprising celerity. A fourth machine punches the soles with holes, inserts the screw, and cuts it off at the proper length. All that is then necessary, is to rivet the screws by a few blows with a hammer, on an anvil. The soles manufactured in this way are superior to the Napoleon, inasmuch as the rivets adhere better, and the leather is rendered more compact. They are produced with infinitely less labor, and can be afforded about 50 per cent cheaper.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*History of Europe, from the commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON. *Four volumes.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Alison's history, without controversy, will take rank among the best standard works in that department of literature. Hypercriticism can discover some defects, some repetitions, some superfluities, and even some errors; but, after all, they detract but very little from the sterling value of the narrative. We have studied the whole of the work, and, with two exceptions only, it is evident to us that Mr. Alison has well-executed a most laborious and important task, by condensing and displaying the marvellous mass of facts during the unprecedented extent and continuity of the ever-varying events of the French revolution, from the meeting of the states general until the final abdication of Napoleon. The faults which the critical reader may find with Mr. Alison's style and redundancies are easier discovered than avoided in a history published in consecutive years, and especially where the prominent themes were altogether identical. The exceptions to which we refer, are his inaccurate view of modern republican countries and political economy, as exemplified in the United States. His acquaintance with our federal compact is very inadequate, and, therefore, it is not surprising that he should have mistaken, however involuntarily, both the theory and the practice of our democratic institutions. The other objection arises from his partial and very inaccurate description of some of the occurrences, both military and naval, as well as of our interior policy and movements, during the last war with Britain. These have been corrected partly by himself and partly by Chancellor Kent, and in a series of notes appended to the seventy-sixth chapter, respecting America; by which means his inaccuracies are noticed, and in a great measure effaced. His portraiture is drawn with discrimination; and, except probably some unconscious strokes of his pencil too flattering on the tory side, and a little distorting of the whig leaders in England, we think that he has proved himself to be a master limner. His eulogy of Washington is inferior to neither of the plaudits which the attributes of our revolutionary and presidential patriot have elicited; and with the addenda in the notes of the seventy-sixth chapter, the objections to Mr. Alison's avowed anti-American sentiments are of no weight or importance; while his gallery of portraits, Chapter LX., is very graphical. Moreover, his volumes present one noble trait. They are replete with high-toned Christian morals; and though he may err in the use of his own criteria, from undue aversion or attachment, yet the applications of the rule are very apposite; and the pertinacity and frequency with which he urges and repeats the momentous doctrine of national retribution, and the claims of religion upon individuals, give a charm and a recommendation to the work which, to an American patriot and philanthropist, are overpowering. The New York copy is vastly improved by the addition of a most copious index, which is not found in the original work; so that the Harper's publication not only furnishes the author's narrative entire, but, including the notes to the seventy-sixth chapter and the index, sixty pages are supplied for the edification and advantage of the American reader. We have not the smallest fellowship of judgment or sensibility with any of Mr. Alison's anti-American notions and principles; but, exclusive of them, we have no hesitation to affirm, that the introductory and the last sections of many of his chapters, especially Chapter LX. and the concluding lucubrations in Chapter LXXVIII., are worth the price of the whole work, which, we opine, cannot be too extensively disseminated.

2.—*The Opal; a Pure Gift for the Holy Days.* Edited by N. P. WILLIS. Illustrated by J. G. CHAPMAN. New York: J. C. Riker. 1844.

This beautiful annual, for the new year, is most emphatically what it purports to be, "a pure gift for the holy days." A correct and cultivated taste has here been rendered subservient to the high moral and refined social sentiments of humanity. While the editor appears to regard religious books, devoted solely to the inculcation of the precepts of piety, as all-important, as one branch of instruction and reading, he has not forgotten that the Father who made all things for his creatures, and gave them taste, ideality, and a sense exquisitely alive to the beautiful, intended no ascetic privation of the innocent objects which minister to these faculties. The embellishments are all from original designs by Chapman, nine in number, and embrace the following subjects:—Christ Walking on the Water; Ruth and Naomi; Dream of the Consumptive; Christ by the Well of Sychar; The Mill; The Daughter of Jairus; The Deserted Wife; The Emigrant's Sabbath, and Morning; which have original letter press illustrations, in prose or verse. Among the contributors, we notice the names of Willis, Professor Bush, Richard Henry Wilde, C. F. Hoffman, H. T. Tuckerman, Park Benjamin, James Aldrich, and many other well-known and favorite writers. The articles are generally well-written, though of varied merit; but, where all are so good, we feel disinclined to compare or criticise. The paper, printing, and binding, are really beautiful, and in keeping with the high moral and literary character of the book.

3.—*The Rose of Sharon; a Religious Souvenir for 1844.* Edited by Miss SARAH C. EDGARTON. Boston: A. Tompkins. 1844.

This is the fifth year of the blossoming of the "Rose of Sharon." The literary contents have, from the commencement, been characterized for purity of thought, if not always of the highest order of literary merit; though, in this respect, not behind works of this class. The engravings in the earliest issues were execrable; but the volume for 1843 is a great improvement on those that preceded it, and the present is nearly all we can expect in view of the state of the art in this country. Indeed, the frontispiece, and two or three others, rise above mediocrity; and, on the whole, will bear a favorable comparison with its contemporaries. We have not time or space to speak of the various articles, in prose or verse, that so appropriately make up the volume; and we cannot find it in our heart to find fault with a few trifling blemishes in composition in a work abounding with pure and noble sentiments, fresh from the inspiration of a goodness so full of love for, and faith in, God and man.

4.—*The Rose; or, Affection's Gift, for 1844.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. 18mo., pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We rejoice to see a revival of annual-making; and the more so, as we notice an evident improvement in this pleasant and agreeable kind of light literature. This is, we believe, the third annual issue of the "Rose;" and, although ushered into life in an unpretending manner, it really possesses merit; and that, too, of a higher order than works of this description, designed more particularly for the younger members of society, published some five or six years ago. The engravings are the prettiest things of the kind we have seen; and the selections are generally chosen with taste, and a correct appreciation of the pure in thought, the chaste and beautiful in style.

5.—*Elijah the Tishbite.* By F. W. KRUMMACHER, D. D., author of the "Martyr Lamb," "Dew of Israel," etc. 18mo. pp. 458. New York: Robert Carter.

The author of this work is a German. The present edition is a reprint of the English translation. The admirers of German religious literature, divested of the prevailing anti-supernaturalism or rationalism of that country, considered by the most numerous class of religionists here, where it is less prevalent, as "a species of refined infidelity," will thank the American publisher for a more "evangelical" development of the Christian sentiment.

6.—*A new and complete History of the Holy Bible, as contained in the Old and New Testaments, from the Creation of the World to the full establishment of Christianity; containing a clear and comprehensive account of every remarkable transaction recorded in the Sacred Scriptures during a period of upwards of four thousand years.* With copious notes, critical and explanatory, forming an illustrated commentary of the sacred text. With numerous engravings. By ROBERT SEARS, aided by the writings of our most celebrated Biblical scholars, and other learned persons who have made the scripture their study. 8vo. pp. 672. New York: Sears & Walker. 1843.

Though the records of the sacred volume and its historical associations have gained, with every century, a deeper, and truer, and more universal homage from man; though the high and noble influence which this Book of books is continually exerting elevates it above any extraneous attraction; still do we rejoice in every effort made to illuminate its pages, or create a taste for the reverential perusal of the earliest records of man's outward history of his intellectual, social, and religious progress, and of those revelations which come through the medium of the Good, the Beautiful, and the True. A work which, by historical, geographical, and scientific researches, renders us more familiar with the country and times wherein were evolved the most remarkable events in the history of the race, from physical death in Adam to our spiritual birth in Jesus, has too universally acknowledged an interest to need a recommendation from our pen; but as regards the splendid volume before us, we cannot refrain from expressing our admiration of the spirit and manner in which the publishers have executed their noble enterprise, by saying that they have rendered the mechanical execution of the work worthy of its contents. What higher praise can we bestow?

7.—*The Governmental History of the United States of America, from the Earliest Settlement to the adoption of the present Constitution.* By HENRY SHERMAN, Counsellor at Law, New York. In four parts. 12mo. pp. 282. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1843.

The design of this work is, to place within the reach of our common schools, and the libraries for the young throughout the country, a plain and simple history of the origin of our government and institutions, with the causes which have given to them their characteristic qualities. There is, we believe, no work extant calculated particularly to aid them in making these acquisitions; while those from whence this information was derived were either too ponderous, too voluminous, or too expensive, to fall into the hands of the mass of juvenile readers. The best authorities have been consulted in its preparation, and it appears to us admirably adapted to the purposes for which it was intended by the author.

8.—*Life of Andrew Jackson, Private, Military, and Civil.* With illustrations. By AMOS KENDALL. No. 1. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have only had time to glance at the outside of this work, which is really very beautiful. "The task," says the author, "has been undertaken with the approbation of General Jackson himself, who has kindly put into the author's hands his books and papers, public and private, and on obscure points favored him with his own recollections. With these materials, with the works already published, and with the contributions of facts and papers by many of the General's associates in civil and military life, aided by his own knowledge of events occurring within the last twenty years, the author hopes to produce a work worthy of the confidence and patronage of the American people."

9.—*An Address, delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, at the Odeon, in Boston, October 3, 1843.* By PHILIP HONE. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

We regret that it is out of our power to do more than announce the publication of the excellent address of Mr. Hone. We shall make it, in a future number, the subject of an article; when we hope to render ample justice to a performance so creditable to the head and heart of its respected author.

10.—*The Huguenots in France and America.* By the author of "Three Experiments of Living," "Life and Times of Martin Luther," "Life and Times of Thomas Cranmer," etc. 2 vols., 12mo. pp. 336 and 332. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.

We have seldom read two more delightful volumes than these. The writer, an American lady, has invested historic narrative with life, clothing her in the habiliments of her day, that she may call forth the sympathies of succeeding generations. While she consults the best historians and biographers, she "always reserves to herself the right of free and impartial judgment where narratives, as is not unfrequently the case, differ." We have no fear of pronouncing an undue eulogium upon this really excellent work. The *North American Review*, in order, doubtless, to display its critical acumen, has discovered in the volume some faults of style, but goes as far as we do in bestowing commendation upon the enduring and intrinsic qualities of the work. Reference is seldom made to the numerous authors consulted, except where history has approached so near to romance as to wear the appearance of fiction. This, like all the publications of Mr. Owen, in its typographical appearance, closely resembles the style of the English press, and is not surpassed by the best of them.

11.—*Marco Paul's Adventures in Pursuit of Knowledge.* By the author of *Rollo*, *Jonas*, and *Lucy Books*. Four vols. 18mo. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co. 1843.

Four volumes, each devoted to travels in some particular region of the country, and designed to be continued. The present volumes embrace "Boston," the "Erie Canal," "City of New York," and "Vermont." The object of the series is not merely to entertain the reader with a narrative of juvenile adventures, but also to communicate, in connection with them, as extensive and varied information as possible, in respect to the geography, the scenery, the customs and institutions of the country, as they present themselves to the observation of the little traveller, who makes his excursion under the guidance of an intelligent and well informed companion, qualified to assist him in the acquisition of knowledge and in the formation of character. The author has succeeded in enlivening his narrative, and at the same time infusing into it elements of a salutary moral influence, by means of personal incidents befalling the actors in the story. These are of course imaginary; but we have the author's assurance, "upon the strict and exact truth and fidelity of all the descriptions of places, institutions and scenes which are brought before his mind in the progress of the narrative." Mr. Abbott, the author of the present series, and the "Rollo Books," is undoubtedly one of the most successful writers of juvenile literature of the time, and the interest manifested in his former works, which are universal favorites among the "little folks," will secure for these a wide circulation.

12.—*The Farmer's Daughter.* By MRS. CAMERON, author of "Emma and her Nurse," "The Two Mothers," "Fruits of Education," etc. 18mo., pp. 180. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We welcome, in this little volume, a valuable addition to the excellent series of "Tales for the People, and their Children." The story conveys high moral truths in a most attractive form; and well is it for that people who can peruse, with heartfelt satisfaction, what has been adapted to gratify the pure and innocent spirit of childhood.

Since the above was written, we have received a copy of another edition of the same work, published by Robert Carter.

13.—*Ladies' Hand-Books.* 6 Numbers. New York: J. S. Redfield. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

These elegant little volumes contain clear and ample instructions, whereby ladies may attain proficiency in the preparation of an infant's wardrobe; every department of plain and fancy needlework and embroidery; knitting, netting, and crochet; embroidery in muslin and lace-work; and cutting, millinery, and dressmaking. The six volumes form a useful series of books, each complete in itself, and are sold singly, or in sets. Each number is illustrated with engravings.

14.—*The Farmer's Encyclopædia, and Dictionary of Rural Affairs; embracing all the most recent discoveries in Agricultural Chemistry.* By C. W. JOHNSON, Esq. Adapted to the United States by a Practical Farmer. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This valuable work, published in numbers, is now completed. On announcing the work, the American publishers engaged to give sixteen numbers of sixty-four pages each. The last number contains over two hundred pages, and the volume will be found to comprise eleven hundred and seventy-three instead of ten hundred and twenty-four pages, as promised. In the American edition the localisms and inelegant portions have been supplanted, by the introduction of about 30 per cent of information more immediately relating to rural affairs in the United States. The main subjects which interest the American farmer, such as cattle, and the great crops of maize, cotton, tobacco, hemp, and other staples of the north and south, appear to have received the particular attention of the American editor. The work is adapted to the comprehension of the unscientific reader, and illustrated by numerous engravings of animals, implements, and other subjects interesting to American agriculturists.

15.—*Clements' Customs Pocket Manual.* London: Smith & Elder. New York: J. A. Sparks.

This little volume contains tables of the duties now payable upon goods imported into and exported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain, etc., and the prohibitions and restrictions applicable thereto; the duties of Excise, and the customs and excise bounties and drawbacks; the countervailing duties between England, Scotland, and Ireland, the tonnage duties in London, and the Russia Company dues, together with every existing order affecting any portion of the same. The compiler, George Clements, of the Custom-house, London, has long been connected with the British Customs, and of course competent to the preparation of such a work.

16.—*Practical Instruction in Animal Magnetism.* By J. P. F. DELEUZE. Translated by THOMAS C. HARTSHORN. 12mo. pp. 408. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is, we believe, the only faithful translation of Deleuze published in this country, and will of course take the place of several small, ill-digested works published in different places, containing instructions chiefly derived from it, without acknowledgment. It embraces the general views and principles of the mysteries of magnetism; the processes, the effects, and their indications; points out the necessary means to increase the magnetic action, and of those by which the direct action is supplied; describes the application of magnetism to diseases, and its connection with them; together with the means of developing in ourselves the faculty, and of deriving advantage from this development, &c., &c. About one-half the volume is occupied with an appendix of notes by Mr. Hartshorn, and letters from eminent physicians and others, descriptive of cases in the United States.

17.—*The Complete Cook's Book. With Additions and Alterations.* By J. M. SANDERSON, of the Franklin House. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1843.

The present volume contains a great number of plain and practical directions for cooking and housekeeping, and some seven or eight hundred receipts, consisting of directions for the choice of meat and poultry; preparations for cooking; making of broths and soups; boiling, roasting, baking, and frying of meats and fish; seasonings, colorings, cooking vegetables, preparing solids, clarifying, making of pastry, puddings, gruels, gravies, garrushee, &c., and general directions for making wines; and all for twenty-five cents.

18.—*Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.* By JOHN KITTO, editor of the "Pictorial Bible." Assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

We have received Parts III. and IV., a double number of this very learned and able work, and have, in former numbers of this Magazine, spoken of it in terms of high, but, we believe, deserved commendation. It is to be completed in fifteen parts.

19.—*Portrait of an English Churchman.* By the Rev. W. GRESLEY, M. A., Prebendary of Lichfield, author of a "Treatise on Preaching," etc. 18mo. pp. 239. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The design of the author of this volume, which is a reprint from the seventh London edition, is, "to paint the feelings, habits of thought, and mode of action which naturally flow from a sincere attachment to the system of belief and discipline adopted in the English Episcopal Church." Several chapters, in the earlier part of the work, are devoted to the discussion of what the author considers the principles of the church; but the main part of the volume is occupied upon the illustration of the practical working of these principles, setting forth their value in the commerce of daily life, and how they conduct those who embrace them in the "safe and quiet path of holy living." It forms one of the series of the "Churchman's Library," and is printed in the uniformly elegant manner of the volumes that have preceded it.

20.—*The Unity of the Church.* By HENRY E. MANNING, M. A., Archdeacon of Chichester. "Churchman's Library." New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The present volume is divided into three parts. In the first part, the author maintains that the doctrine of the unity of the Church is most necessary to be known and believed, as an object of faith, by all Christians, because "it is in the one church alone that there is a revealed way of salvation in the name of Christ." In the second part, he asserts that the unity of the church is most necessary to be known and acted on as a rule of life by all Christians, because it is a principle of moral obligation. In the third part, the doctrine of Catholic unity is applied by the author to the actual state of Christendom.

21.—*The New York Sacred Music Society's Collection of Sacred Music.* By U. C. HILL. Second edition. pp. 372. New York: Saxton & Miles.

This collection embraces a number of psalm and hymn tunes, anthems, motetts, sentences, and chants, principally by the most celebrated European composers. Of the character of the music, it is unnecessary for us to speak, as the collection is ushered forth to the world under the auspices of the New York Sacred Music Society; but we observe, with pleasure, that about three-fourths of the book consists of new tunes, or tunes newly arranged—so that the purchaser will not, as is too often the case, find that, in buying a new book, he is only buying a collection of old tunes, of many of which he may, perhaps, have already twenty different copies, in as many different collections. The extent to which publishers of church music have, in this way, picked the pockets of the psalm-singing public, is shameful.

22.—*History of Europe, &c.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON, F. R. S. E. Abridged from the last London Edition. For the Use of General Readers, Colleges, Academies, and other Seminaries of Learning. By EDWARD S. GOULD. New York: J. Winchester. 1843.

We have noticed, on another page, the work of which this is an abridgment. The work of Mr. Gould furnishes a condensed outline of the larger work; and he has performed his task in a manner highly creditable to his industry, and in a scholarly style. Those who cannot afford five dollars for the original work, will, of course, avail themselves of the pleasure of possessing this admirable compend.

23.—*Constitutional Law, relative to Credit, Currency, and Banking.* By LYSANDER SPOONER.

An octavo pamphlet of thirty-two pages, in which the author discusses, 1st. The unconstitutionality of all state laws restraining private banking, and the rates of interest. 2d. What bank charters are unconstitutional. 3d. What bank charters are constitutional. 4th. The power of Congress over the currency. 5th. The remedy for the laws that restrain private banking, and the rates of interest. We have not yet found time to examine the arguments of the author in the several propositions he assumes and maintains with considerable clearness and force.

- 24.—*Perilous Adventures; or, Remarkable Instances of Courage, Perseverance, and Suffering.* By R. A. DAVENPORT. "Family Library," No. 159. 18mo. pp. 335. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There is a considerable degree of reality in the oft-repeated saying, that Truth is more strange or marvellous than fiction. The adventures, escapes, wanderings, &c., of Prince Charles Edward, Cazanova, Charles II., the Earl of Nithsdale, and others, whose lives are embraced in this volume, strikingly exemplify the correctness of this remark. The histories of these remarkable men are charged with such instances of courage, constancy, and perseverance, under circumstances the most perilous and appalling, as most conspicuously show the power of the human mind to triumph over difficulties; and go to confirm the fact, that nothing is to be despaired of where there is self-possession to look danger fearlessly in the face, and promptly to take advantage of emergencies as they arise.

- 25.—*A Course of Lectures on the Constitutional Jurisprudence of the United States.* By JOHN DUER, LL. D. "Family Library, No. 160." New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume embraces the course of lectures on the constitutional jurisprudence of the United States, delivered annually to the senior class in Columbia College, while Mr. D. presided over that institution. The outlines of them were published some years ago, at the request of the "American Lyceum." After the decided testimonials of Madison, Marshall, Livingston, and De Tocqueville, which have been given to these lectures, any opinion from a less authoritative source would seem an almost unpardonable presumption.

- 26.—*American Biography.* By JEREMY BELKNAP, D. D. With Additions and Notes by F. M. HUBBARD. 3 vols., 18mo. "Family Library, Nos. 161, 162, and 163." New York: Harper & Brothers.

Dr. Belknap's American Biography was first published at Boston in 1794. The frequent reference to it as an authority by more recent writers of American history—the uniform acknowledgment of its singular accuracy by those who have had occasion to investigate anew the lives of those of whom he has written—the correctness of his judgment, his candor, and the elegance of his style, render anything further in commendation of these volumes unnecessary. Mr. Hubbard has made some important additions to the present edition, which considerably enhances its value.

- 27.—*Natural History. The Elephant.* "Family Library, No. 164." New York: Harper & Brothers.

A volume of three hundred pages, containing a very full and particular account of the elephant, "the mightiest and wisest of the brute creation," as he exists in a wild state, and as he has been made subservient, in peace and in war, to the purposes of man. It abounds in entertaining and instructive matter, and may be read with equal advantage and delight by persons of every age, and of every degree of intellectual advancement. This work was originally published by the British Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and is illustrated with thirty-seven wood engravings.

- 28.—*The Token of Love.* Edited by a LADY. "Miniature Classical Library." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Love—the inexhaustible source of poetry, since beauty first inspired the youthful lover's song—is the subject of this neat little volume. The pieces are selected with taste; and, while they captivate the fancy by their alluring beauty, they will not corrupt the heart with insidious poison.

- 29.—*Make the Best of It; or, Cheerful Cherry, and other Tales.* By the author of "Peter Parley's Tales."

- 30.—*A Tale of Adventure; or, the Siberian Sable Hunter.* By PETER PARLEY. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The name of "Peter Parley" is enough to attract the attention of children the world over, and secure for these handsome volumes an extensive sale.

- 31.—*English Songs, and other small Poems.* By BARRY CORNWALL. 12mo. pp. 228. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor. 1844.

The author of this delightful book has been pronounced, by the most distinguished critics of England, with the exception of Coleridge, the most genuine poet of love England has for a long time produced. "There is an intense and passionate beauty, a depth of affection, in his little dramatic poems, which appear even in the affectionate triflings of his gentle characters. He illustrates that holiest of human emotions, which, while it will twine itself with the frailest twig, or dally with the most evanescent shadow of creation, wasting its excess of kindness on all around it, is yet able to 'look on tempests and be never shaken.' Love is gently omnipotent in his poems; accident, and death itself, are but passing clouds, which scarcely vex and which cannot harm it. The fair blossoms of his genius, though light and trembling at the breeze, spring from a wide, and deep, and robust stock, which will sustain far taller branches without being exhausted." The volume is beautifully printed on fine, white paper, and forms altogether a very attractive book.

- 32.—*Narrative of the Travels and Adventures of Monsieur Violet, in California, Senora, and Western Texas.* Written by Captain MARRYAT, C. B. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The English edition of this work, which we have not found time to read, is spread over three duodecimo volumes—the Harpers have compressed it, without abridgment, into one hundred and thirty-three pages of their Uniform Library Edition of Select Novels, and sell it at 12½ cents. The English edition is sold for about one guinea.

- 33.—*Frederick the Great; his Court, and Times.* Edited, with an Introduction, by THOMAS CAMPBELL, Esq., author of the "Pleasures of Hope." Second series. 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The character of Frederick the Great, and the eventful times in which he lived, give to these volumes a deep interest. The changes wrought in the social and governmental progress of Prussia, during the reign of Frederick the Great, are described with a remarkable degree of force and clearness. Practically speaking, the Prussians are well governed, and their courts of justice are excellent; but they have not yet a representative constitution, and they have not entirely shaken off the chain of despotism, though, indeed, it hangs loosely on them. Campbell has travelled with open eyes, and a liberal mind, through the dominions of Prussia; walked through her universities, and conversed with her learned men; and he describes them as a noble people, worthy of the freest possible constitution.

- 34.—*D'Aubigne's History of the Reformation.* 3 vols. 12mo. New York: Robert Carter.

It is but little more than a year since the first edition of this remarkable work appeared; and already have the publishers printed and sold twenty-two thousand copies. The fourth volume is expected soon, and will be issued by the same publishers, uniform with the present edition. It is the only genuine edition published in this country; the edition now in course of publication in Philadelphia having omitted the notes, which form a most valuable portion of the work.

- 35.—*The Songs of Beranger, in English.* With a Sketch of the Author's Life. 12mo. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This is the first collection that has been made, in this country, of the "greatest lyric poet of all ages." The translations are by various hands, and, of course, of unequal merit. The larger number have appeared in various British periodicals, a few are from American magazines, and the remainder are original translations. The selection is made with taste and judgment; and such songs are embraced in the volume (fifty-six) as, in their English dress, give the most true impression of the author's genius. The volume elegantly printed, on very beautiful paper.



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