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ART. I.—THE AMERICAN WHALE FISHERY.

IMPORTANCE OF THE WHALE FISHERY TO THE UNITED STATES—ITS FOREIGN ORIGIN—ITS ORIGIN IN THE UNITED STATES—CAPTURE OF THE FIRST WHALE—FIRST SPERMACETI WHALE TAKEN—THE PROGRESS OF THE FISHERY—MANUFACTURE OF SPERM CANDLES COMMENCED—DECLINE DURING THE REVOLUTION—ESTABLISHMENT OF A COLONY AT HALIFAX—CONDITION FROM 1787 TO 1789—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE WHALE FISHERY, AND IMPORTATIONS OF OIL—SUSPENDED DURING THE WAR OF 1812—IMPORTATIONS OF OIL—THE OCEAN—SPERM AND RIGHT WHALE—OUTFITS—INSTRUMENTS OF THE WHALE FISHERY—CHARACTER OF THE SAILORS—LEGAL DISCIPLINE ON BOARD SHIP—MODE OF CAPTURE—INCIDENTS—PREPARATION OF OIL—WHALEBONE—EMINENT WHALEMEN—POINTS OF RANGING GROUND—CONCLUSION.

WE propose in this paper to enter into a somewhat enlarged account of that branch of commerce which is prosecuted from the United States under the name of the whale fishery. The importance of this traffic, not only in its profits, which have, perhaps, been greater than those of any other single object of our national enterprise, the capital which is invested in its expeditions, embracing nearly one tenth part of the tonnage of the country, the importance of the moral interests which it involves, comprising the condition of that large and valuable class of seamen who are its active agents, and the circumstances bordering on the sublime which attend its hazardous expeditions, all render it an interesting subject to our commercial and mercantile population.

The origin of the whale fishery we may justly trace to a foreign country. The Norwegians, it seems, were accustomed at an early period to take the whale in a casual manner, but without any system; and the Biscayans appear to have first adopted it as a settled pursuit, and carried it on with great vigor and success, from the twelfth to the fourteenth century. It would also seem that the voyages of the Dutch, as well as the English, to the Northern Ocean, for the purpose of discovering a passage to India,

disclosed the haunts of the whale, which swarmed in those seas, and measures were soon adopted, both by the Dutch and English, for the purpose of its capture. It is a singular fact that during the middle of the seventeenth century, houses were fixed upon the northern shore of Spitzbergen, and provided with tanks, boilers, and all other necessary apparatus for the purpose of boiling the blubber, and preparing the bone for market. The Dutch whale fishery was in its most prosperous state during the year 1680, when it employed about 260 ships and 14,000 sailors. The English whale fishery was carried on by an exclusive company, like that of Holland; and in 1725 the South Sea Company embarked to a large extent in the trade, and prosecuted it with vigor for about eight years, when they relinquished the enterprise, having suffered considerable loss. So also the French and other nations formerly embarked in the same traffic, with considerable success.

As far back as 1667, we have in the second volume of the Philosophical Transactions, a letter from Mr. Richard Norwood, who resided at the Bermudas, which states that the whale fishery had been carried on in the bays of those islands for two or three years. A year or two afterwards, the whale fishery was proposed by a Mr. Richard Stafford, who remarks that he had killed several black whales himself. "I have been," says he, "at the Bahama Islands, and there have seen of this same sort of whale (the spermaceti) dead on the shore, with sperma all over their bodies! Myself and about twenty others have agreed to try whether we can master and kill them, for I never could hear of any of that sort that was killed by any man, such is their fierceness and swiftness." "One such whale," said he, "would be worth many hundred pounds."* A place called New Providence, among the Bahamas, soon afterwards became distinguished as a whale fishing station. Before these colonies had proposed any thing of the sort, however, we find that the Indians upon the shores of North America were accustomed to adventure out from the coast in their canoes, and pierce them with their lances, or other instruments of the same kind, which were fastened to blocks of wood by strings. These blocks were thrown overboard the moment that the instruments penetrated the body, and the attacks thus made appear to have been renewed the moment the whale showed himself on the surface, so that these monsters were finally worried to death. The attacks thus made by these imperfect instruments seem, however, to have been generally directed upon the young ones near the shores, that were towed to the coast, and the fat taken off from only one side, as they possessed no knowledge which would enable them to turn over the animal. It is obvious that the larger sort of whales must have effectually resisted the attacks of the savages with such rude weapons, and the demand for the oil, which, upon the northern part of the continent, they were accustomed to use as food, was but limited. These casual attacks of the whales that frequently strayed near the coast, cannot, we think, be considered even the foundation of the whale fishery as a regular system of traffic, the animals having been procured for a far different purpose than that of commerce. Without going into a particular account of these foreign fisheries, we enter at once into a consideration of the rise and progress of the whale fishery in our own country.

The hardy enterprise of New England is entitled to the credit of carrying out the whale fishery to the largest extent, and with the most brilliant

* See Philosophical Transactions, vol iii.

success. The occupants of this region of the country, cast along the sea-shore, and upon a soil barren, rocky, and inviting in a very small degree the labors of agriculture, at an early period directed their adventurous enterprises to the sea. Yet their extraordinary vigor and daring, aided by the elasticity of their climate, their comparative poverty and their simple virtues, more than counterbalanced the consequences which would otherwise have resulted from the barrenness of their soil. The population bordering the shores of the sea turned their attention to its abundant resources, and their farms were on the ocean. Nor did the remarkable traits of hardihood and perseverance which they exhibited in this branch of commerce, running down to the period of the revolution, escape the notice of distinguished statesmen abroad. Their enterprise in this respect, it is well known, received a just and splendid eulogium from Edmund Burke, on the floor of the British parliament, in his speech delivered in 1774, upon American affairs. "As to the wealth," said he, "which the colonists have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought these acquisitions of value, for they seemed to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised, ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised esteem and admiration. And pray, sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the New England people carry on the whale fishery. While we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and too romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place for their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We learn that while some of them draw the line or strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude, and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries; no climate that is not witness to their toil. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pursued by this recent people,—a people who are still in the gristle, and not yet hardened into manhood."

This traffic was commenced in Nantucket, an island in Massachusetts which looks out upon the Atlantic, and receives upon its shores the whole sweep of the ocean. Colonized, as it first was, by an adventurous and hardy race of settlers from other parts of Massachusetts, the colonists had ample means and motives to push their enterprises upon the waters of its neighboring coasts. We have a traditionary account of the first expedition which was set on foot from this island for the capture of the whale. It appears that one of the species called "scragg" was descried in the harbor of the infant colony, where it remained spouting and gambolling around the shore for three days. Measures were soon adopted by the settlers who were the original purchasers of the island, for its capture. An harpoon, rude in its form, was invented and wrought; and after a severe contest, the monster was taken. The success of this adventure induced the people of

that place to commence the enterprise of taking whales as a regular business, these animals being at that time very numerous around the coast; and, as early as 1672, we find the inhabitants entering into a formal contract with James Lopar, in which he engages to carry on the "whale citching" jointly with the town, for two years, on their giving to him ten acres of land in some convenient place, with commonage for two cows and twenty sheep and one horse, together with the necessary wood and water. The town were by this contract bound to carry on two thirds of the business, and himself the other third. This company was to have the monopoly of the trade, and no other company was permitted to engage in the traffic unless they should tender to this first organized body a portion of its shares. It was also provided that "*whosoever kil any whale of the company or company's* aforesaid, they are to pay to the town for every such whale five shillings." John Savage, a hardy New England man, was also procured to settle upon the island in the capacity of a cooper, upon nearly the same terms which had been made by the proprietors of the town with Lopar. We may suppose that the profits of this crude frame of enterprise were small, but they were at least sufficient to induce the prosecution of this species of traffic.

Meanwhile, the people of Cape Cod had reached considerable proficiency in this branch of enterprise, and their success induced the fishermen of Nantucket to adopt more vigorous and systematic measures for its prosecution. Accordingly, we find the inhabitants employing Ichabod Padduck as early as 1690, to instruct them respecting the best manner of taking the whale, and extracting the oil. The whaling expeditions from that port were then carried on in boats from the shore, and the white colonists derived important aid from the Indians, who manifested extraordinary aptness for the fishery of all kinds, and being placed in responsible stations as boat-steerers and headsmen, they soon became experienced and valuable whalemen. These boats, in search of their game, often ventured even out of sight of the land during the pleasant days of winter, and performed feats which are scarcely exceeded in our own day. After the whale had been killed, he was towed ashore, and an instrument termed a "crab," and which was similar to a capstan, was used to "heave off" the blubber as fast as it was cut. This blubber was then placed upon carts, and conveyed to "try-houses" situated near their dwellings, where the oil was boiled out and prepared for market. For the purpose of enabling the fishermen to descry whales at a distance, a high spar was erected upon the shore, with cleats affixed to the top, where the whaleman with his spy-glass could be securely lodged, and command a broad view of the ocean. No sensible diminution of the whales upon the coast appears to have existed from the first thirty years of the fishery, although eighty-six were taken near the shore during the year 1726, and eleven were sometimes towed to the land in one day.

We are informed that the first spermaceti whale known to the inhabitants, was found dead and ashore upon the southwestern part of the island; and here arose several conflicting claims to the right of property in this dead monster; the Indians claiming it by right of finding; the whites on the ground of their ownership of the island; and the officer of the crown seizing it by virtue of the well-known principle of the laws of England, giving to the king certain property which is discovered to have no visible owner, and in discussing which, Mr. Justice Blackstone, if we remember right, specially designates a stranded whale. The matter was, however, at length

adjusted, and the white men who first found it were permitted to hold the property, the whale having been previously divested of his teeth.

To Christopher Hussey, a Nantucket whaleman, belongs the honor of capturing the first spermaceti whale, and his feat was performed during the year 1712, so far as it can be ascertained. This man, while cruising near the shore for "right whales," the species which had been the principal kind captured by the Nantucket whalemen, was blown off from the shore, and falling in with a school of that species, he succeeded in capturing one, and towing him into port. This event gave a new impulse to the whale fishery upon the ocean, for vessels of thirty tons were soon built for the purpose of extending this traffic. These vessels were fitted out for cruises of about six weeks, and carried a few hogsheads, capable of containing the blubber of only one whale, which after they had captured, they returned home, when the owners took the blubber and prepared the oil for market, despatching the ship upon another voyage. The boiling was done in try-houses, which were erected near the landing, and the outfits and apparatus were placed in warehouses, situated near the same place. The substitution of vessels for boats constituted a new epoch in the expeditions of these Nantucket whalemen, as the whales were expected to be diminished; and in 1715, the number of vessels engaged in the whaling business from this port was six, all of them sloops of from thirty to forty tons burden, and producing £1100, amounting in our currency to $4,888 88.

Such was the germ of the whale fishery in this country, and circumstances transpired which were calculated to extend its operations. Larger vessels were soon introduced as motive for the business increased, and the enlargement of their number of course required an additional number of men, so that the island could not furnish the force to man their ships. This deficiency was, however, supplied by seamen from Long Island, as well as various parts of Cape Cod. But the consumption of oil did not increase with the augmentation of the number of the ships and the quantity of oil which was obtained. Indeed the domestic sale was frequently dull, and the whale fishermen began to look to a foreign market. Boston, at this time, furnished the chief depot for the oil of the Nantucket whalemen, and it was customary for the merchants of that city to order large quantities of whale oil from Nantucket, and to export it to England in their own vessels, from which traffic they derived a considerable profit, the oil of the island having obtained a very high reputation in Europe. This fact aroused the people of Nantucket to their true interest, and they immediately adopted measures to export the products of the fishery themselves, and accordingly to reap the profits. But although the prospects of success appeared bright, they moved with great caution in this matter, knowing that the failure of their enterprise would be attended with disastrous consequences. Accordingly, about the year 1745, a small vessel was loaded and despatched to Europe with a cargo of oil. The expedition was successful, and their shipments to England and other foreign ports were increased. This new field of enterprise was attended with a double advantage, for while they secured large profits on these voyages, it was found that the articles in the foreign ports to which their ships were consigned, consisting of iron, hardware, hemp, and sail-cloth, were precisely of the kind which they wanted for the trade, and being purchased at a cheap rate, they were admirably adapted to their return cargoes.

But in the year 1755, the loss of several fine ships, with their crews, by

the perils of the sea, or by capture—for it is well known that we were then at war with France—threw a temporary blight over the traffic, although it continued to increase. The ships were enlarged in size from thirty to one hundred tons burden and more, as whales had become scarce upon their own ranging grounds near the shore, and larger vessels were required to advance further into the ocean. A number of the larger class of vessels was despatched to Davis' Straits and the Western Islands, being provided with complete outfits, and while a few made great voyages, others came home "clean," from the ignorance that then prevailed respecting the courses of the winds, the proper feeding-ground of the whales, and of all those other facts which could only be acquired by experience. Whaling continued to be the main occupation of the inhabitants of that island, while the attempts which were made to carry on this pursuit in other parts of the country, appear to have failed.

Another fact tended to diminish the profits of the whale fishery at that time. The English government, discovering that oil was far preferable to other light, being better adapted to common use, and less expensive, became anxious to increase that branch of commerce from her own ports, and in consequence, granted a large bounty to this species of industry. By that means it was much enlarged, and London soon became an important whaling port. The necessary consequence of this measure, was to cut off Nantucket from a considerable portion of its foreign market; yet the American whale trade was not sensibly diminished, as its consumption was enlarged in various parts of the world, and even the exportation to England continued to be carried on. As new coasts were explored, the field of the whale fishery became enlarged, and the American whale fishermen adventured widely into the ocean for their favorite game. The places at which the whale fishery commenced, and the periods when it was begun, prior to our revolution, we have in the subjoined table, which is believed to be accurate:

At Davis' Straits, in the year 1746.
The Island of Disco, in the mouth of Baffin's Bay, in the year 1751.
Gulf of St. Lawrence, in the year 1761.
Coast of Guinea, in the year 1763.
Western Islands, in the year 1765.
Eastward of the Banks of Newfoundland, in the year 1765.
Coast of Brazil, in the year 1774.*

Besides these places, whaling voyages were carried on to a considerable extent, although for a shorter period, upon the Grand Banks, Cape Verd Islands, numerous points of the West Indies, the Bay of Mexico, the Carribean sea, the coast of the Spanish Main, and various other parts of the sea. The amount of enterprise invested in the traffic at different periods, and the profits of the voyages at this early stage of the fishery, may perhaps be interesting at the present time, exhibiting as they do, the progress of the trade in this country. We therefore subjoin a table, showing the number of vessels in this country employed in the whale fishery, and the amount of oil produced, commencing in 1762, and running down a period of ten years.

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* See History of Nantucket, by Obed Macy.

The number of American ships, and oil produced, for ten years.

Date.	*No. of vessels.*	*No. of barrels.*	*Date.*	*No. of vessels.*	*No. of barrels.*
1762,	78	9,440	1768,	125	15,439
1763,	60	9,238	1769,	119	19,140
1764,	72	11,983	1770,	125	14,331
1765,	101	11,512	1771,	115	12,754
1766,	118	11,969	1772,	98	7,825
1767,	108	16,561			

It appears also, that the price of whale oil in England was in

1742,	£18 13s. per ton.	1744,	£10 per ton.
1743,	£14 8s. " "	1753,	£21 " "

From the year 1770 to 1775, this branch of commerce had increased to an unexampled amount, and the hardy islanders of that coast constituting the whaling companies, were mechanics, who manufactured the cordage, the casks, the sails, the iron and wood work of the ships, and even built the ships themselves. According to Mr. Pitkin, Massachusetts alone, during that space of time, employed annually one hundred and eighty-three vessels of thirteen thousand eight hundred and twenty tons burden in the northern whale fishery, and one hundred and twenty-one vessels of fourteen thousand and twenty tons in the southern, which were navigated by four thousand and fifty-nine men; the produce of the fishery at that time amounting to £350,000, lawful money, or 1,160,000 dollars. At this time, a large portion of the spermaceti oil was sent to England in an unseparated state, the head matter being generally mingled with the body of the oil, commanding, as it did, the same price when in a mixed, as in a separate state. A considerable portion of the oil procured from the right whale was shipped to Boston, or other parts of our American colonies, for inland consumption, or was exported to the West Indies. The manufacture of sperm candles, which was first commenced in Rhode Island, in 1750, was carried on to a considerable extent in New England and Philadelphia, and tended to furnish a motive for the fishermen to procure this species of matter. We here append a table, showing the amount of the American whale fishery from 1771 to 1775.

State of the Whale Fshery in Massachusetts, from 1771 *to* 1775.

Ports from which the equipments were made.	*Vesssels fitted out annually for the northern whale fishery.*	*Their tonnage.*	*Vessels fitted out annually for the southern whale fishery.*	*Their tonnage.*	*Seamen employed.*	*Barrels of spermaceti oil taken annually.*	*Barrels of whale oil taken annually.*
Nantucket,	65	4,875	85	10,200	2,025	26,000	4,000
Wellfleet,	20	1,600	10	1,000	420	2,250	2,250
Dartmouth,	60	4,500	20	2,000	1,040	7,200	1,400
Lynn, [yard,	1	75	1	120	28	200	100
Martha's Vine-	12	720			156	900	300
Barnstable,	2	150			26	240	
Boston,	15	1,300	5	700	260	1,800	600
Falmouth, Barnstable county,	4	300			52	400	
Swanzey,	4	300			52	400	
Total,	183	13,820	121	14,020	4,059	39,390	8,650

A few years previous to the revolution, the average price in market for spermaceti oil was about £40, and for head matter £50. Common whale oil was seventy dollars per ton, and the bone was about half a dollar per pound. As a whale producing about one hundred barrels of oil would yield two thousand pounds of bone, and a whale producing fifty or sixty barrels of oil would ordinarily yield about ten pounds of bone to the barrel, it is obvious that the capture of a single whale must have been an important object, even so far as mere profit was concerned.

The prospect of a war with England tended to arouse the fears of the whale fishermen, as they believed that their ships, ranging over so wide a space, would be swept from the ocean. The "Massachusetts Bay Restraining Bill," tending to restrict the commerce of New England, and to exclude their whaling ships from the Banks of Newfoundland, also fell upon this class with a heavy blow, but a special relaxation of the law was made in favor of Nantucket, on account of a petition from the island to that effect. The war of the revolution soon broke out, and although few direct captures were made, as most of the ships had opportunity to get safely into port, the consequence was to check the whale fishery, and the class of the population who had procured their livelihood in this perilous traffic, were reduced to the greatest distress.

But great inconveniences resulting from the fact that the commerce of the American whale fishery was cut off from the ocean, the people of Nantucket prayed for an exemption from the attacks of the enemy, and the petition drawn up by Timothy Folger, the agent for the people of Nantucket in 1780, resulted in a partial prosecution of that commerce from this port, but without very profitable results. The whole traffic throughout the country was in fact suspended, and the sailors employed in the whaling business were either driven from the ocean, or earned new laurels in the naval service of the country.

The clouds of the revolution were, however, soon cleared away, and peace again shone bright in the heavens, cheering and fructifying the commerce of the nation. Nantucket, the principal mart of the trade at that time, was found in an impoverished condition. The hundred and fifty vessels which it owned at the commencement of the war, were dwindled down to a few old hulks, and the grass grew green in the streets; but the characteristic energy which had marked the enterprise of its sturdy settlers soon exhibited itself upon its old field, the ocean, and the sound of the broad-axe and the hammer was again heard in its dockyards, building and refitting new vessels for its favorite enterprise. In 1785, the business promised great profits. The articles required for the outfits were low, while the price of oil was high. This state of things continued only a short time, for in the latter part of the succeeding year, crude sperm oil sold for £24 per ton, and head matter scarcely commanded £45. Measures were soon adopted to petition for its protection, and a bounty was granted by the commonwealth of Massachusetts, of five pounds for every ton of white spermaceti oil, and sixty shillings for every ton of brown spermaceti oil; for the purpose of encouraging the business, many persons in other parts of the country were induced to embark in the whale fishery, thus increasing the quantity in this country, and diminishing its value. But the consumption was not sufficiently large to make its procuration very profitable; and the encouragement to this commerce which had been given by England, and the consequent quantity carried by their own mariners into that

country, cut off American whaling merchants from British markets, especially as duties were required to be paid for its importation to Great Britain after the war of the revolution.

Another fact tended to injure in great measure the profits of the American whale fishery, which was the establishment of a colony at Halifax by the English government, for the purpose of carrying on the trade from that port. This place afforded an excellent harbor that looked out upon the ocean, and it was thought that a good market would be here provided for oil as soon as it was landed. Large inducements were held out to the people of Nantucket to remove to that point, and they were successful, for in 1786 and 1787, we find a considerable number of persons from Nantucket removing to a point opposite Halifax, which they called Dartmouth, and there building dwelling-houses, wharves, spermaceti candle manufactories, stores, and dockyards. Here they carried on the whaling business for several years with success, but were finally induced to remove to Milford Haven, in the west of England, there to prosecute the same traffic. The establishment of Dartmouth was thus broken up. Although Nantucket suffered considerably by this settlement, having lost some of its most active and enterprising whalemen, still the auspices of the whale fishery grew brighter, oil advanced in price, the number and size of the ships were increased, their voyages were extended, and the vessels from that port which had confined themselves to the West Indies, the coast of Guinea, and different parts of the shores of North America, now extended their ranging grounds to the banks of Brazil, where right and sperm whales were very numerous. The manufacture of sperm candles was increased, and large quantities were not only consumed in this country, but also exported to the West Indies. About this time the domestic consumption of oil was much extended by the establishment of lighthouses, and the introduction of machinery into the country; one branch of domestic industry thus aiding the other. In fact, the enterprise invested in this labor was enlarged to such a degree, that the little island of Nantucket could not furnish sufficient seamen to carry on the whaling voyages from her own port, and many Indians and negroes were imported from the continent, who resided on that island and became some of the most valuable and active agents of the whale fishery.*

Nor were other ports upon the coast of New England, cut off as they were from the rich resources of the soil that prevailed in the interior of the country, deficient in the same sort of enterprise. The most prominent seaports along this part of our coast had embarked in the whale fishery, and we possess accurate official documents that exhibit its condition from the year 1787 to 1789, and which we here subjoin.

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* We may as well state here that the early progress of the whale fishery can only be collected from fragmentary accounts, scattered through the works of several writers who have treated of the subject incidentally. Mr. Pitkin, in his "View of the Commerce of the United States," has given us important statistical facts connected with its progress; Beale, in his recent account of the sperm whale, has confined himself principally to the operations of that enterprise in the British empire; while Scoresby, who possessed a practical knowledge of the subject, has devoted his remarks to the habits of the whale, and to the operations which have sprung up in other countries for the purpose of its capture, without considering the American enterprise which has been directed to that object.

State of the Whale Fishery, from 1787 *to* 1789, *inclusive.*

Ports from which the equipments were made.	*The number of vessels fitted out annually for the northern whale fishery.*	*Their Tonnage.*	*The number of vessels fitted out annually for the southern whale fishery.*	*Their Tonnage.*	*The number of seamen employed.*	*Barrels of spermaceti oil taken annually.*	*Barrels of whale oil taken annually.*
Nantucket,	18	1,350	18	2,700	487	3,800	8,260
Wellfleet, and other ports at Cape Cod,	12	720	4	400	212		1,920
Dartmouth,	45	2,700	5	750	650	2,700	1,750
Cape Ann,			2	350	28		1,200
Plymouth,	1	60			13	100	
Martha's Vineyard,	2	120	1	100	39	220	
Boston,	6	450			78	360	
Dorchester and Wareham,	7	420	1	90	104	800	
Total,	91	5,820	31	4,390	1,611	7,980	13,130

In 1790, the attention of the people of Nantucket was directed to the sealing business, from the fact that many very profitable voyages for the capture of these animals had been made from England, and as it was nearly allied to the whale fishery, the seals being found upon the same coasts, requiring the same outfits and men, an expedition was accordingly fitted out from this country for the coast of Africa, which, although unsuccessful, laid the foundation of that enterprise which has been since so successfully prosecuted in the United States. During the succeeding year, a number of successful cruises having been made by the English vessels upon the western coast of South America, these foreign enterprises induced the people of Nantucket to range with their ships upon the same coast, and whaling ships then first adventured from this port to the Pacific Ocean, and almost invariably returned with full cargoes. The success of the whalemen of Nantucket in the whale fishery induced the people of the neighboring settlement of New Bedford, which has since arrived to great opulence by this traffic, to increase the number of their whaling ships; and in 1792, they had enlarged their adventures to a considerable extent. The market for oil was at this time also very much extended in France; lamps were sent into that country from England, to encourage its use; and large shipments were made from the United States which proved profitable: but the revolution that afterwards broke out in that country, swallowed up all foreign enterprises. The period which the historian of Nantucket has denominated its "golden age," was soon turned to an age of bronze by the circumstances of the period, for while the French revolution effectually prevented the importation of the article into that country, most of the foreign markets became glutted; the price of oil in foreign ports fell below that for which it could be obtained in Nantucket, the provisions required for the outfits advanced in value, and ruin stared the whalemen in the face. In addition to these disastrous circumstances, war between France and the United

States was expected while the whaling ships afloat were out upon long voyages, and commercial disaster, like the foreboding twilight of an eclipse, overshadowed this important branch of the commerce of the country.

But notwithstanding all the difficulties which followed, we learn that in 1810, most of the business capital of the island of Nantucket was at sea, and during that year, six or eight ships were fitted out from that port for the Pacific Ocean. But dark clouds now gathered again upon the commercial sky, and a war with England was threatened. The people who had been engaged in the traffic were soon deprived of the means of subsistence; and while the motives for adventure in the traffic diminished, the premiums of insurance arose to twenty per cent. Two years afterwards, an embargo was laid upon our commerce, which restriction is generally a sure presage of war. Seven eighths of the capital of Nantucket were afloat, three fourths of which were not expected to return for a year; and so great was the apprehension of the declaration of war, that a formal petition was despatched to the British government by the people of Nantucket, through Admiral Cochrane, asking protection for their commerce, and expressing a willingness to remain neutral in the belligerent operation which succeeded. But all this was of no avail, and the navigators of that island, diverted from their ancient business, were left to starve or to gain a scanty subsistence by fishing around the coast, or by cultivating its barren soil.

At the close of the war of 1812, the country, it is well known, was involved in one common wreck; but the elastic energies of the nation revived, and the whale fishery was commenced upon a new foundation, and has been advancing with a gradual and solid growth to the present time. During the year 1819, it was extended to many points along the coast of New England; and whale ships were fitted out from New York, Long Island, New London, New Bedford, Cape Cod, and Boston, which have been increasing to the present day, constituting a source of great wealth to the beautiful settlements that are scattered along our northern maritime shores, as monuments of the liberality and enterprise of that high-minded class of men, our American whaling merchants. The growing population of the country, and the increased consumption of the articles produced by the whale fishery from the introduction of machinery, and the multiplied branches of trade requiring them, together with the more efficient organization of this enterprise, and the security to its prosecution furnished by the strength of our government, will render it in coming time, as it now is, a lucrative and permanent field of commerce.

In order to show the progress of the whale fishery from the period which we have mentioned, it may be proper here to state that according to Mr. Pitkin,* the quantity of sperm oil brought into this country in 1831, was 109,200 barrels, and of common oil, 114,341; and of whalebone, 1,029,690 pounds, the total value being 3,488,632 dollars; that into the single ports of New Bedford and Nantucket, there were brought in the year 1833, 76,631 barrels of sperm oil, 84,596 barrels of common oil, and 729,759 pounds of whalebone; to which when we add the amount brought into the other ports during that year, it equals the sum of 4,046,900 dollars, this enormous sum being the product of our domestic industry in that department for one year. Mr. Pitkin, who is doubtless a good authority, states that the whole number of vessels engaged in the whale fishery in

* Pitkin's Commercial Statistics, page 44.

1834, was four hundred and thirty-four, the greater part of which belonged to New Bedford, Nantucket, and New London, whose aggregate value was ten millions one hundred and thirty thousand dollars, and employing not less than ten thousand nine hundred men. From the same source, we learn that at this time, about one half of the common whale oil found a market in Europe, one quarter in the West Indies, and the other quarter was consumed in the United States. The spermaceti oil imported, is consumed mainly in the United States, from a quarter to a third being used in the cotton and woollen manufactories, and a considerable portion in the engines of our steamboats, and by other kinds of machinery.* This consumption, however, would be much greater, had not gas-lights been introduced into our larger cities as a substitute for oil.

We here subjoin a table showing the amount of importation of oil and bone into the United States in the years 1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838, with the total value of the same at estimated average prices:—Also, the different prices of each article at which sales were actually made in New Bedford for the same period, so far as ascertained.

FOR 1835.

Sperm oil, 172,683 bbls.	at 84 cts.	per gal.,	average	price,	$4,569,192,18
Whale oil, 120,649 "	at 36 cts.	" "	"	"	1,368,159,66
Whalebone, 965,192 lbs.	at 24 cts.	" lb.	"	"	231,646,08
					$6,168,997,92

PRICES.

SPERM OIL—February, 77 cents; March, 78, 79 cents; April, 79, 80 cents; May, 80, 83, 85, 84 cents; November, 91 cents.

WHALE OIL—March, 33 cents; April, 35, 36 cents; July, 37 cents.

WHALEBONE—20 to 25 cents.

FOR 1836.

Sperm oil, 130,998 bbls.	at 88 cts.	per gal.,	average	price,	$3,631,264,56
Whale oil, 129,968 "	at 44 cts.	" "	"	"	1,801,356,48
Whalebone, 1,028,773 lbs.	at 25 cts.	" lb.	"	"	257,193,25
					$5,689,814,29

PRICES.

SPERM OIL—March, 86, 84 cents; April, 85½, 84, 89, 88½ cents; October, 95 cents; November, 92 cents; December, 88 cents.

WHALE OIL—February, 43 cents; March, 42, 43, 43½ cents; April, 44 cents; May, 43 cents; September, 48 cents; October, 47 cents; December, 49 cents.

* For important facts connected with the progress of the whale fishery, we are indebted to Scoresby, Beale, Pitkin, Macy, and numerous masters of ships; nor would we forbear alluding here to "Miriam Coffin, or the Whale Fisherman," a tale written by one of our countrymen: he is understood to be Joseph C. Hart, Esq., a lawyer in the city of New York, who in that work has given us a graphic picture of this bold enterprise.

FOR 1837.

Sperm oil, 181,724 bbls. at 82 cts. per gal., average price,				$4,693,930,92
Whale oil, 219,138 " at 33 cts. " " " "				2,277,939,51
Whalebone, 1,753,104 lbs. at 22 cts. " lb. " "				385,682,88
				$7,357,553,31

PRICES.

SPERM OIL—January, 90 cents; February, 90, 87½ cents; March, 90 cents; June, 80 cents; August, 75, 76½ cents; September, 77 cents; November, 79, 80, 81 cents; December, 80 cents.

WHALE OIL—March, 40, 42, 41 cents; April, 40 cents; May, 33, 30 cents; August, 30, 29, 28 cents; September, 30 cents; October, 28½, 30 cents; November, 30, 31 cents.

WHALEBONE—27½ to 14 cents.

FOR 1838.

Sperm oil, 131,856 bbls. at 85 cts. per gal., average price,				$3,529,785,12
Whale oil, 227,016 " at 32 cts. " " " "				2,288,321,28
Whalebone, 1,783,848 lbs. at 19 cts. " " " "				338,931,12
				$6,157,037,52

PRICES.

SPERM OIL—February, 80 cents; March, 77, 78 cents; April, 78 cents; May, 78, 76½, 76¼ cents; June, 78, 78½ cents; July, 80, 82 cents; August, 80, 82 cents; September, 85, 87, 90, 91, 89½ cents; October, 93½, 95 cents; November, 94¾, 95, 97 cents.

WHALE OIL—March, 30 cents; April, 30 cents; May, 30 cents; June, 30, 31 cents; August, 33 cents; September, 33, 34 cents; October, 34 cents; December, 34 cents.

WHALEBONE—15 to 20 cents.

Note.—The importations for 1839 to 30th of September, is 116,500 bbls. of sperm, and 201,800 bbls. of whale oil. For 1838 to the same date, the importations were 100,707 bbls. sperm, and 206,007 bbls. whale oil.

The probable imports for the year 1839, will be—sperm, 150,000 bbls., whale, 230,000 bbls.

PRICES.

SPERM OIL—January, 102, 103 cents; February, 102 cents; March, 104, 102, 103, 104½, 108, 110, 112, 112½ cents; April, 112½, 110, 108 cents; May, 108, 100 cents; June, 100½, 100 cents; July, 100 cents; August, 105 cents; September, 106, 107, 110 cents.

WHALE OIL—January, 34½, 34, 33 cents; February, 34½, 33½, 32 cents; March, 33½, 34, 35½, 36, 37, 38½ cents; April, 37, 36, 38½ cents; May, 37, 38, 33, 33½ cents; June, 36 cents; July, 37, 38 cents; August, 31 cents; September, 34½, 36 cents.

WHALEBONE—Sales of bone have ranged from 17 to 20 cents per lb. Sales in September at 19 and 20 cents.

The amount of capital invested in this business, has been gradually increased, so that at the present time, there are employed in the whale fishery of the United States 557 ships, with an aggregate tonnage of 169,983.

The following table exhibits the number of vessels employed in the whale fishery, character, and amount of tonnage, and the ports to which they belong.

Abstract of vessels employed in the Whale Fishery, belonging to the United States, September 1, 1839.

Places where owned.	*Ships and barks.*	*Brigs & schrs.*	*Amount of tonnage.*	*Places where owned.*	*Ships and barks.*	*Brigs & schrs.*	*Amount of tonnage.*
New Bedford,	169	8	56,118	Portsmouth,	1		348
Fairhaven,	43	1	13,274	Newport,	9	2	3,152
Dartmouth,	3		874	Bristol,	5	1	1,782
Westport,	5	4	1,443	Warren,	18	3	6,075
Wareham,	2	2	904	Providence,	3		1,086
Rochester,	5	10	2,615	New London,	30	9	11,447
Nantucket,	77	4	27,364	Stonington,	7	5	2,912
Edgartown,	8		2,659	Mystic,	5	3	1,797
Holmes Hole,	3	1	1,180	Sagharbor,	31		10,605
Fall River,	4	3	1,604	Greenport,	4	1	1,414
Lynn,	4		1,269	New Suffolk,	1		274
Newburyport,	3		1,099	Jamesport,	1		236
Plymouth,	3		910	Bridgeport,	3		913
Salem,	14		4,265	New York,	3		710
Boston,		1	125	Hudson,	8		2,902
Dorchester,	2		581	Poughkeepsie,	6		2,043
Falmouth,	8		2,490	Cold Spring,	2		629
Provincetown,		1	172	Wilmington,	5		1,578
Portland,	1		388	Newark,	1		366
Wiscasset,	1		380				

The outfits required for a whaling ship constitute no inconsiderable item of the expense, amounting in a vessel which is fitted out for a three years' voyage, to no less a sum than $18,000, while the hull not unfrequently costs $22,000 more, while many have sailed whose total cost does not vary far from $60,000. The principal kind of provisions required for the crew upon their voyage, consists of beef and pork, bread, molasses, peas, beans, corn, potatoes, dried apples, coffee, tea, chocolate, butter, besides from three to four thousands of casks, made from white oak, and a quantity of spare duck cordage, and other articles which may be required in the course of the voyage. In a ship which mans four boats, from thirty to thirty-two men are employed. The contract entered into between the crew and the owners of the ship, and contained in the shipping articles that are required to be signed by each sailor, makes it binding on the owners to provide the ship and all the necessary outlays of the voyage; and upon the crew to perform their duty on board the ship, obeying all proper orders to the end of the voyage. As a compensation, they are entitled to such part of the oil, or whatever else may be obtained, as shall be agreed upon for their services; and if, in case of death or accident, any portion of the crew is unable to perform his part of the voyage, they or their legal representatives are empowered to draw in their own right, whatever of compensation would have fallen to their share had the voyage been completed, this compensation being proportioned to the time they shall have served. The "lays," or shares of the captain, officers, and crew, are measured by the amount of their experience and value in the voyage. When wages, however, are high in New

York or Boston, seamen are difficult to be procured. These lays are of course depending upon various circumstances; but generally the captain's lay is one seventeenth part of all which is obtained; the first officer's, one twenty-eighth part; the second officer's, one forty-fifth; the third, one sixtieth; the boat-steerer draws from an eightieth to a hundred and twentieth, and the common sailor before the mast, from a hundred and twentieth to a hundred and fiftieth, according to his experience and activity and strength. On the outward passage, the crew are divided into two watches, similar to those which exist in the merchant service.

Our American whaling ships generally pass to the Pacific by the way of Cape Horn; others go by the eastern route, south of New Holland; others pursue their game in the Indian Ocean, the vicinity of Madagascar, and the Red Sea, reach the Pacific through the straits of Timor, between New Guinea and the Pelew Islands, and advance onward to the coast of Japan. By these adventurous mariners, every part of the Pacific is explored, and many new discoveries are made, which are of great service to the cause of navigation.

The magnitude of the monster from which the whale fishery derives its profits, has been the source of comment in all ages. Even in the records of our faith, we have a description of this animal, which, although referring to a species not now a principal object of capture by our American whalemen, partakes in a high degree the character of the sublime. "Canst thou draw out Leviathan with a hook?" says Job. "Shall thy companions make a banquet of him? Shall they part him among the merchants? Canst thou fill his skin with barbed irons, or his head with fish spears? Out of his nostrils goeth smoke as out of a seething pot, or caldron. When he raiseth himself up, the mighty are afraid. The arrow cannot make him flee. Sling-stones are turned with him into stubble. He maketh the deep to boil like a pot. He maketh a path to shine after him. Upon earth there is not his like."

The ocean, the ranging ground of the whale, stretching, as it does, over two thirds of the surface of the earth, and binding together the various nations upon its shores by a common highway, has been the favorite topic of description in all ages, and has called forth the most distinguished powers of the pen and the pencil. And indeed its great extent, and the various phases which this watery domain assumes, whether it is spread out, a broad and unbroken mirror before the eye, or its waters are roused by storms from their secret depths into black and swelling waves, that roll upward and onward towards the heavens, as if to quench the stars, tossing the hugest ships like sea-birds on their crests, cannot but awaken associations of sublimity and grandeur. Within itself, it constitutes a distinct and solitary world. Independently of the multitudes of human beings who are forever afloat upon its surface in the ships which whiten its bosom at widely separated points, it is governed by causes and marked by incidents that are entirely distinct from those of the land; and this wide waste of waters is inhabited by animals as various in their species, and as interesting to the zoologist, as those that are found upon other parts of the globe, from the smallest to the greatest. Here, shoals

> "Of fish—that with their fins and shining scales
> Glide under the green wave in sculls that oft
> Bank the mid sea; part single, or with mate—
> Graze the sea-weed, their pasture, and through groves

Of coral stray, or sporting with quick lance,
Show to the sun their wav'd coats dropt with gold;
Or in their pearly shells at ease attend
Moist nutriment, or under rocks their food
In jointed armor watch; on smooth the seal.
And bended dolphins play, part huge of bulk
Wallowing unwieldy, enormous, in their gait
Tempest the ocean."

It is not a little remarkable that the animal tribes which swim the sea, are in various points similar to those which inhabit the land; for we here have the sea-horse, the sea-lion, the sea-elephant, and numerous other species, so named from their resemblance to those land animals with which we are familiar, and that derive their nutriment from the earth. The whale may be considered to the sea what the mammoth is to the land, and while the creation of these numerous animals attests the power of God, their capture, amid so many hazardous circumstances, evinces also the hardihood and enterprise of man.

The right whale, which, with the sperm, constitutes the principal object pursued by the whale fishery, is of the largest class. Many which were taken in 1761, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it is stated, produced two hundred and thirty barrels of oil; and as the ships then employed did not exceed sixty tons burden, the capture of a single whale constituted a full cargo. The bone from a whale of this size, sometimes weighed 3000 pounds, each of which was worth a dollar, and the slabs were frequently ten feet in length. Their food consists of a species of animal not larger than a spider, and similar in form, called "bret," which swim near the surface of the water, and tinge it for acres with a reddish cast. The difference between the right whale and the sperm is noticed at a distance by the manner of its spout; for while the right whale has two spout holes, and throws the water in two perpendicular streams, that widen as they rise, which is also true of the "hump-back" and the "fin-back," the sperm whale spouts in a single stream, that is thrown forward from its head, at an angle of about forty-five degrees.

A sperm whale, of the length of sixty feet, usually has a body, the largest part of which is about twenty-four feet in circumference, while the distance from one point of the tail to the other is not less than seven feet. The length of the fin of a whale of this size, is about three feet and a half, and fourteen feet will scarcely measure the length of the jaw-bone. The spout holes, or nostrils, are situated about ten inches from the end of the nose. From that point to the eyes, the distance is not less than fourteen feet. The color of the skin is dark, being about the thickness of one inch, the blubber on the ribs being five inches, and that upon the breast nine inches, the proportion of the blubber being about one sixth part of the whole of the animal.

The sperm whale, which it is well known is the most valuable species connected with this traffic, we shall now consider. The head of this animal, constituting one third part of the size of the body, exhibits a very blunt appearance, with a front like the breakwater of a ship, and at its junction with the neck is a large hump or bunch which the whalers call "the bunch of the neck." Here, at what might be denominated in a quadruped the shoulder, we find the thickest part of the body; maintaining that bulk for about one third of its length, it reaches what is called the "small," or beginning of the tail. Here a hump is also seen, and from that point a

smaller series of ridges runs down towards the extremity, which, at the commencement of the "flukes" or extreme fins of the tail, is not larger than the body of a man. The "flukes" consist of two triangular fins, about six feet long and twelve or fourteen feet broad in those of the largest size, that would appear like the tail of a fish, were it not that a deep undulation is perceived between them, and that their position is horizontal. The great power of the muscles which connect them with the main body, and the fact that they can be moved with ease by the whale, render them a formidable weapon of defence, and an object of terror to the whaleman, who often becomes the victim of their fury. The head, therefore, viewed in front, presents a broad and somewhat flattened surface. On the top, near the extremity of the head, is the spout hole, which, in the dead animal, appears in form like the letter *S*. In the upper part of the head is a large triangular cavity which is called the "case," containing the oily fluid that after death is congealed into a yellow granulated mass, the spermaceti. Beneath the case and the nostril, is a thick mass of substance, elastic in its nature, which is called the "junk," and formed of a cellular tissue, and infiltrated with fine sperm oil and spermaceti. The mouth extends throughout the whole length of the head, containing in the lower jaw forty-two teeth of formidable dimensions, and when open, it is as capacious as a good-sized bedchamber, and the roof is covered with a sort of coarse hair which serves them to filtrate their food. The throat, unlike that of the Greenland whale, is large enough to admit the body of a full-grown man. The eyes are small, in proportion to the bulk of the body, are situated far back on each of the head, and are furnished with eyelids, the lower ones being moveable. A short distance behind the head are placed the swimming paws or fins, which appear to serve them not so much for the purpose of swimming as to hold their young, and direct their motion through the water. The size of a full-grown sperm whale is estimated from good authority to be about eighty-four feet in length; the depth of the head from eight to nine feet, and the breadth five to six feet; the swimming paws or fins about six feet long and three broad; and the circumference of the body thirty-six feet. The skin of the sperm whale is smooth, without scales, although in those which are old it appears wrinkled. The color of the skin is dark throughout the greater part of its surface, but especially so on the upper part of the head, the back, and near the flukes, where it is quite black; while on the sides it assumes a lighter tint, and on the breast it becomes silvery gray. Aged "bulls," as they are termed by whalemen, frequently have a portion of gray on the nose, above the fore part of the upper jaw, and these are then said by whalers to be "gray-headed." Beneath the skin is the blubber of fat, which is, on the breast of the largest whale, about fourteen inches thick, but on most of the other parts of the body only eight inches. This blubber, encircling the body, and termed by the sailors "the blanket," is of a light yellow color, and when melted down, supplies the sperm oil, affording not only buoyancy to the animal, but also a protection from the changes of the climate. The ordinary food of this species of whale appears to be a sort of cuttle-fish called the squid, which they probably secure by descending a certain distance into the ocean, and opening their jaws, allow these animals to accumulate within their mouths, when they swallow them.

The common motion of the whale is slow, swimming as they do at the rate of from two to four miles an hour, being propelled by an oblique action of the flukes, like the operation of sculling in the water, their fins being

used only as directors. This mode of swimming enables them to propel themselves about seven miles an hour; but the greatest speed is attained by striking the water with the broad flat surface of the flukes perpendicularly, when at each time that the blow is made with the inferior surface of the flukes, the head of the whale sinks down the depth of eight or ten feet, and when it is reversed, it rises out of the water nearly the same distance, the action allowing him a motion of from ten to twelve miles an hour. When disturbed suddenly, however, the whale has the power of disappearing immediately from the surface in a horizontal position, by striking upwards with his fins and tail.

The question has long been mooted, as it is well known, whether a whale is a fish; and this question is founded on the peculiarity of its physical conformation. Unlike fish in general, its blood is warm, it inhales the air, it calves, suckles, and protects its young. In a calm, and when the water is smooth, the first part of the whale which appears is a dark-colored pyramidal mass which is called the hump, projecting two or three feet out of the water. At uniform intervals, the nose is seen upon the surface, and from its extremity the spout is thrown up, appearing at a distance low and bushy, and formed by minute particles of water lodged in the nostrils, and the condensation of aqueous vapor which is thrown from the lungs. This spout is ejected from the blow hole slowly and continuously for the space of three seconds, and can be seen in clear weather at a distance of four or five miles from the masthead of a ship. In the case of the sperm whale, the spout is thrown in sudden jets, is thin, and is ejected at a considerable height in a perpendicular direction; and when alarmed, with greater rapidity, and to a much greater height.

The uniformity which pervades the motions of the whale is quite remarkable. The time which is required in the performance of the several acts to which it is accustomed, is minutely regular in the sperm whale, and the fisherman, by accurately observing the motions of the individual, can easily judge the period which it will occupy to exercise them. When the whale has spouted, the nose sinks beneath the water immediately. The air again fills the chest silently in the sperm whale; but in the fin-back, this act is performed with a loud noise, as of air rushing suddenly into a small orifice. In a large "bull whale," the time occupied from one spout to another is ten seconds. During six of these the nostril remains below the surface of the water; the inspiration occupies one second, and the expiration three seconds. At each breathing time the whale makes from sixty to seventy expirations, and remains upon the surface about ten minutes. At the termination of the breathing time, the part between the hump and flukes appears above the water in a curved and convex position; the head sinking under the surface, the flukes are thrown high into the air with a motion called by the sailors "peaking the flukes," and the body thus obtaining a perpendicular position, suddenly disappears from the surface of the ocean. The common period in which a whale remains under water is an hour and ten minutes, although some will exceed that time, yet these are but rare exceptions. From these facts it is perceived that in the sperm whale about one seventh part of the time is expended in respiration. The habits of the female whales are somewhat different. They remain under the water generally about twenty minutes, make thirty or forty expirations while they are on the surface, which is about four minutes, and consume about one fifth part of the time in expiration

The period of expiration is, however, often varied when the approach of a boat, or any other circumstance, tends to alarm the whale. In this case, although he has made but half his number of expirations, he disappears in a horizontal position, leaving a vortex where his body before floated, but it is soon seen near the surface completing his usual number. This downward motion is effected by powerful strokes with his swimming paws and flukes; and in that motion which has been described and which is termed by the sailors "going with the head out," the spout is thrown up at every time it appears above the surface, and the expiration is more hurried and unequal. It is somewhat extraordinary that so huge an animal as the whale should be easily alarmed, yet such is the fact; and when intimidated by the approach of a ship, it appears to search for all objects near it by moving its tail in a wide sweep from side to side on the surface. When a harpoon is struck into his side, he often turns over and over into the water, and thus frequently winds an immense length of rope around him. His positions are various. Sometimes he assumes a perpendicular position, with only his head above water, seemingly for the purpose of surveying the broad expanse of his watery home, when his head seen at a distance resembles a huge black rock in the ocean. At other times he turns over on his side, to view a ship or any other object which is approaching; the rays of the sun striking directly upon his eye, and seeming to enable him to see a greater distance. At other times the whale appears to exercise itself by beating the water with its tail into foam, which, of course, can be seen at a great distance. A more curious habit which marks the whale is that of leaping completely out of the water, or "breaching," as it is called, that appears to be effected by descending to a certain depth, and working his tail by powerful strokes, that are increased near the surface until the whole body is projected out to an angle of 45 degrees. This action is probably caused by its attempt to rid its body of the sucking fish and other animals which adhere to its surface, or of avoiding the encounters of the swordfish, its greatest enemy, while the "thresher" attacks it from below, and thus prevents it from descending.

The habits of the sperm whale are peculiar. They herd in large schools, the females being protected by from one to three of the other species. The males appear jealous of intrusion, and fight with great power to prevent it. The large whales generally go alone in search of food, and when seen in company, are supposed to be travelling from one "feeding ground" to the other. These large whales being quite incautious, are easily overcome, and even after the plunge of the harpoon, often lay exposed to their destroyers like a log of wood, scarcely appearing to feel the blow. Sometimes, however, they are found possessing extraordinary courage, doing dreadful havoc with their principal weapons, their jaws and tails. They breed at all seasons, producing one and sometimes two at a birth, the size of their cubs being, when first born, from twelve to fourteen feet. The females are much smaller than the other sex, being not more than one fifth part as great. These manifest strong attachment to their young, taking them under their fins, and urging them to escape from danger. Their attachment to each other is no less remarkable, and when one is wounded, its companions will remain around her to the last, so that they often fall a sacrifice to their affection. The attachment on the part of the young towards its parent is no less extraordinary, and they are often seen around the ship for hours after their parents have fallen a prey to the harpoon. The young

males swim in schools until they are about three fourths grown, when they separate and seek their prey upon the ocean alone. The difference between them and the female droves is evident and striking from the fact that when one of their number is struck it is left to its fate, scarcely an instance being known of its companions having "heaved to." They are cunning and shy, and accordingly are more difficult to take, as from their vigor and activity, great despatch is necessary in order to give them no opportunity to recover from the terror and fright occasioned by the blow of the harpoon. One singular circumstance may here be mentioned, that the whale, both great and small, appears to have the power of communicating intelligence to its kind when any danger approaches, for the distance of four, five, or even seven miles; but the mode in which this is done has never been ascertained.

We shall not here enter into a description of the "fin-back" whale, an animal of larger size than the sperm, but so uncertain and active in its motions as to elude the most expert whale fishermen.

The "right whale," another species, which, with the sperm whale, constitutes the most prominent staple of our whale fishery, we have considered. It is similar in its general form to the sperm, and possesses the same general habits, although the oil extracted from it is of inferior quality. There are also other species, such as the razor-back, the broad-nosed whale, and the beaked whale, and species of a smaller kind, to which we shall merely allude.

The wide domain of the ocean is the home of the whale, and we find it spouting in every latitude of the sea, from the icebergs of Greenland to the African coast. It is admitted, however, that the sperm whale is seldom seen in the colder latitudes, confining itself to the more genial climates, while the Greenland whale, which is of extraordinary size, appears to delight in tumbling among the mountains of ice which float in the region of the north pole. We find the whale fishermen hurling the harpoon upon the coast of New Zealand, as well as New Holland, near the shores of Peru and Madagascar, Chili and California, Japan and the China Sea, the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. It is indeed not unusual for the whaling ships from our American ports to ransack the world for their gigantic prey, entirely circumnavigating the globe, although the enterprises of the British whale fishermen are directed more particularly to the coast of colder climates.

We here present the figure of a sperm whale, marked at the various points to which we have referred.

Outline of the Sperm Whale.

a, the spout-hole; *b*, the position of the case; *c*, the junk; *d*, the bunch of the neck; *e*, the eye; *f*, the fin; *g*, the blanket-pieces; *h*, the hump; *i*, the ridge; *k*, the small; *l*, the tail, or flukes.

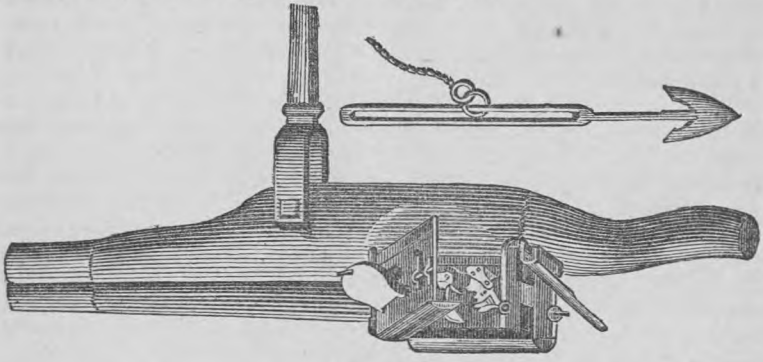
Having given a brief sketch of the general appearance and resort of the whale, we now proceed to describe more particularly the mode of this spe-

cies of traffic as it is conducted in the United States. The whale ships which are destined for the fishery, are generally from three to five hundred tons burden, and carry from twenty-eight to forty men and the officers, in which, in the English traffic, the surgeon is included. These are provisioned for three years, with all those substantial articles of food to which we have before alluded, required for the subsistence of the whale fishermen. Sometimes the ships are accompanied by what are called "tenders," or smaller vessels, which serve as convoy to the principal ships, and that either aid them in distress, or themselves procure the whale. Each ship is provided with four or six whale boats, about twenty-seven feet long, and four broad, in which the whale is generally captured. These boats are built with great strength and lightness, sharp at both ends, in order to withstand the action of the waves, to float with great buoyancy upon the tops of the billows when the sea runs high, and to be propelled both ways. Near that end which may be considered the stern of the boat, a rounded piece of wood is placed, called the "loggerhead," through the hole of which the rope is run which is attached to the harpoon. Each boat is allotted two lines of a singular construction, of two hundred fathoms in length, and carefully coiled in their tubs in a circle. They are also provided with small flags, called "whifts," which are stuck in the dead whale in case the whalemen are driven off from their object by untoward circumstances, and in order that their position may again be found. A few "drogues," or quadrangular pieces of board, are likewise procured, which are fastened occasionally to the harpoon-rope, so as to impede the motion of the whale after he has been struck. A keg, containing a tinder-box, lanterns, and other articles, which will enable them when benighted to strike a light, and four harpoons and a few lances, constitute the equipment. The boats are each manned by six men, two of whom are called the "headsman" and "boat-steerer." In the chase of the whale four of these boats are used, and all is made ready for attack from the commencement of the voyage.

The principal instruments used in the whale fishery, are the harpoon, the lance, the spade, and the try-pot. The harpoon is a spear of iron about three feet in length, with a barbed point, and is required to be wrought with great strength from the toughest iron, so as to withstand the encounter with the huge animal, while the "shank," which is frequently bent by its struggles, must be composed of pliable and soft iron, for the purpose of enabling it to bend if required, but not to break. Another weapon of importance in the whale fishery is the lance, which is also an iron spear of about six feet in length, and into which is fitted a handle of fir, or other hard wood; its point is sharp and thin, the blade being seven or eight inches in length, and two and a half broad. This is used to wound the whale in a vital part after he has been struck, so as to hasten his death. The spade, another instrument similar to the lance, is also frequently required to cut up the blubber into small pieces; and the try-pot, a large iron tank with three legs and two flattened sides, is used for the boiling of the blubber into oil, after it is taken from the whale.

Another instrument, called the harpoon gun, and invented in 1731, was formerly used for the purpose of throwing the harpoon into the body of the whale, which could be done with effect at the distance of forty yards; but as great skill is required in its management, and numerous accidents have occurred from its use, the instrument has been relinquished.

We here subjoin also the figure of this gun, which, although of no particular utility, may be interesting to our readers.



Harpoon Gun.

In considering the subject of the whale fishery, it may be proper here to give a brief sketch of the character of its active agents, the sailors. Selected, as they are, from the most ardent, unsettled, daring, and, in great measure, reckless class of the population on our coast, comprised of young men who are unwilling to devote themselves to those slow and persevering habits, that minute and scrupulous attention to detail required in the successful prosecution of any form of business, and that plodding and unvaried labor which is always exacted by the cultivation of the soil, they are bold, warm in their imaginations, impulsive, generous, and from their mode of life, cast about as they are by storms from sea to sea, wide in their range of view, and devoid of the stability which would induce them to be confined long to any one place. Their habits of adventure in attacking the monsters of the deep upon their native element, give to their character a hardihood which could scarcely be acquired by any form of occupation upon the land. The day-book and the leger, those mighty engines which form important parts of the machinery of commerce, have no charms for them. In the words of one of our most distinguished jurists, "upon their native element, they are habitually buffeted by winds and waves, and wrestling with tempests; and in time of war, they are exposed to the still fiercer elements of the human passions."*

Accustomed to strict subordination by the discipline which the law has provided for our whaling ships, to toil and deprivation when on duty, their hardships are mingled with glimpses of sunshine in its intervals. The natural ardor of their character appears to break out, when they are relieved from its burdens, and have their foothold once again upon the land. Their views become as expansive as the broad ocean which stretches around them, and their impulses as wild as the waves which dash against its shores. Conscious that they are all embarked in one common enterprise, hazardous in the extreme, in which the success of the voyage is the measure of their rewards, and mutually depending upon each other for success, their affections become kindled into sympathy for their companions; and this feeling operates always upon the land, so as to induce them to sacrifice their

* See Kent's Commentaries, vol. 3d, p. 176–7.

own comfort to that of their friends. The money which they have procured by the most severe toil, they are ever ready to spend liberally in every form of indulgence, by dissipation; and their loose habits of economy and want of calculation, frequently cause them to fall a prey to those greedy "land sharks," which always show their fins in great numbers through all our seaport towns.

With such habits, to which there are many and honorable exceptions, it could hardly be expected that the great body of sailors should accumulate large fortunes. The earnings of years of toil are expended in as many months at the bar or the brothel, and the sailor, stripped of his means, has only the last resort, to ship again and resume his march upon the mountain wave, and return to his home upon the deep. Dressed in red woollen shirts, coarse pantaloons, pumps, and tarpaulin hat—removed, as they are, from the restraints of the civil law, and without those habits of reflection which would arise from the more steady and sober pursuits of the land, they frequently exhibit riotous habits, which would lead one to think that they were exempted from the jurisdiction of the laws.

The most prominent exceptions to this class of men, are those who have arisen by successive steps from the station of common sailors to that of boat-steerers, and to the posts of captains of their ships. These are, for the most part, temperate in their habits, with physical and moral powers fully adequate to bear the great responsibilities which devolve upon them, and to stand at the head of these stormy expeditions. We see many along our coast who have acquired fortunes by their business, and the beautiful houses which whiten our shores attest the success of their labors. A few remarks may be proper in this place, respecting the discipline of the whaling ships which is permitted by our laws. In the first place, it is well known that the ships which ply from our ports are chiefly owned by different individuals, who combine their capital in this species of stock usually to a large amount of value. Not only is the custody of the ship, which is of great cost, but also that of the outfits and crew, and the prosecution of the voyage, intrusted to the keeping of a single man, the captain of the ship. Numerous sailors of diverse and frequently insubordinate habits, are placed under his control, and on their obedience depend not only the success of the expedition, but even the safety of their lives. The law gives to the master of the ship a despotic power within certain prescribed bounds. It invests him with entire and full command of his ship, with the right to inflict personal chastisement upon those who break its discipline, to control the operations of the crew, and generally to exercise the same government that a schoolmaster exerts over his scholar, or the parent over his child. Doubtless many acts are committed on the part of the master which are founded in injustice, but then the sailor has his remedy by bringing his action for civil damages in a court of law. It has indeed been our lot during a limited professional practice in a seaport town, to have frequent applications from sailors claiming maltreatment on board ship from their captains, which, however, proved to furnish no ground for a legal claim of damages. Certain old "law salts" are always found on board ship ready to give in their advice when a sailor has been unjustly punished or chastised with improper weapons, and a jury away from the coast, it is well known, are seldom backward in awarding damages full as great as the injury. Doubtless extraordinary discretion, forbearance, and determination, are required on the part of the master, to exercise the power which the law gives him for the purpose of preserving

discipline on board his ship, and thus carrying out the objects of the voyage; but how many acts of insubordination on the part of sailors, may manifest themselves in unequivocal signs, and which demand punishment from the consequences which they may produce, although the facts cannot be established in evidence. Is the power of personal chastisement that the law allows the master to inflict upon insubordinate sailors, and which is so repugnant to the feelings of many of our citizens, expedient and right? We maintain that it is! because it is clear that such or like means are essential to the safety of the voyage, and without them no whaling voyages could be safely prosecuted. Suppose recreant offenders could only be placed in irons until the ship arrived in port, or within the jurisdiction of a competent court to try the case? Under these circumstances, their services would be lost, and were a sufficient number to merit this punishment, it would be in their power at any time to break up a voyage, by placing themselves in this position. Personal chastisement of sailors, we say then, is just, from the necessity of the case. It should never, however, be inflicted but on sure grounds, and with proper weapons. Should the master of the ship fail to comply with the requisitions of the law in this respect, he is and ought to be amenable to the injured party in damages, as is fully proved by the records of our courts. His position, with a crew possessing the physical power to wrest from him his command, at all times subject to revolt, and far away from succor, on the desert of the ocean, is unenviable. If his responsibilities are great, so also should be his rewards, if he meets these responsibilities with promptitude, and performs his duty.

We now proceed to sketch the ordinary circumstances connected with the departure of a whale ship from our American ports. We may suppose that her provisions are stowed away for the crew, the instruments made ready, and the sailors having placed their blue jackets in their chests, and enrobed themselves in their bright red shirts and new tarpaulins, have taken their parting farewell of the land. The black ship, like the leviathan which it pursues, lies motionless in the dock. The instruments which have been prepared are carefully stowed away in their cases, and the whaleboats, seemingly as light as the swan, are swung in regular order, above the deck or on the ship's side. The crew are on board, with perhaps two or three who have repented of their contract since they signed the "shipping articles," and have succeeded in eluding the sheriff by taking refuge in flight. The snow-white sails are now seen flapping in the winds, and soon swell into bellying canvass before the gale. The anchor is apeak, and the huge fabric springs onward before the blast to its ocean home. Along the receding shores, by the white cottages, the vessel is borne away until it approaches the entrance of the ocean, and to the uttermost verge of the land. The islands that sprinkle the coast lie like blue clouds, which dwindle into dimmer outline as they recede, and the ship advances into its watery realm until the coast appears like an azure line painted upon the horizon, and the light of Montauk glimmers upon the sight of the wave-tossed mariners like a fading star upon the borders of the sky. They are now upon the ocean.

"There Leviathan,
Hugest of living creatures, on the deep
Stretched like a promontory, sleeps or swims,
And seems a moving land, and at his gills
Draws in, and at his trunk spouts out, a sea."

Around them, far away to the east, the south, the north, and the west, thousands of miles beyond the remote boundaries within the scope of the spyglass, a watery plain, which seems to have no end, is stretched along the horizon like "the image of eternity." The sea which the day before tossed their ship upon its huge billows, has sunk into comparative rest, and develops a broad and glassy breast, which heaves and swells in gigantic strength as if fatigued with its exertions in the tempest of the previous day.

On the second day out men are placed at the mast head, in the "crow's nest," a kind of watch-tower, comprised of an apparatus built upon the main topmast or on the topgallantmast head, and are provided with a spyglass, which will command a wide sweep of the sea. Presently a low bushy spout is seen, by the men in the crow's nest, rising from the surface of the ocean, and a cry is then given in a slow and peculiar tone from the mast head, "there she spouts," and if it is repeated, "there again." The answer, "where away," is returned. All is then bustle and animation on board the ship, some of the crew rush towards the edge of the vessel, and others ascend the rigging to observe the direction of the spout. If the whale is to leeward, the vessel is placed in a direction towards the whale; but if to windward, then two or three boats are rapidly lowered, and rush on with great speed by the vigorous arms of the rowers towards their intended object of attack. When the whale is perceived, great care and prudence are required in order to prevent its disturbance, which is the most effectually done by directing its course towards the back of the victim. A huge whale may now be seen about a quarter of a mile from the ship, with his hump projecting three feet from the water, together with the spout which is seen rising every ten seconds from his enormous head, when the cry again echoes from the boat, "there again."

The boats thus darting through the water with all the velocity which they can command, now approach the body of the whale. His spoutings are nearly out, and he is about to descend, or perhaps he is disturbed by the noise of the boats which are approaching, or the customary chant of the sailors which they sometimes time with their oars,

"Away my boys, away my boys, 'tis time for us to go,"

as their voices rise from the sea. He is soon going down. The water around appears to be agitated. His "small" is rising as if in preparation for the final plunge; while the men bend their oars, in order to reach his side and to strike the harpoon. One more spout rushes from his head, his small is curved, and his flukes are expected to be thrown aloft for his exit. But, by great effort, a boat reaches his side. "Peak your oars," is heard from the man who appears to have the command of the boat, and the harpoon glitters for an instant in the air, and descends like lightning into the body of the monster. "Stern all," cries the headsman, and the sailors pull with their oars back from the body of the wounded whale, while a shout from the boat, which is answered from the ship, echoes along the waves, denoting that the instrument has taken effect. The whale now raises his head as if in agony, the sea is lashed into foam by his flukes, and the sound of their blows reverberates far upon the waters. But the monster soon disappears, drawing after him in his flight the line, which runs almost with the speed of light through the groove at the head of the boat, while the men, calm as marble statues, await the issue. Two hundred fathoms of the line are now nearly out, and another boat "bends on" an-

other line just in time to save that which is already attached to the whale. He still descends. The "drogues" are attached to retard his progress, but he descends further, and is now six hundred fathoms deep in the ocean. "Stand ready to bend on," cries the mate, which would give a line of eight hundred fathoms; but that is not required, as the whale appears to be rising. "Haul in the slack," cries the headsman, and the lax rope is hauled in, and carefully coiled in the tubs, while the whale is perceived by the agitation of the sea to be rising near the surface. A confused and high spout rising from his head, as he appears above the water, attest his fright and agony. The line having been coiled in the tubs, the fast boat approaches the trembling animal, and the headsman, standing near the fin, buries his lance in its vitals, while the boats on the other side throw another harpoon into that part of his body. "Stern all" is again cried out, and the boats shoot away from the danger.

The pain inflicted by these second wounds seem to infuriate the whale, who writhes in horrible contortions, tosses his head above the sea with expanded mouth, and lashes the ocean with his flukes, sometimes lifting the boats with the men high into the air, turns over his body, coiling the rope around him. The boats are jerked violently, the line is snapped, one is upset, and the crew swim for their lives. The whale is free, and runs along the surface of the ocean, "head out," with amazing swiftness, dragging after him a long length of line. But two boats are not, perhaps, yet fastened, and they soon give chase. The whale, exhausted by the loss of blood, and the weight of line which he has borne in endeavoring to escape from his pursuers, and by the immense pressure of the ocean which has weighed upon his body in its depths, is soon reached, and another harpoon is thrown into him. The men whose boats may have been turned over, now right them by clinging on to one side, and join in the chase. The lance is again buried to its socket in the flesh of the dying monster, but the blood soon spouts from the head, which clearly indicates that the work of death has been accomplished. Again the whale attempts to descend, but it is enfeebled and fails, soon rising to the surface, when the pangs of death seize his gigantic frame. Suffocating from the loss of blood, his whole bulk is now thrown into convulsions, by which the sea is beaten into foam. He rapidly moves along the sea, describing the segment of a circle. This is called his "flurry," which ends in his turning over upon his side, and floating an inanimate bulk upon the surface of the sea, as has been well remarked, a "victim of the tyranny and selfishness of man."

The incidents connected with the whale fishery here described, although extraordinary in their kind and frequently varied, are well known to be within the experience of those who have been accustomed to whaling voyages. We would, however, here give the accounts of those who have been actors in such rare scenes, in their own words. The first account to which we shall refer is that connected with the loss of the whaleship Essex, of Nantucket, in 1819.

"The ship Essex, Captain George Pollard, sailed from Nantucket, 12th of 8th month, 1819, on a whaling voyage to the Pacific Ocean. Her crew consisted of 21 men, 14 of whom were whites, mostly belonging to Nantucket; the remainder were blacks. On the 20th of the 11th month, 1820, in lat. 0 deg. 40 min. S. lon. 119 deg. W., a school of whales was discovered, and in pursuing them the mate's boat was stove, which obliged him to return to the ship, when they commenced repairing the damage. The

captain and second mate were left with their boats, pursuing the whales. During this interval the mate discovered a large spermaceti whale near the ship; but, not suspecting the approach of any danger, it gave them no alarm, until they saw the whale coming with full speed towards them. In a moment they were astonished by a tremendous crash. The whale had struck the ship a little forward of the fore chains. It was some minutes before the crew could recover from their astonishment, so far as to examine whether any damage had been sustained. They then tried their pumps, and found that the ship was sinking. A signal was immediately set for the boats. The whale now appeared again making for the ship; and, coming with great velocity, with the water foaming around him, he struck the ship a second blow, which nearly stove in her bows. There was now no hope of saving the ship, and the only course to be pursued was, to prepare to leave her with all possible haste. They collected a few things, hove them into the boat, and shoved off. The ship immediately fell upon one side and sunk to the water's edge. When the captain's and second mate's boats arrived, such was the consternation, that for some time not a word was spoken. The danger of their situation at length aroused them, as from a terrific dream to a no less terrific reality. They remained by the wreck two or three days, in which time they cut away the masts, which caused her to right a little. Holes were then cut in the deck, by which means they obtained about 600 pounds of bread, and as much water as they could take, besides other articles likely to be of use to them. On the 22d of 11th month, they left the ship, with as gloomy a prospect before them as can well be imagined. The nearest land was about 1,000 miles to the windward of them; they were in open boats, weak and leaky, with a very small pittance of bread and water for the support of so many men, during the time they must necessarily be at sea. Sails had been prepared for the boats, before leaving the ship, which proved of material benefit. They steered southerly by the wind, hoping to fall in with some ship, but in this they were disappointed. After being in their boats twenty-eight days, experiencing many sufferings by gales of wind, want of water, and scanty provisions, they arrived at Ducie's Island, in lat. 24 deg. 40 min. S. lon. 124 deg. 40 min. W., where they were disappointed in not finding a sufficiency of any kind of food for so large a company to subsist on. Their boats being very weak and leaky, they were hauled on shore and repaired. They found a gentle spring of fresh water, flowing out of a rock at about half ebb of the tide, from which they filled their kegs. Three of the men chose to stay on the island, and take their chance for some vessel to take them off."

We introduce other incidents which occurred within the operations of the English whale fishery.*

"In the afternoon of a day which had been rather stormy, while we were fishing in the North Pacific, 'a school' of young bull whales made their appearance close to the ship, and as the weather had cleared up a little, the captain immediately ordered the mate to lower his boat, while he did the same with his own, in order to go in pursuit of them.

"The two boats were instantly lowered, for we were unable to send more, having had two others 'stove' the day before; they soon got near the whales, but were unfortunately seen by them before they could get near

* See the Natural History of the Sperm Whale: by Thomas Beale. London, 1839.

enough to dart the harpoon with any chance of success, and the consequence was that the 'pod' of whales separated, and went off with great swiftness in different directions. One, however, after making several turns, came at length right towards the captain's boat, which he observing, waited in silence for his approach without moving an oar, so that the 'young bull' came close by his boat, and received the blow of the harpoon some distance behind his 'hump,' which I saw enter his flesh myself, as it occurred close to the ship. The whale appeared quite terror-struck for a few seconds, and then suddenly recovering itself, darted off like the wind, and spun the boat so quickly round when the tug came upon the line, that she was within a miracle of being upset. But away they went, 'dead to windward,' at the rate of twelve or fifteen miles an hour, right against a 'head sea,' which flew against and over the bows of the boat with uncommon force, so that she at times appeared ploughing through it, making a high bank of surf on each side.

"The second mate, having observed the course of the whale and boat, managed to waylay them, and when they came near to him, which they speedily did, a 'short warp' was thrown, and both boats were soon towed at nearly the same rate as the captain's boat had been before.

"I now saw the captain darting the lance at the whale as it almost flew along, but he did not seem to do so with any kind of effect, as the speed of the whale did not appear in the least diminished, and in a very short time they all disappeared together, being at too great a distance to be seen with the naked eye from the deck. I now ran aloft, and with the aid of a telescope could just discern from the mast head the three objects, like specks upon the surface of the ocean, at an alarming distance. I could just observe the two boats, with the whale's head occasionally darting out before them, with a good deal of 'white water' or foam about them, which convinced me that the whale was still running. I watched them with the glass until I could no longer trace them even in the most indistinct manner, and I then called to those on deck, that they might take the bearing by compass, of the direction in which I had lost sight of them, that we might continue to 'beat' the ship up to that quarter.

"Although all eyes were employed, in every direction, searching for the boats, no vestige of them could be seen; and therefore, when half past nine, P. M., came, we made up our minds that they were all lost; and as the wind howled hoarsely through the rigging, and the waves beat savagely against our ship, some of us imagined that they could occasionally hear the captain's voice, ordering the ship to 'bear up,' while the boats had been seen more than fifty times by anxious spirits, who had strained their eyes through the gloom until fancy robbed them of their true speculation, and left her phantasmagoria in exchange. There were not many on board who did not think of home on that dreadful night; there were not many among us who did not curse the sea, and all sea-going avocations; while, with the same breath, they blessed the safe and cheerful fireside of their parents and friends who resided at home, and which at that moment they would have given all they possessed but to see. But at the moment despair was firmly settling upon us, a man from aloft called out that he could see a light right ahead of the ship, just as we were 'going about,' by which we should have gone from it. We all looked in that direction, and in a few minutes we could plainly perceive it; in a short time we were close up with it, when, to our great joy, we found the captain and all the men in the boats, lying to leeward of

the dead whale, which had in some measure saved them from the violence of the sea. They had only just been able to procure a light, having unfortunately upset all their tinder through the violent motion of the boats, by which it became wet—but which they succeeded in igniting after immense application of the flint and steel—or their lantern would have been suspended from an oar directly after sunset, which is the usual practice when boats are placed under such circumstances."

"On the morning of the 18th June, 1832, while we were still fishing in the 'off-shore ground' of Japan, we fell in with an immense sperm whale, which happened to be just the sort of one we required to complete our cargo. Three boats were immediately lowered to give him chase; but the whale, from some cause or other, appeared wild in its actions long before it had seen any of our boats, although it might have been chased the day before by some other ship. It was greatly different in its actions to most other large whales, because it never went steadily upon one course. If he 'peaked his flukes' or went down going to the southward, we expected he would continue that course under water, but when he again rose, perhaps he was two or three miles away from the boats to the northward; in this sort of manner he dodged us about until near four P. M., at which time the men were dreadfully exhausted from their exertions in the chase, which had been conducted under a broiling sun, with the thermometer standing in the shade at 93°. About half-past four, however, Captain Swain contrived, by the most subtle management and great physical exertions, to get near to the monster, when he immediately struck him with the harpoon with his own hands; and, before he had time to recover from the blow, he managed with his usual dexterity to give him two fatal wounds with the lance, which caused the blood to flow from the blow hole in abundance. The whale, after the last lance, immediately descended below the surface, and the captain felt certain that he was going to 'sound,' but in this he was much mistaken—for a few minutes after his descent he again rose to the surface with great velocity, and striking the boat with the front part of his head, threw it high into the air with the men and every thing contained therein, fracturing it to atoms, and scattering its crew widely about. While the men were endeavoring to save themselves from drowning by clinging to their oars and pieces of the wreck of the boat, the enormous animal was seen swimming round and round them, appearing as if meditating an attack with his flukes, which, if he had thought proper to do, in return for the grievous wounds that he had himself received, a few strokes of his ponderous tail would soon have destroyed his enemies; but this was not attempted. They had now nothing to hope for but the arrival of the other boats to relieve them from their dangerous situation, rendered more so by the appearance of several large sharks, attracted by the blood which flowed from the whale, which were sometimes only a few feet from them; and also from the inability of one of the boat's crew to swim, by which three or four of his mates were much exhausted in their efforts to save him, which they succeeded in doing, after having lashed two or three oars across the stern of the boat, which happened to be not much fractured, on which they placed their helpless fellow-adventurer. After they had remained in the water about three quarters of an hour, assisting themselves by clinging to pieces of the wreck, one of the other boats arrived and took them in, no doubt greatly to their relief and satisfaction. But although these brave whale fishermen had been so defeated, they were not subdued: the moment they

entered the boat which took them from the ocean, their immediate determination was for another attack upon the immense creature, which remained close by, while the other boat, which was pulling towards them with all the strength of its rowers, would still be a quarter of an hour before it could arrive.

"Captain Swain, with twelve men in one boat, therefore made another attack upon the whale with the lance, which caused it to throw up blood from the blow hole in increased quantities. We, who were on board the ship, and had observed from a great distance, by means of the telescope, the whole of the occurrence, were employed in beating the ship towards them; but they were far to windward, and the wind being rather light, we had even our royal sails set. Soon after the arrival of the third boat, the whale went into its flurry and soon died, when, to the dismay of the boats' crews, who had endured so much danger and hardship in its capture, it sunk, and never rose again,—an occurrence which is not very unfrequent, owing of course to the greater specific gravity of the individual, perhaps from a greater development of bony and muscular structures. Such were the adventures of that day, in the evening of which the crews returned to the ship, worn out and dispirited, having lost a favorite boat, with the whole of her instruments, besides the last whale wanted to complete the cargo, and worth at least £500!"

The whale being dead, the process of extracting the oil commences, which operation is divided, in nautical phrase, into two separate acts, the "cutting in" and the "trying out." The whale is now brought alongside of the ship, and the business of cutting in, by means of the spades, is effected. A man descends upon the floating carcase, and cutting a hole in the body of the whale, near its junction with the head, inserts a hook in the hole, by which that part is drawn up towards the ship by pullies prepared for the purpose. This, particularly in a high sea, is a dangerous experiment, as the motion of the waves prevents certain footing upon the slippery body of the animal. A tension being produced upon the fat by this motion, it is cut by the spade in strips of two or three feet broad, and in a spiral direction, which is done by means of a windlass acting upon pullies that are fixed to the maintop. The "blanket pieces," as they are termed, are thus removed by the same process that a bandage might be unrolled from a circular body; and the animal is divested of its blubber to the flukes, the head being previously cut off and allowed to float at the stern of the ship, but carefully secured.

The body having undergone its flaying process, is now permitted to float off and the head is hoisted on end by the pullies, and the case being opened, the spermaceti is taken out, by means of a pole and bucket which is dipped into the cavity. The junk is then cut from the head. This is hoisted on board and cut into square pieces, when the head is allowed to sink into the waves, divested as it now is of the means of its buoyancy. The blanket pieces, from eight to fourteen inches thick, are then cut from the long strips of fat, and as well as the junk, are divided into thin pieces, upon blocks called horses, and thrown into the try-pots in which the oil is extracted by the fire. The membranous parts of the oil which are called "scraps" by the sailors, are used as fuel; and the spermaceti from the case is boiled alone, and is called "head matter." The oil and spermaceti are then placed in barrels, and brought into port.

The following figures show the form of the instruments used in the capture of the whale.

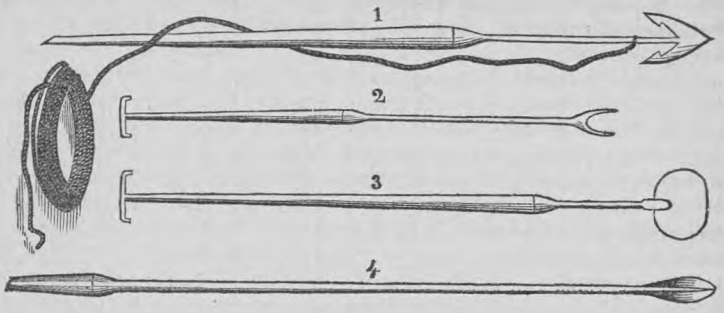


Figure 1. represents a common harpoon.
Fig. 2., the packer, used to pack the blubber in casks.
Fig. 3. is the blubber spade, used to cut up the fish when taken.
Fig. 4. is the lance.

The whalebone, which forms at present so important an article of commerce, is found in great quantity in the mouth of the whale, and forms a filter which is peculiarly adapted to separate the sea-water from the animal on which it feeds. It is a horny substance, elastic and flexible. The laminæ, about 300 in number, are situated on each side of the head, and the longest blade is usually the test which designates the size of the whale. Its greatest length is fifteen feet; its greatest breadth, twelve inches, and its greatest thickness, five tenths of an inch. The edge of each blade of the bone annexed to the tongue, is fringed with a sort of hair; and it is generally brought from Greenland in its natural state, although sometimes prepared for market on shipboard.

It is estimated by Scoresby, a good authority, that four tuns of blubber produces generally about three tuns of oil, each tun comprising 252 gallons by wine measure. The colossal dimensions of this animal may be adjudged from the fact that whales are sometimes caught which afford thirty tuns of pure oil, although these are of course not as common as those which produce twenty tuns. It has been found that the quantity of oil produced from a single whale, usually bears a uniform proportion to the length of the bone. We thus have, in the following table, prepared by one who has had much experience in the matter, the relative proportion which the size of the bone in a whale bears to the quantity of oil, and which is probably as accurate as any information which can be procured from the uncertain means of testing the fact.

Length of whale-bone in feet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Oil yielded in tuns.	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	4	5	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	11	$13\frac{1}{2}$	17	21

We may here mention certain facts respecting the bulk of the whale, which may perhaps prove interesting to our readers. It is estimated that a

whale of sixty feet in length, does not fall short of the weight of seventy tons, the blubber comprising about thirty tons; the bones of the head, whalebone, fins and tail, ten, and the carcase nearly thirty-two. The flesh of the young whale is of a red color, and in consistency it is somewhat like coarse beef, while that of the old whale is exceedingly black, being constituted of firm beds of muscles, which appear to be directed to the movements of the tail, the flesh being thus rendered too coarse to be eaten. These bones, however, are extremely porous, and contain much fine oil.

The whale fishery, which is conducted in different parts of the ocean, is of course marked by peculiar incidents appertaining to the climate through which it ranges. For example, the operations of the English whalemen, who range with their ships in the remote north, amid masses of floating ice, must be entirely different in their vicissitudes from that enterprise conducted under the burning sun of the tropics. Yet we find its features marked by all those arduous labors and wild incidents which would be expected from the attack of the monarch of the ocean in his native element. It is, throughout, a scene of toil, which is enlivened by various circumstances that tend to throw a charm over the life of the mariner. When he has been long upon the open sea, exposed to cold blasts of a northern sky, or to the burning heat of an African sun, perchance he anchors near some of the beautiful islands which are set like gems upon the ocean, and supplies himself with all those luxuries that they afford. Even the chase and capture of the whale are attended with a thrilling excitement, somewhat akin to the sports of the field. Memory brings back the scenes of former days, and even while engaged in that hard track of toil which is allotted to most men upon the land and the sea, who achieve any thing of value, and tossed upon the waves of the ocean, at war with its most gigantic inhabitant, hope glimmers like a star upon the prow, and lights him to the vision of brighter hours, when it shall be turned towards the green fields, and smiling cottages, and welcoming friends of his rocky home.

The appearance of most whalemen, when they return from a voyage, is hardy and robust in the extreme; the substantial food and bracing air, afforded by the circumstances in which they are placed, as well as their violent exercise, serving to give remarkable vigor and animation to their constitutions. The class of men acting in the capacity of masters, and to whom we have before adverted, cannot be regarded with too great respect. As a body, they are men who have combined in their character the most valuable traits; cool, determined, and brave, they bear the weight of duties, and encounter hazards, which could hardly be appreciated upon the land. A striking difference exists, however, in the success of different masters of ships. Some appear always endowed with good luck, and make prosperous voyages, while others are as uniformly unfortunate in their expeditions. Doubtless, the different success of these captains may be attributable to a diversity in skill, energy, knowledge, and prudence; yet it is as often owing to circumstances which are known only to the Omniscient. We have in our eye one of these men, who, although yet comparatively young, is distinguished for his energy and his uniform success in these whaling expeditions. Spare in his form, there is a restlessness in his eye and frame, which seems to indicate that his soul is absorbed in his pursuit, and conquered by his ambition to succeed. Whenever he is enlisted as a master of a ship, that ship is sure to make a good voyage. He has worked his way by degrees, to the station of principal owner in a large ship, starting as he

did a common sailor, and by his own efforts has already earned a considerable fortune. His course presents an exception to the general custom of whale fishermen, in the fact that he usually takes his wife with him to sea, and we have seen his little dark-eyed boy, with a complexion embrowned by a tropical sun, clothed in a complete suit of seal-skins, which he had procured with his father on one of his already many voyages round the world, in the prosecution of the whale fishery. This man has been a source of vast profit to his employers, and while we are writing, is probably hurling the harpoon into a whale upon waves so high, and beneath clouds so dark, that other mariners would deem it prudent to lay to for preservation from the winds. He is, however, only one of that numerous class of the whale fishermen of New England, who have from the time of Burke, within the last half century earned a reputation which is as wide as the commercial intelligence of the world.

Nor do these hardy fishermen, although tossed for months upon the watery waste of the ocean, forget the friends whom they have left upon the land. The numerous rows of beautifully enamelled and polished shells of various forms, which line the cabinets of our seaport towns, the ostrich eggs, which the sailors often collect upon the shores of Africa, and bring home as curiosities made into bottles, and brought into port as presents, the canes, cut from the jaw-bone of the whale, of the color of ivory, and carved with curious devices, evince the ingenuity with which they occupy their leisure time. Nor are the fine arts neglected by these sons of the ocean; for we see the walls of the houses of our whalemen frequently adorned, not disfigured, by well-executed paintings of the whale in different postures, from the first blow of the harpoon to his last spouting of blood.

The fishery of the coast of Greenland is attended with numerous vicissitudes, connected with the cold climate of that region, and the variation of the ranging grounds of the whales, depending upon causes which are unknown. As early as 1803, the fishery of the Greenland whale commenced in the latitude of 80 deg., and many whales were seen in the same latitude, near Spitzbergen. In this quarter, grown fish are generally found near the great masses of ice. In July, the whale fishing usually terminated. The different species of the whale appear to inhabit different regions, and pursue different tracks from place to place; the large Greenland whale being found in the colder climate of the north, and the sperm in the southern seas, although they range a great portion of the surface of the ocean. The tribes seen at different places appear to be distinguished by a difference in age and manners; for instance, we are informed that those which in the spring are usually seen in the latitude of 80 deg., usually disappear by the end of April, the place of their retreat not being discovered. The whale which is found inhabiting the region of 78 deg., is of small dimensions; those which resort to the fields in May and June, are of mixed size, while those which are perceived in the latitude of 76 deg., are usually of the very largest sort. The great uncertainty which is evinced in the nature of the situations that are preferred by whales might not perhaps appear extraordinary if their particular species were examined. We should then find that the same tribes are distinguished by a similarity of habits. They are annoyed by fishermen and driven from point to point in the ocean, and it would be strange if they did not vary their swimming grounds. Frightened from the coast, they find a resort in some obscure bay of Spitzbergen until the black ship of the whaler drives them from these solitary haunts. Some

times they take refuge among the masses of ice in the interior, and thus elude their pursuers. Occasionally a large tribe is seen running from one point of the ocean to another, and it is a little extraordinary that during certain years, a general retreat is made by the whales from off the fishing stations.

We have thus drawn the outline of the whale fishery as it is conducted in the United States. In its importance as augmenting the wealth of the country, it is not equalled by any other species of traffic, and presents a marked example of productive labor. It adds to the stock of national wealth by drawing from the great reservoir of the ocean an immense value to the public, both for use and exchange. The light by which we are now writing is composed of the fluid which once gave strength to the back of the monster whose character and capture we have endeavored to record. The arts in their various forms are in a great measure dependent upon this traffic; and our manufacturing establishments, as well as the engines of our steamships, and various other forms of machinery, are kept in motion by the oil of the whale, while those convenient implements by which we avert from our heads the sun and rains, are strengthened by its bones. The light that is furnished by the whale illuminates our streets. It cheers the hard-handed ploughman by the winter fireside, and adds a greater brilliancy to the gems which blaze in the palace. It glimmers in the cell of the anchorite, and guides the doomed scholar to the grave. It pours a flood of radiance upon the halls of fashion, points out the coast to the tempest-tossed mariner, and flames aloft upon the giddy spars of the ship as it struggles onward through the ocean. Of late years, as we have seen, the states bordering the Atlantic, including the principal seaport towns of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, and even the more inland states of New Jersey and Delaware, have embarked to a considerable extent in the whale fishery; and the luxurious edifices which adorn many of these cities, attest the enterprise of those who are engaged in the traffic, and the success of their labors. In a preceding portion of the present article, we have shown the amount of this commerce so productive of wealth to the nation. We think that it should be nurtured as a strong arm of domestic industry, and a severe but valuable nursery of that noble, hardy, and valuable class, the seamen of the country.

Art. II.—CONNECTION OF LEARNING WITH COMMERCE.

The reciprocal benefits of commerce and agriculture have been often stated, and cannot be too strongly urged. In our country, this connection should be constantly kept in mind. The future prosperity of the United States depends on the recognition and practical observance of this great truth. Perhaps the connection of commerce and science is not less real, nor the less important to be recognised. Whatever tends to the increase and dissemination of science in a nation, must contribute to its improvement, and therefore to its true and permanent prosperity. If the morals of a people are not invariably in proportion to their knowledge, their character is generally improved by it, as to the arts of civilization and political

strength; but so long as they remain in a state of ignorance, there is far less hope, as well of their political power, as of their moral elevation. A reference to the history of past ages will show that learning and science have usually accompanied or closely followed commercial enterprise, and serve to ensure its just appreciation with enlightened and patriotic citizens, by suggesting an important consideration of its benefits, in addition to what is more commonly called the prosperity of a nation, its physical resources and wealth.

It is true indeed, that an intercourse between different countries, for the purposes of trade, may be, and in remote ages was, maintained chiefly by land transportation; but since navigation has been known and improved, the other mode of conveyance has been in a great measure discontinued. And where the local situation of countries would permit, a preference has been given to navigation, since the age of *Solomon;* and probably as early as the exode of the Israelites from Egypt, five hundred years before the reign of that prosperous monarch. Three hundred years before Moses, trade was pursued between central and western Asia and Egypt, by means of land transportation. From Chaldea and Persia, and the Hither India, the caravansaries passed through Syria to the eastern shores of the Mediterranean and to Egypt, and some of them probably through Arabia across the Red Sea to Nubia—a country probably of a more early settlement than Lower Egypt. So *Chaldea*, and not Egypt, may justly be considered as the cradle of the human family, after the deluge; and the country, whence originated and were communicated the learning and science of early periods. Some of the grandchildren of Noah settled in Chaldea; and they had all the learning which survived the calamity of an universal deluge. As the descendants of the antediluvian patriarch, of the third and fourth generations removed, some east of the Euphrates, and others west and south, to Arabia, Syria, Nubia, Egypt, &c., an intercourse would naturally be maintained between these countries; and an exchange of the products of each would be made for the purpose of trade. The descendants of Noah, who remained in the fertile plains of Shinar, would be most likely to make greater progress in arts and in science than those removed to remote regions, and had to struggle hard for the mere necessaries of life. The merchants or traders to whom Joseph was sold, were Midianites engaged in traffic between their country (part of Arabia) and Egypt, passed through the land of Canaan, and probably first visited older settlements in the east, bringing thence various articles of great value. For they had not only balm and myrrh, but spices, which might in very early times have been conveyed across the Persian Gulf, though in boats comparatively small and fragile.

The early population of Arabia is implied, though not so expressly asserted by Moses as that of Chaldea, Syria, and Egypt. There were men of learning and science in Arabia before Moses. Job and his friends had some acquaintance with astronomy, derived no doubt from their Chaldean ancestors; and a knowledge of astronomy, even when attended with some errors in theory, and destitute of the discoveries of modern times, presupposes some acquaintance with mathematics. The fact indeed is undisputed, that in Chaldea, Hither India, and Arabia, the science of numbers and of arithmetic was early cultivated.

The Chaldeans possessed all the information which Noah and his sons had communicated from the antediluvian race; and from the remotest pe-

riods were celebrated for their study of the divine science of astronomy. The kindred sciences, no doubt, were studied by them, and soon spread to distant countries. All other nations having originated from Chaldea, would readily receive knowledge from thence, and even revisit it both for trade and science. In very early ages, however, this intercourse, as already suggested, was chiefly maintained by land conveyance.

The first efforts in navigation are now unknown; but it is probable that they were as soon as the descendants of Noah spread to the Persian Gulf, and to Arabia, and the Red Sea, and through Canaan to the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. It is supposed by some learned men, that the Phœnicians practised navigation as early as the time of Moses, (or soon after,) fifteen hundred years before the Christian era, and that they visited distant ports on that sea. When the people of Canaan were driven out of their borders by Joshua, some of them probably colonized places in the western parts of Asia Minor, in Greece, and on the northern coasts of Africa.

In the days of Solomon, navigation attracted great attention, and it was encouraged as the most efficient aid to commerce. Thus, it gradually became a substitute for land transportation, wherever it was practicable. The caravans were not, indeed, discontinued from central Asia to Palestine, and Asia Minor and Egypt, for centuries after Solomon; but in all places on the seacoasts, they were superseded by navigation; and the Persian Gulf, the Red Sea, and the Mediterranean were then traversed for the purposes of trade.

It is true that the principal object of navigation, in the early periods of the world, was wealth. But the spirit which led men to adopt and pursue it, was indicative at once of enterprise and of curiosity. And the active, adventurous merchant was usually a friend of science, and a patron of the useful arts. He was eager to acquire a knowledge of the discoveries of other nations, and to communicate it to his own countrymen. For commerce tends to enlarge and liberalize the mind; and those who pursue it, are usually munificent encouragers of learning. Wherever commerce exists, the arts of civilization are known and cultivated; and commerce, literature, and science are seen to follow.* Leonardi, an eminent merchant of Pisa, in the beginning of the tenth century, brought the knowledge of algebra from Arabia, which he had visited for the sake of trade. It is supposed he travelled east or northeast of Arabia, whence the people of the latter country might have received that science. But whether they derived it from Chaldea or from Greece, as some suppose, is not material in the view here taken of the subject. It was not received in Italy and the west directly from Greece; and it is probable, that although the Greeks had a knowledge of geometry long before this period, that they were not the first people who were acquainted with algebra; but that it originated in Arabia, or in India, whence it was early conveyed to the Arabians.

Nations which have had no foreign commerce, have usually made but slow advances in science and the arts. The Romans were five hundred

* "Commerce," says Dr. Belknap, "is one of the most powerful causes which have contributed to enlarge the sphere of science; because it is stimulated by one of the most active principles of the human mind." And it is from a *fortunate* merchant and mathematician of Florence that America derives its name; though, in *justice*, it should have borne that of a still more adventurous, and equally intelligent individual.

years without commerce, except to a very limited extent, and on a small scale. Except their necessary attention to agriculture, war was their employment and their trade. And though this may polish men's deportment in some measure, it has a far less tendency to improve or civilize than a commercial intercourse with foreign countries. The most savage and barbarous nations may be able warriors, while they make no progress in literature or the arts of civilized society. The pursuits of commerce only, will raise them from their uncivilized condition.

When Mexico was invaded and conquered by *Cortez*, near the beginning of the sixteenth century, though the population was great, and the inhabitants in some respects inventive, they were ignorant of many important discoveries which had been made in Europe for five hundred, and a thousand years. Their ancestors had probably emigrated from the northeast of Asia to the northeastern parts of America several centuries before the Christian era, and from a people far less enlightened than some nations were, even at that period, in the west of Asia and in Europe. After passing over to this continent, they spread far and wide, chiefly to the south and east, for a more genial climate; and they or their descendants successively, passed through parts of the present territory of the United States, on their way to Mexico, leaving a portion behind on the lands they traversed. They would have been far more advanced in the arts of life and in science, when visited by that conqueror, in 1520, had they pursued the business of commerce with distant countries.

The Chinese have been somewhat above a savage and barbarous condition ever since visited and known by Europeans, which is more than three hundred years; but their secluded state, and an aversion to intercourse with other nations, have no doubt prevented their making any advances in science or civilization for many centuries. They are probably descendants from the posterity of *Shem*, and carried with them to China the knowledge possessed by those inhabiting central Asia, five hundred years or more from the deluge. But their want of enterprise for foreign adventure and trade, has been an entire obstacle to their making such progress as many other nations have done, in which a portion of the people were engaged in commerce. And navigation having in a great measure superseded land conveyances between distant countries, where this is not encouraged, commerce is necessarily cramped and unprofitable.

The Phœnicians, one of the earliest people devoted to commerce and navigation, probably carried the knowledge of letters into Greece, before any inquisitive individuals of that country visited Egypt for the purpose of discoveries in science or literature. The Phœnicians were engaged in commerce and navigation as early as the time of Moses, perhaps at a more early period. And when Joshua settled his countrymen in Canaan, many of the original inhabitants fled by sea to distant places in the Mediterranean. The chief object of the Phœnician navigators was wealth; but they were also patrons of the arts of civilization, and encouraged the propagation of useful knowledge and the physical sciences, from the east to the then more ignorant and barbarous west.

To an extensive and prosperous commerce, Great Britain owes more for its wealth and civilization, than to any other cause. And, that her commerce with other nations is owing to her use of navigation, and the employment of her own citizens in pursuing it, cannot be justly doubted. Had it been the policy of her rulers for five hundred years past, to discourage com-

mercial pursuits, and to have no more trade than depended on the efforts and enterprises of other countries—had her citizens retired from the ocean and left the carrying trade to others, or shut themselves up from the rest of the world, their condition would have been far less elevated and glorious than it now is.

If the first settlers of Virginia, Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, &c., had been content to confine themselves entirely to the cultivation of the soil, and to a few mechanic arts, necessary to subsistence, and had their descendants adopted the same narrow policy, and desisted wholly from navigation, and from trade with Europe, the condition of this country, and the character of the people, would have been far inferior in civilization and literature than it is at present.

If we look far back into remote ages, we shall find that the nations then existing, which had intercourse with one another for the purpose of trade, whether by land or water, were among the first which became distinguished for science and letters. Thus we find Chaldea and the Hither India, Arabia, Egypt, and Phœnicia, very early enjoyed a great degree of civilization, and had a knowledge of many useful arts, when the rest of the world was in a rude and barbarous state. If Greece was not early engaged in trade by navigation, it is evident that the merchants of the east visited that country, and carried thither the elements of science, then cultivated in Asia. In the time of Alfred, (850,) Britain had very little commerce, and the people were in a deplorable state of ignorance and barbarism. Edward I., in the thirteenth century, encouraged commerce, and civilization and learning soon followed. From the tenth century, many nations of Europe advanced in knowledge, civilization, and wealth; and this improvement may be justly attributed to trade and commerce, more than to any other cause; though the crusades to the holy land by Europeans, led indirectly to the dissemination of literature and science in the western parts of the old continent. Thus, it will be found that the first and greatest advances were made in maritime towns and their vicinity.

Venice was early a place of trade, and its enterprising merchants contributed greatly to the civilization and learning of Europe. They were considered as "citizens of the world," on account of their commercial enterprises; for they thus became more liberal in their views, and more courteous in their manners. At *Genoa*, the birthplace of COLUMBUS, navigation and trade early flourished. Vienna soon after became a place of trade, of letters, and of the arts; and thence civilization and learning extended to the more northern parts of Germany.

At a more remote period, Marseilles was a mart for foreign commerce. It was early visited by the merchants of Tyre and Sidon; and in its vicinity probably was situated the ancient Tarshish, if, indeed, it were not the same.

The Saracens also, who conquered Spain, conveyed the knowledge of arithmetic, astronomy, and algebra, to that country from Arabia; but it was not their disposition or object to disseminate either art or science for the benefit of other nations. They were warriors, and promoters of the Mahomedan faith, rather than merchants or patrons of civilization and science.

We are fully justified, then, in asserting the connection between commerce and letters, the favorable influence of the former on the latter, and in urging upon the attention of our citizens the consideration of the vast

and various benefits of trade with foreign nations. The people of the United States are of an enterprising and inventive spirit. They have made great improvements in the useful arts, and in the mode of education, which people of the old continent may do well to imitate. And the latter have and will learn much of the former in future periods. But Europe is not stationary. It contains numerous individuals who are the most scientific and learned characters in the world; and we should not be ashamed to learn of them, nor to confess our obligations to them for a great portion of the science and literature of our young, but rising country. And without commercial intercourse with Europe, not only the means of wealth, but of scientific and literary progress in America, would be in a great measure diminished.

Art. III.—GOVERNMENTAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

FROM THE EARLIEST SETTLEMENT TO THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION.*

PART SECOND.

In the first division of our subject, we have traced the history of the "Southern Colony of Virginia," till its establishment under a settled and permanent form of government. We come now to that of the "Northern Colony of Virginia," more familiarly known as the "Colony of Plymouth," and which was so denominated because the proprietors of the company empowered to settle this division of the continent, had their residence at Plymouth. This company did not receive a patronage by any means equal to that of the other. Not only did it experience disadvantages from its own location, but the shores on which its settlements were to be made, were cold, bleak, cheerless, and inhospitable. Few men of rank, of opulence, or of enterprise, became interested in its transactions. And although it was gifted with equal privileges with the company resident at London, it fell far short of the latter in the energy and efficiency of its efforts to accomplish the objects of its incorporation. The first expedition under its auspices, was fitted out in the year 1606, but the vessels employed on this occasion were captured by the Spaniards. An inconsiderable settlement was formed at Sagahadoc in the year 1607, but the inclemency of the climate soon desolated whatever hopes it might have inspired, and no further attempts were made other than to open a fishing and fur trade with the natives. One of these trading vessels, which sailed in 1616, was commanded by Captain Smith, a name proudly conspicuous in the early history of the "South Virginia Colony." His inquisitive genius was not satisfied with a trade to the country, without any further knowledge of it than such as might be gained from the unenlightened natives. He landed, and spent some time in exploring it. He drew a chart of the coast, made practical observations on its bays and harbors, its soil and productions; and such were his repre-

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* Continued from page 204, of Merchants' Magazine for September, 1840.

sentations on his return to England, that the young prince, afterwards the first Charles, became so fascinated that he bestowed upon it the name of "New England." Yet although many became interested in the accounts given by Captain Smith, they had no further effect than to induce private adventurers to prosecute the trade with the natives. None were influenced to emigrate. Nor did the prospect of gain sufficiently lure the company to attempt any settlement. Men could not be induced to abandon their homes, ease, comfort, or luxury, for the sake of an uncertain, or at least a distant advantage, either to themselves or to their country. The shores were too wild, the climate too harsh, and the end too precarious, to inspire or to encourage a spirit of adventure. Happily, however, for mankind, there was a spirit which could face all these difficulties, and endure all these sacrifices and privations; which could breast every danger, and welcome any disaster, with the prospect, however distant or contingent, of accomplishing its purposes. A spirit which, under whatever trials, under whatever sacrifices, under whatever circumstances, and in whatever clime, could still live and glow in the bosom of its possessor. A spirit whose exalted purposes were in part accomplished the very moment it set foot on this "wild and rock-bound coast."' It was a spirit which sought "freedom to worship God."

After the warfare against the Romish church had been commenced by the great champion of the reformation, many of the countries of Europe separated themselves from her communion, and abjured her authority. In some instances, this rupture was sudden and violent, leaving no traces of the ancient superstition, but adopting an entirely new form of doctrines and of discipline. Such was the case in the institutes provided by Calvin, and adopted in many of the estates of Germany. The simplicity of these, but more particularly their hostility to the papal doctrines and ordinances, were so much admired by the more zealous of the reformers, that they were adopted in Scotland, in the United Provinces, the dominions of the House of Brandenburgh, in those of the Elector Palatine, and by the Huguenots of France. In England, however, a different policy seems to have been pursued, and the progress of the principles of the reformation here, was more cautious and deliberate. She abolished, at first, only those doctrines and institutions of Rome, which were more prominently repugnant to the principles of freedom, or savored too much of superstition or of human invention. The changes in her ecclesiastical polity were, likewise, either retarded or accelerated, according to the various tempers, sentiments, and even the caprices, of her successive sovereigns. When Mary succeeded to the throne in 1554, her bloody persecutions compelled many eminent protestants to seek a refuge on the continent. They were received with sympathy, and found a more congenial home in various cities in the United Provinces. A large number assembled at Geneva, and formed themselves into a community under the institutes of Calvin. On the accession of Elizabeth in 1558, and the consequent ascendancy of the protestant religion, they returned again to England, with strong and deep-rooted prejudices against the church which had persecuted them, and ardently attached to their own institutions. Their efforts, however, at a participation in the revision of the forms and observances of religion, and more especially of what was called the liturgy, were unsuccessful. They found Elizabeth not quite so liberal as her proclamations and promises had given them reason to expect. Proud in the consciousness of her superior abilities and her accomplishments in the school of theology, she deemed herself capable alone

to execute the task of expurgation. And her policy was rather to conciliate the followers of Rome, by imitating her in the pomp and parade of external worship, than to widen the breach by any further alterations. During her reign, an act of conformity was passed, which, however, left it at the discretion of the queen to require the observance of such ceremonials as in her wisdom she might think most becoming and instructive. She accordingly issued a proclamation prohibiting all preaching, and confining the services of the church to the reading of the gospels and commandments, without exposition or comment, together with the liturgy and the apostles' creed. These ordinances were opposed by the advocates for a further reform, and many of the most popular and distinguished of the clergy were deprived of their benefices, fined, and imprisoned. A court was erected called the "High Commission for Ecclesiastical affairs," whose trials were summary, whose decisions were arbitrary, and whose inflictions were almost as odious and cruel as the penalties of the inquisition. Its proceedings not only inflamed the zeal of the reformers, but also roused them to acts of open rebellion. In tracing the history of these inflammatory and intolerant times, while we condemn and deprecate the harsh denunciations of the established church, we cannot altogether justify the spirit of rebellion coupled with the religious ardor of the reformers. So ultimately blended, however, were the civil and ecclesiastical affairs of the kingdom, that the one could not be reformed without essentially opposing, and perhaps undermining the existing administration of the other. Having reviewed it sufficiently for our present purposes, we will here leave the general subject, and turn our attention to that small and devoted band of more humble and less erring piety, who chose rather to seek an asylum where they might follow the dictates of their own consciences without fear of provoking the inflictions of intolerance.

Even among the reformers there were various opinions entertained with regard to the doctrines and the discipline of religion; and rival sects had long contended with each other respecting them. The least objectionable, or rather the most popular of their tenets, were reduced to a system by one Robert Brown, a then popular preacher, who thus collected and organized into a society a large number of followers. It is to this sect, called Brownists, but more familiarly known as puritans, that we trace the origin of the now prevalent denomination of Independents, or Congregationalists. He taught that the established church was corrupt, antichrist—that its ministers were unlawfully ordained—that its discipline, its ordinances, and its sacraments, were alike invalid and unscriptural, and prohibited all communion with it. He held, that any association of Christians, meeting to worship God, and united for that purpose, constituted in and of themselves a church, having exclusive control over all its affairs, independent on any other sect or society, and amenable only "to the great Head of the church;" that the priesthood was not a distinct order in the church; that the office did not confer any superior sanctity of character; that any man qualified to teach, might be chosen by his brethren for that purpose, and set apart to those functions "by the laying on of their hands;" that he could also by them be discharged from that station, and sent back again into the rank of a private Christian. He also insisted on a public profession of faith, and that the affairs of the church should be regulated by a majority of its members.

It needs scarce a moment's reflection to understand how a system so

democratic in its principles, and admitting such a liberty of discipline, was calculated to excite all the odium of the civil, as well as ecclesiastical jurisdiction of England. Doctrines so heretical and so damning, so subversive of all the received and cherished maxims of government, could not be tolerated; and, accordingly, full and heavy were the vials of wrath poured out upon their advocates. To render their situation still more embarrassing, their leader, Brown, was induced to abandon them, and conform to the established church. It is a singular, as well as remarkable fact, that a sect thus abandoned in its infancy, by the very man who had founded it, and planned its regulations, should still continue its existence, and that the doctrines and discipline which he instituted, and labored afterwards to overthrow, should survive to control the faith of so many generations, to prevail over the greater part of the world.

We have been thus particular in our observations on the origin and history of this sect, because they have given an indelible hue to the complexion of the governmental history of New England. And for this same reason, we must follow them still further. To avoid the increasing fury of persecution, they found themselves obliged to flee from their native country, and sought refuge in Holland. They settled at Leyden, under the pastoral charge of the Rev. John Robinson, where they enjoyed, for several years, tranquillity. No accessions, however, were made to their numbers, and fearing a decline in the purity and spirituality of their faith in so phlegmatic a neighborhood, they began to look around for a more suitable asylum, where they might plant their church, and propagate their doctrines, both of faith and discipline. The newly discovered country presented a field the best adapted to their purpose. Here too, they thought an opportunity was offered to show to an astonished world "what manner of spirit they were of." They were not to be deterred by dangers, or daunted by difficulties. They were not men whom trifles could discourage, or disasters and hardships overcome; nor were they of that sickly sentimentalism which could not endure the breaking away from the ties and endearments of home, of kindred, or of country.

In 1618, they made an application to the Virginia Company for a grant of land within the limits of its patent, which they received. Although James, the then reigning monarch, gave them no assurances of toleration in their contemplated settlement, he did not discourage the expedition. Having made such preparations as their means and patronage permitted, they set sail on September 6th, 1620, for Hudson's River. By some design on the part of the captain of their vessel, supposed to have been instigated by the company, contrary to their own wishes and expectations, they were landed far to the north, at Cape Cod. Here they found themselves beyond the limits of the company's jurisdiction of whom they had received their grant. Having appointed John Carver, one of their number, governor for one year, they set about exploring the coast, in order to select a spot more favorable for a settlement. On the 17th of December, they came to a beautiful and commodious bay, where they located, and called it Plymouth.

From the proud eminence on which we now stand, there is not, in the whole range of historical observation, a more sublime or interesting spectacle than is presented in the character, the condition, and the purposes of that little band of exiled emigrants to our shores. Their sufferings and the hardships they endured, have been the theme for poets and orators in every successive generation of their descendants, and are doubtless

familiar to all who know any thing of their country's annals. The winter had fully set in, and was rigorous and severe beyond description. They were but poorly provided with the requisites for a comfortable disposition of themselves or their families. And as no provision had been made in their charter contemplating a landing so far to the north, they were much perplexed as to the measures they should adopt for their government. This circumstance, seemingly so trivial and untoward, had an important, beneficial, and lasting influence on their interests, and the objects of their exile. Having landed where no authority of the crown had as yet prescribed any special regulations, they felt themselves more at liberty to adopt a plan of their own to regulate and govern their infant community. And on this desolate and dreary spot, by a small band of neglected, despised, persecuted, and betrayed exiles, was laid the foundation of a government, the most democratic in its principles, and the most republican in its forms, of any the world had yet seen, or political theorists yet dreamed of. The following is the compact under which they were united.

"In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign lord, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, defender of the faith, having undertaken, for the honor of our king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern parts of Virginia, do by these presents, solemnly and mutually in the presence of God and one another, covenant and combine ourselves together a civil body politic, for our better ordering, preservation, and furtherance of the ends aforesaid, and by virtue hereof, do enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, institutions, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the good of the colony; unto which we promise all due reverence and submission.

"Witness, &c. November 11th, 1620."

This compact was signed by about forty-one individuals, for themselves and families—under it a government was organized, called the "Colony of New Plymouth," consisting in all of about one hundred and three persons. The executive authority was vested in a governor and assistants, to be elected annually by an assembly of the people. Every freeman belonging to the church, was permitted to vote in all matters of public interest. Most of their jurisprudence was borrowed from the institutes of Moses, which were to a certain extent well adapted. Some of these, however, were adopted without reference to their original intent, or their application to their own circumstances and condition. And how much soever we may be disposed to commend the spirit which prompted them, as evidencing their pious zeal and sincerity, we cannot give them credit for much political sagacity. Under this frame of government, they continued till the year 1634, when they were incorporated with the colony of Massachusetts Bay, which being next in the progress of our history, merits our attention.

In tracing the history of the Plymouth colony, we have seen that it was not settled under the auspices of the company at Plymouth, although on the territory comprehended within the limits of its jurisdiction. That company had, indeed, made no successful, or very laudable efforts to settle the country. Accordingly, James I., in the year 1620, published a new charter to the then Duke of Lenox, the Marquis of Buckingham, and others, confirming to them a still more liberal grant of territory, powers, and privileges,

than was contained in that of the former patentees, and with provisions similar to those contained in the charter to the "South Virginia Colony." This new company was entitled, "The Grand Council of Plymouth for planting and governing New England." The motives alleged as having influenced James in making this grant to persons whose wealth, rank, and influence, seemed to promise a speedy and effectual accomplishment of the objects contemplated in the establishment of the former company, were a desire to prevent its possession by men professing the sentiments and bearing the name of the puritans. Yet, notwithstanding this new incorporation, and that it was thus liberally endowed, all attempts at colonization were unsuccessful, and the project itself at length abandoned. "Thus," in the language of an eminent English historian, "New England must forever have remained unoccupied, if the same causes which occasioned the emigration of the puritans had not continued to operate." And it was doubtless a like conviction that induced the crown of England to acquiesce in the granting of a patent to them. For although they had made repeated applications, it was not till after this second company, instituted for the express purpose, had relinquished all idea of any further attempt at a settlement, that their application was at all respected.

Through the instrumentality of a Mr. White, an association of gentlemen, professing the faith of the puritans, (some secretly and others openly,) was formed, who obtained from the council at Plymouth a grant of the territory "extending from three miles north of the river Merrimac, to three miles south of Charles River," and from the Atlantic to the South Sea, or indefinitely into the interior, (March 19, 1627.) But, as there were individuals engaged in this enterprise of more political forethought and sagacity than had hitherto characterized the leaders of this sect, they were unwilling to rely on a tenure from a company whose right to grant political privileges they at least questioned. They therefore applied directly to the crown, and Charles, the reigning monarch, gave them a patent, bestowing the requisite powers and privileges to enable them to establish laws and regulations for their society, (1628.) Thus their right to the territory purchased from the council being confirmed to them by the crown, they took an early opportunity to fit out an expedition for New England.

By their charter they were invested with power to sell lands and to govern the settlers under them, and it was provided that the government should be administered by a governor, a deputy governor, and eighteen assistants. The first were appointed by the crown, and after that they were to be elected, from time to time, from among the freemen of the company, by the corporation. The executive authority was vested in the governor and his assistants; the legislative in the body of the proprietors, who were empowered to enact such laws as they might deem for the benefit of the community, "agreeably with the laws of England." Lands were holden by the most free and liberal tenures, "in free and common socage, and not in capite, nor by knights' service," yielding to the crown one fifth part of all ore of gold and silver. The governor, or the deputy governor, with seven assistants, constituted a court or quorum for the transaction of ordinary business, which was to be held once every month. A general assembly of the company was to be held four times a year, for the purpose of admitting freemen to the freedom of the company, to elect officers, and to enact laws and ordinances for the good of the colony. The governor, deputy governor, and assistants, were chosen at one of these general assemblies, held in the

spring of the year. Duties on imports and exports were temporarily withholden, as in the South Virginia colony, and the colonists were invested with all the rights of natural born subjects of England. Some of our own historians are of opinion that indulgence in religious opinions was expressly given by this charter. But an English historian, of credibility and candor, who claims to have examined the charter himself, says that no promises were made of any relaxation of the severity of the statutes against nonconformists. And the character of Charles and his ministers supports this authority. Yet, whatever may have been the express or implied provisions of their charter, in this respect, the company were not deterred from prosecuting the objects they had in view.

The first expedition under the direction of this association was fitted out in the year 1629, and consisted of five ships, containing upwards of three hundred adventurers, all of whom were of the sect of the puritans, and were seeking a refuge from the persecutions of the mother country. They arrived in New England on the 29th of July of the same year, and touched at a place which, in their love of scriptural associations, and perhaps also because it was expressive of the rest they hoped to find, they called *Salem.* They associated together as a corporate body, and adopted that plan of discipline in ecclesiastical matters called Independent, expressly repudiating all connection with episcopacy or the liturgy, which also gave a complexion to much of their civil polity. At this period, the exactions of Laud induced many non-conformists to seek an asylum in New England. Some of these were men of rank and opulence, who came over with their families and their fortunes. Through their influence and instrumentality a very important revolution was effected in the government of the colony. It will have been observed that the company to whom the charter of government was granted, was resident in England, and that all its business, for the regulation of the colony, was to be transacted there. A government so far removed from its subjects, it was well contended, could know little of their wants, and would be insensible of their embarrassments. Accordingly, in August, 1629, the company resolved, "that its charter should be transferred, and its government settled in New England."

This was a bold and an important measure, and the result was greatly for the benefit of the colonists. Their operations were now less under the inspection and the control of the crown, which afforded an opportunity for the more easy execution of their own plans. The charter arrived in the colony in 1630, and at the same time about fifteen hundred persons, who planted themselves at Boston, and in that vicinity. John Winthrop, one of their number, was chosen governor, and Thomas Dudley, with eighteen others, assistants. And in these, "conjointly with all the freemen who should settle in New England," were vested all the corporate rights, powers, and privileges of the company. The rapid increase of the settlers, and the extension of their settlements, excited the fears of the natives, and a war with them seemed inevitable. Providentially, the small-pox broke out among the Indians, and destroyed whole tribes of them in a very few weeks. The tracts of land thus desolated were rich and well-selected, and seemed vacated to open a ready and fit resting-place for the thousands who now crowded to these shores to avoid the increasing fury and the cruelties of intolerance. Towns and villages, thriving and beautiful, sprung up almost with the power of magic. This dispersion of the settlers from the immediate vicinity of the government, where, according to their charter regula-

tions, each freeman was to appear in person, made it necessary to appoint delegates to appear, fully empowered to deliberate and decide for them. And to this point we may refer the distinction which obtains between a republican or representative form of government, and one purely democratic. The latter is practicable only in small communities, and known only in the infancy of society; the former is the necessary result of its extension and distribution.

This change, however, did not actually take place till the year 1634, when the several towns sent representatives to the general court, which had hitherto been composed of the freemen at large. At this session, they passed a "bill of rights" guarantying to the people of Massachusetts Bay the privileges of civil and religious liberty; they declared also that the general court alone had power to enact laws, to elect officers, to impose taxes, and to sell lands; and "that every town might thereafter choose persons as representatives, (not more than two,) who should have the full power of all the freemen, except in the choice of officers and magistrates, wherein every freeman must give his own vote." Thus was formed the first representative assembly ever held in New England, and the second held on this continent. The governor and assistants at first sat together, as one house, with the representatives. In 1644, they became divided into separate houses, each of which had a negative on the acts of the other. In 1635, the council at Plymouth surrendered back their patent to the crown, at which time several inconsiderable settlements which had been planted within the present limits of New Hampshire in 1620, together with the colony at Plymouth, were incorporated with this colony. "From this period," (1644,) says Dr. Robertson, "we must consider this colony, not as a corporation whose powers were defined and its mode of procedure regulated by its charter, but as a society which, having acquired or assumed political liberty, had, by its own voluntary deed, adopted a constitution of government framed on the model of that of England;" but, we may add, in many of its most important and interesting features, widely different. The colony continued under this form of government down to the great revolution of charters in 1684, when its charter was overthrown; from which period we find an almost uninterrupted controversy to have existed between the colony and the crown, down to the year 1691, when a new charter was issued by William and Mary, under which the colony became incorporated as a province, and continued to be known as such until after the revolution. The principal features wherein this charter differed from the former, will be observed when we come to the third division of our subject. It now included within its territorial limits "all the old colony of Massachusetts Bay, the colony of New Plymouth, the province of Maine the territory called Acadia or Nova Scotia, and all the lands lying between Nova Scotia and Maine," under the name of "The Province of Massachusetts Bay in New England."

In the progress of our history we come next to the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven. This territory, now comprehended within the limits of the state of Connecticut, was granted by the "council at Plymouth" to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630. This patent from the company was confirmed to the patentee by Charles I. and was by him conveyed to lords Say, Brook, Seale, and others, in 1631. In 1632, they sent out adventurers to explore the coast and the interior of the country. This expedition penetrated the Connecticut river as far as Windsor, but it does not

appear that they made any settlement. The first colony was planted at Saybrook in 1635, under the direction of Mr. David Gardner, who was invested with the usual powers and prerogatives of government. In this same year, about one hundred persons, and, in 1636, several companies from Massachusetts Bay, settled at Hartford, Windsor, Wethersfield, and other towns; and in 1638, these several settlements entered into a general compact of union, under the name of Connecticut. By this compact, it was ordained and established, that two general assemblies or courts should be held in each year, during the months of April and September; that the first court should choose the governor and his assistants, who were sworn to administer justice according to the laws, or, in default of any appropriate enactment, "according to the word of God;" that all freemen, who previously had taken and subscribed an oath of fidelity, should be permitted to vote at this general court. Each town was required to nominate two candidates for governor, and no person could be chosen, or considered a candidate, unless for some days previous to the time of election he was thus nominated. The governor held his office for one year, and no person could be chosen two years in succession. Each town was also required to send delegates to this court, and after the business of the election was closed, the assembly consulted on matters of general public interest. The second court, or that held in September, was for the purpose of enacting laws, and making other provisions affecting the welfare of the colony. These several courts were to be convened on a summons sent out one month previous to the time of holding their session by the governor, who also had power to assemble them on special and extraordinary occasions, on a warning of fourteen days. In case at any time he refused to do so, the freemen might order the constables to assemble them, and, meeting under these circumstances, one of their number was chosen moderator, and their acts were binding on the people. Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, sent each four delegates to these assemblies, and the general court determined from time to time the number which should represent the other towns. The general court consisted of the governor, or, in his absence, as we have seen, a moderator and four other magistrates, with the delegates from the several towns. Its powers were in all cases supreme. It could make laws and repeal them, grant levies, admit freemen, and take cognizance of all matters, civil and criminal, and punish offenders. The governor had a casting vote, in case of an equal division of the members in the general court.

In the year 1638, a small band of adventurers, who had landed at Boston, in the colony of Massachusetts Bay, the year previous, under the conduct and guide of the Rev. Mr. Davenport, desirous of establishing a settlement where they might plant a colony, and propagate their own peculiar views and principles of religion, proceeded thence to the southward, until they came to an extensive level plain, on the bosom of a wide-spreading and beautiful bay, where they halted, and called their settlement New Haven. They made no provision for a title to the soil, but relied simply on their ability to make some friendly arrangement with the natives, whom they regarded as the just and only proprietors. They were invested with no political privileges, but framed their own ordinances and regulations; and the plan of government which they adopted was unlike that of any other of the colonies in New England, though in some of its provisions similar to that of the colony of Connecticut. It resembled, if we may so speak, a

christocratic form of government. The church was the head of the colony, and the minister was the head of the church. They adopted a community of goods, and an equal distribution of lands, in imitation of the early Christians. None were admitted to the freedom of the community unless they were members of the church, and all its officers, whether civil or military, it was required "should be men professing the Christian faith." These fundamental principles were unanimously adopted at the first general assembly held by the colonists, when it was also resolved that a general court should be erected, composed of the governor, magistrates, and two delegates from each town, to be chosen annually. All power, executive, legislative, and judicial, resided in this general court, with a right of appeal to a supreme court, consisting of all the magistrates of the colony, six of whom constituted a quorum. In 1662, Charles II. published a new charter to the colony of Connecticut, in which he included the colony of New Haven, incorporating them by the name of the "Governor and Company of the Colony of Connecticut in New England, in America." The colony of New Haven, however, did not accede to the union contemplated by this charter till the year 1665, when both of these colonies were inseparably united under one form of government. The charter provided that the government should consist of a governor, deputy governor, and twelve assistants. These, together with two deputies from every town or city, constituted a general assembly, which it was ordained should meet twice a year. The charter nominated the first governor and assistants. The powers of the general assembly were similar to those enumerated in the other charters, and all the liberties and immunities of "free-born natives of England" were guarantied to the inhabitants of the colony. The magistrates and delegates sat together as one house until the year 1698, when the general court was divided into two houses; the magistrates and assistants constituting the upper house, over which the governor presided, and the delegates the lower house. An attempt was made by the crown to repeal this charter in the year 1685, and Sir Edmund Andros having received a commission to that effect, arrived at Hartford in 1687, proclaimed that the government of the colony was dissolved, and demanded the charter from the general court, then in session. During the confusion and excitement of the occasion, the charter was privately conveyed from the house, and secreted in an oak tree in the suburbs of the city. After the revolution of 1688, the colony resumed the exercise of all the powers contained in this charter, and continued under the same till the year 1818.

Among the earliest enactments of the general assembly of the colony, a bill of rights was published, which secured to every man the rights of a freeman, protecting his life, his person, his name, and his property from any injury, restraint, or damage whatever, "unless by virtue of some express law of this colony, warranting the same, established by the general court, and sufficiently published; or, in case of the absence of a law in any particular case, by some clear and plain rule of the word of God, in which the whole court shall concur." It also secured, in civil and criminal cases, the right of trial by jury. Their criminal code was derived from the Mosaic institutions, and they declared those offences capital which were so declared by the sacred writings. They enjoined on all persons, and especially upon the officers and magistrates of the colony, a regular attendance at church; were rigorous in enforcing all moral obligations; and punished delinquencies by the severest penalties.

Such were the principal governmental regulations of the colony of Connecticut, which was less disturbed by those conflicts of faith and doctrine, and remained more equably pure and true to the original principles of the puritans, than any other of the New England colonies. And down to this present time we may trace the beneficial effects of what we are now apt to term "their bigoted enactments." They were like the early discipline of a child in the faith and precepts of religion and virtue. They stamp their impress upon the heart; and manhood, with the wisdom brought by experience and reflection, only removes whatever of error, superstition, or bigotry, may have accompanied their inculcation, while the vital principle itself remains to preserve from vice and infamy. Just so has it been with the influences set in operation by the puritans in Connecticut; nor is there any other portion of our now extended territory, where the religious virtues have so powerful an ascendancy, or where the whole moral character is developed in more beauteous and attractive proportions, or where we can mark so little deviation from the principles and practical piety of our forefathers. There the seed sown by them seems to have fallen on its most genial soil. The errors, superstitions, and imperfections, which necessarily attended their early, and not well instructed, because persecuted, zeal, have gradually faded away before the progress of knowledge and refinement; and she retains only the simplicity and sincerity of their devotion, the steadfastness of their faith, and, running through all her institutions, the purity and integrity of their principles. Her political fabric is the least complicated of republican forms. Her society is framed under the wisest and the best of human regulations. Her sons are among the steadiest, the most fearless, and yet the most unostentatious of patriots. Her daughters the most virtuous as wives, and the most Roman as matrons. What part of our union does not at this moment feel and acknowledge her influence?

In pursuing the history of the New England division of our continent, there is yet another colony whose rise and progress demand our attention. It has already been observed that the "Colony of Massachusetts Bay" was early and often distracted with "sects and heresies" among themselves. In the year 1631, one Roger Williams, of Salem, promulgated substantially the following sentiments. That such persons as had held communion with the church of England should openly confess their error; that saints ought not to hold communion with sinners either in worship or oath; that it was unlawful for unregenerate persons to pray; that the civil magistrate ought not to interfere in matters of religious faith and practice; that intoleration is persecution; and, that the patent of the king, disposing of the lands belonging to the natives, without their consent, was unjust and void.

Mr. Williams was summoned before the general court on account of these sentiments, and subsequently banished from the colony. Collecting a few followers, he proceeded southward as far as the ocean and Narragansett Bay. Cultivating a friendly disposition with the natives, he gained an opportunity to explore the country, and settled at a place which he called Providence, in 1636. About two years from this period, the famous Mrs. Hutchinson commenced her career in promulgating what was called "the antinomian heresy," maintaining "that faith alone, without works, would secure salvation." She, with a number of followers, was also banished from the colony. They proceeded to Providence, and associating with Williams and his followers in a civil compact, purchased from the Indians

the island of Rhode Island, March, 1638. In the course of the year following they planted Newport. They soon found, however, that a title derived from the natives was not sufficient to protect them against the claims and the encroachments of Massachusetts; and feeling the necessity of a higher right to their settlements, in order to establish a form of government which would be respected by the older colonies, they sent Roger Williams to England, to petition the crown for a patent. The Earl of Warwick granted him a charter of incorporation of "Providence Plantations," in 1643, which was confirmed by the two houses of parliament, in 1644, ("Charles the First having been driven from the capital.") An assembly, composed of the freemen of the several plantations of Providence, Newport, and Portsmouth, convened under this charter in 1647. It vested the legislative power in a court of commissioners, to consist of six persons, chosen by the several towns then in existence. The executive power was vested in a president and four assistants, who were chosen from among the freemen, who also formed a court for the administration of justice. Each township chose a council of six persons for the regulation of its own private affairs, and for the settlement of trivial controversies. They continued under this form of government until after the restoration. In 1663, they obtained a new charter from Charles II. under the name of "The Governor and Company of the English colony of Providence and Rhode Island Plantations in New England, in America," which placed the colony on a footing with Massachusetts and Connecticut, and led to the establishment of a friendly intercourse between them. Under this charter, the executive power was vested in a governor, deputy governor, and ten assistants, elected by the freemen. The legislative consisted of a general assembly, composed of the governor, deputy governor, ten assistants, and delegates from the several towns. Newport sent six delegates to this assembly; Providence, Portsmouth, and Warwick, four; and each of the other towns, two. The governor, or deputy, with six assistants, were always present. The general assembly had power to enact laws, admit freemen, choose officers, to establish courts of justice, to punish offences, and do whatever was necessary for the common defence of the colony. The most remarkable feature which distinguished this from all the other colonies, was unqualified religious toleration. It was provided "that no person should be in any wise molested, punished, disquieted, or called in question, for any differences of opinion in matters of religion." This is the first recognition of the right of liberty of conscience and freedom of worship, which we find in the charter regulations of any of the colonies, and does honor to the memory of the king from whom the charter was obtained. Amid the conflicting opinions of different historians, we will not cast reproach upon the memory of the colonists, by supposing that in their legislative provisions they ever departed from these liberal provisions. It is true that they expressly prohibited sports and labor on the Sabbath, but this can hardly be regarded as an act of intoleration. They continued under this charter, with some interruptions, down to the time of the American revolution; and even to this day, it is regarded as the fundamental basis of its government in the state of Rhode Island. The governor, assistants, and deputies sat as one house till 1696, when it was enacted that the house should be divided, the governor and assistants constituting the upper branch, and the delegates the lower. None but freemen of the colony were allowed to vote at elections which they might do either in person or by proxy.

Such, as we have attempted successively to trace them, was the origin, and such the general governmental regulations of the colonies of New England. Here we close this view, which we have made the second part of our governmental history. It cannot be that we have gone over it without interest or instruction. We have seen the "wilderness bud and blossom as the rose," and the solitary place made glad with the voices of industry, civilization, and religion. We have seen a wild, inhospitable, and forbidding continent converted into a cheerful, inviting, and growing garden of freedom and independence. We have seen the pure principles of liberty and religion, thrown out from among the discordant elements of civil and ecclesiastical tyranny and usurpation, spring, as it were, into new life, and like their great Author, when first he communicated them to man, without a home or a resting-place, defended only by the poor, the illiterate, the despised, and the persecuted. We have seen how they have accumulated strength and energy, even in the darkest hour of their peril, till they awaken the interest and the regard of the opulent, the honorable, and the powerful. We have seen how the bonds of social union are originated, and how its spirit forms in its infant state. We have seen small communities of men planted, reared, and transformed into political bodies; and have also marked how the operative principles of republicanism have successively developed themselves. While at the same time, we have discovered by what a singular and peculiar instrumentality, and influenced by what causes, the characteristic qualities of this portion of our country which are progressively imprinting themselves on the face of our whole union, have been originally acquired. Let it awaken the ardor and fire the energy of our devotion to institutions so wisely framed, and with so much care, so much toil, so much sacrifice, and so much blood, reared by our forefathers. Let it teach us to appreciate the noble heritage they have left us. Let it rekindle our vigilance, and excite a jealousy of all, of any doctrines which tend, either in theory or in thought, to undermine the foundations they have laid.

Art. IV.—THE BANKING SYSTEM OF MASSACHUSETTS.

We are the advocates of a sound paper currency. We regard a paper circulation as one of the most efficient agents for the promotion of the public prosperity. We look upon the substitution of an intrinsically valueless promise-to-pay, for gold and silver, as a currency, as one of the greatest improvements of modern times; not only because of its economy, but because of its effect, as the representative not only of property in the shape of gold and silver, but of every other species of property, in multiplying the means of increasing wealth, and diffusing it throughout the community. We look upon a sound paper currency as an evidence and a means of improvement and progress. It is an instrument which civilization and refinement have invented, and one that will continue to be used by man as long as his progress is onward in the path of social well-being. But our object in the present article is not to enter into a defence of paper money. We have made the foregoing remarks to prevent the possibility of our being

misunderstood in some strictures which it is our intention to make upon the banking system of Massachusetts.

We are willing to avow, on the outset, that our object, in the present article, is to expose an evil, but not to provide a remedy. The first step towards a cure must always be a clear understanding of the nature and seat of the disease. A project for a remedy may furnish a subject for another article. But it may be asked, what is then faulty in the banking system of Massachusetts? The banks are all paying specie, and they have the confidence of the community to as great an extent as is desirable or proper. Surely a plan of which such are the results must be a good one. Let it be remembered, that when the ship leaves the port on a distant voyage, she goes prepared to encounter the ocean-storm, as well as to take advantage of the favoring breeze and the smooth sea. How recently have we seen the whole coast strewn with the wrecks of those wealth-producing and wealth-distributing interests, which, founded on credit and sustained by credit, under the direction of enterprise and skill, had been the means of so rapidly multiplying and extensively diffusing the wealth of the country! If there are in our present system defenceless points, that cannot resist the storms of adverse, or the corruptions of favoring influences, it becomes us to strengthen them, and not to flatter ourselves that the credit and integrity of our citizens will not again be submitted to a test of such overpowering severity.

It will be seen while we are exposing what we believe to be evils in the Massachusetts system, that they are most of them of such a character, as to render it probable that they are not confined to that state. We shall not trouble ourselves to point out what are local and what general. If, in what we have to say respecting the banks of Massachusetts, there shall be found any thing applicable to the systems in operation in other parts of the country, let those who are interested make the application.

What are the principal features of the Massachusetts system? What the obligations and what the privileges of the banking companies in that state? In order to ascertain these, let us take a bank of a certain amount of capital, say half a million of dollars, and find out the provisions of the laws by their application to a bank of that size.

A bank with a capital of - - - - - - - - - - - -	$500,000
Can issue bills to the amount of - - - - - - - - -	625,000
Can have due to it on discounted paper, - - - - - -	1,000,000
Can owe in bills and other obligations exclusive of deposits,	1,000,000
Must pay to the state treasurer annually, - - - - -	5,000

If the issues of the bank are not redeemed on presentation, in gold or silver, the holder is entitled to receive interest on the amount at the rate of 24 per centum until they are discharged.

If the capital stock shall prove insufficient to redeem the bills issued, the stockholders are liable in an amount equal to their stock, for the deficiency. The state has the right at any time to demand, at thirty days' notice, a loan of $50,000, at an interest of five per cent; and if the requisition is not complied with, two per cent per month will be demanded during the time of the delay.

Such are the main features of the existing banking law of Massachusetts, applied to a bank with a capital of five hundred thousand dollars. We have omitted details, so that the most important provisions of the law may

the more plainly appear. We shall now proceed to lay before our readers some of the more obvious considerations which have arisen in our minds from an examination of the statements we have presented.

In the first place, we would call the attention of our readers to that part of the contract between the government and the stockholders, by virtue of which their notes, payable on demand, and signed by their officers, are made a part of the currency of the state, and go to add to the means of extending their operations. In our opinion, this part of the banking system is radically defective; and we believe that it is mainly owing to the erroneous principles upon which our banking legislation has been founded as far as it relates to the currency, that so much evil has been found to result from the use of a paper circulation. We do not hesitate to declare our entire conviction, that a system which allows a banking company with a capital of *half a million of dollars* to put out *six hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars* of bills to be used as currency, is an unsound system, and ought not to be sustained.

It is not safe to place in the hands of individuals, who, as managers of banks, are naturally desirous of increasing their own business facilities, or the profits of their stockholders, the power of increasing to almost any extent they please the currency of the state. The currency, which is merely the measure or standard of value of the property of the people, ought not to be subjected to the changes which follow from the exercise of this power on the part of those to whom it is given by the laws of this commonwealth. It is not enough for wise legislation to see that penalties are provided for the non-performance of the obligations borne upon the face of the bank note. The mischief arising from a currency depreciated by its excess, cannot be repaired by the punishment of those by whose instrumentality the excess was produced. Under any circumstances, an issue by a bank, of bills amounting to once and a quarter its capital, would in our opinion be excessive; but if made, the laws of the land would sanction it, and it would not avail, in the face of the law by which it is permitted, to say that it was not supposed that the liberty would be used. When the law says that a bank may loan twice the amount of its capital, and may put out once and a quarter the amount of its capital in its own notes, it virtually declares it to be the opinion of the legislature that such an extension of loan and issue is both practicable and safe.

The amount of bills that should be put forth as currency, ought not, in our opinion, to be governed by the ability of interested individuals as agents of associations to give them out in exchange for obligations of another character. As long as notes bearing interest can be received for notes not bearing interest, with no return of the latter for exchange for that which is promised to be given for them on demand, so long, we are warranted by the experience of the past to say, will the operation be continued. And can that be a safe currency which is derived from such a source? Is money produced under such circumstances likely long to remain a proper standard of value and medium of exchange? Is it right that the property of every person in the state, should depend for its value upon the ability or inclination of the interested individuals whom the laws have made coiners of a currency to issue out their *promises to pay?* We answer these questions in the negative. We say that the banking institutions, as they are now constituted, are not the proper sources of a currency.

In this connection, we would look for a moment at the enormous tax

that is paid by the banking capital of this state into the state treasury. We would ask those upon whom it may devolve to legislate for the interests of this people, to consider well the principles in which this tax had its origin, and its effect upon the operations and stability of our banking institutions. Let us ask why it is that capital employed in banking, is thus singled out by the legislature as a source of revenue? Why are the banks obliged to pay a tax which supports the whole state expenditure? The ready and obvious answer is, because they have power conferred upon them of increasing their means of business by making a currency. They have, by their charters, a monopoly of currency-making; and by an agreement with the government they pay one per cent upon their respective capitals for the right. This, at first view, looks all well enough and fair enough, and it would not appear as if there was any just ground of complaint on either side. But we think that it will be found, upon examination, that it is neither correct in principle, or salutary in its operation. No one will pretend to say that there is any other reason for taxing a bank than that above stated. The people say we are willing you should put out your bills as money, but we intend to have the benefit of it by taxing you full as much as the privilege is worth. This being allowed, it follows inevitably, that the banks should pay in the same proportion that they make use of the privilege. You cannot reach this, the only just mode of assessment, by a tax upon capital. If a bank chooses to waive that part of the contract which confers the right to make a part of the currency, and to operate upon its capital alone, there appears to be no sound reason why it should not be allowed to do so without paying a large sum to the state. The extent to which the right of adding to its capital by means of its issues is used, should be the measure of taxation, if this mode of increasing the revenue is at all permitted.

Again, the law which requires the payment of this tax, sanctions the use of means on the part of the banks to enable them to meet it, and at the same time to pay a fair dividend to the stockholders. The popular cry is, that the banks are too much extended, that their issues are excessive, or that they have been guilty of extortion in all the various forms which the possessors of capital employ to obtain excessive interest. If this is true, and there is a willingness to allow the stockholders of these institutions the usual and legal rate of interest, six per cent, upon whom shall be justly charged the alleged redundancy and extortion? The tax can be paid but in one or both of the two methods above mentioned. The capital of the bank must be increased by the issue of bank notes, or extra interest in some shape must be taken. The law sanctions the issue of the bills, and the legislators of the state, when they imposed the tax, established it as a safe and correct principle of operation, that the credit of the bank should be used to an extent adequate to the attainment of the means to meet it. The banking capital of the commonwealth has not, for the last twenty years, paid more than six per cent, and therefore, if it be true that the amount of bills issued by them has been too large to constitute a currency which would be safe under all circumstances, that legislation which allowed a bank to issue its own notes to once and a quarter the amount of its capital, and which imposed upon that capital a tax which could not be paid without the unsafe issue, must be pronounced to be mistaken and unsound. We know that it is said that those who petition for banks, do so with a full knowledge of the obligations which they take upon themselves; and that they ought not to complain if they find they are unable to meet them without loss. This is

specious, but in the light in which we are now looking at this subject, the argument has no force. We are considering banks as sources of currency—as the means which the wisdom of the state government has devised to furnish a circulating medium. Upon every bank which is chartered, is conferred the power of adding to the amount of paper circulation; and the law that accompanies the charter, sanctions the use of that power. If the situation in which the new bank is placed, is unfavorable to the attainment of a circulation, it does not follow as a matter of course that the bank is not needed. But if it cannot fairly and legitimately obtain a circulation, ought the law so to operate as to oblige its managers to make use of means to force out upon the public a circulation which is not wanted, and which can only be supported by the constant exercise of forcing measures?

While we deny the propriety of acting upon the principle of granting charters as a matter of right to all who may ask for them, considering the provisions of the present banking law of our state, the passage of an act establishing a bank, is, in our view, an evidence that the legislature is satisfied that a bank is needed. We have a right to believe that those who have sanctioned the act of incorporation, are satisfied that the bank which it puts into operation ought to exercise the power of making a part of the currency—that it would be safe and proper to make an amount equal to once and a quarter its capital, and that it must make enough to enable it to pay the price which is demanded for the grant.

There is another point of view in which we would present this subject to the consideration of the community. There cannot be a doubt, at this day, on the minds of any who are at all conversant with banking affairs, that bank charters are frequently obtained, not for the purpose of investing, in a concentrated and therefore more easily managed form, the scattered capital of a community, but that a capital may be obtained by the circulation of bills for the use of the principal managers, who have no other. In this way, men who are without one cent of real capital are enabled to get into their possession large sums of money; and in almost every instance it will be found that it is done at the expense of those who have been induced by the legislative sanction given to the issue, to suppose that the bills were protected by something more substantial than the *stock notes* of the needy and greedy managers. Is a currency obtained by deception, based upon the prospective profits of an India-rubber speculation, and maintained by that petty and contemptible management which is necessary in the forcing process by which the bills of one bank are substituted in the pockets of the people for those of another, such an one as is demanded for the purposes of business or as a standard of value?

We would, with much deference for those who have in the councils of the commonwealth defended and acted upon our present system, remark, that if they had made two questions upon every application for a bank—First, is a bank wanted? and, secondly, is an increase of the currency desirable, or would it be made sounder by driving off a part of what is now in circulation, and putting the issues of the new bank in the place of it?—the legislation would have been sounder, and the result far more satisfactory to the people. It is hoped that the experience of the past will teach us wisdom. No applications of the above described character would have been made, had there been no expectation of obtaining the privilege of issuing bills; and it is needless for us to remark, that the suffering which has been caused by the incompetency and dishonesty of bank managers would have

been comparatively trifling, had they not been clothed with the dangerous power of creating a currency.

After what has been said in relation to the enormous tax that is imposed upon the banking capital of Massachusetts, it is unnecessary to enlarge upon that provision of the law, by which, at thirty days' notice, one tenth part of the capital must be loaned to the state at an interest of five per cent. This is nothing but a tax in another form—one of the conditions of the contract between the stockholders and the government, which is supposed to be equitable, because of the grant of the currency-creating power. The right to make the demand, and use the money of the bank at this low rate of interest, is a part of the consideration which the state receives when it barters away its sovereignty over the circulating medium—a part of the price in the bargain, by which there is bestowed upon needy and grasping speculators, it may be, the potentiality of the coining prerogative; and with the advantage on the part of the legalized manufacturer of bank notes, of a low price, and a constant supply of the raw material. The value of the right thus granted to the state, to take at any time, and use for an unlimited period, one tenth part of the capital of a bank at this low rate of interest, it is impossible to estimate. Whatever it is worth to the state must be added to the amount of the annual tax of one per centum upon the capital, to make up the sum which is paid by the stockholders; for and in consideration of which payment, a power is conferred upon them which they will certainly be strongly tempted to abuse, and which the popular sentiment will declare to be abused, if it is used to that extent only which is required to provide the means for the payment of the price of the purchase.

With our views of the duties of a state in relation to the currency, we cannot but regard this element of barter in the constitution of our banking system as a violation of all the just principles of political economy. We are aware that it is not confined to the banking system of Massachusetts. We know that in some form or other it is found in the bank legislation of almost every state in the Union, and that it was a prominent feature in the law which incorporated the late Bank of the United States by the general government. But in no contract of this kind was it ever made so repulsively and ruinously prominent as in the charter of the present Bank of the United States by the state of Pennsylvania. We there behold it in its most odious and mischievous form. The Harrisburg legislators, losing sight of all sound and statesmanlike views upon the subject of a currency, thought of nothing but of driving a bargain, and getting all they could from the deluded managers. All was given that was asked; and the mistaken law-makers, when they saw the enormous load of obligation which they had laid upon the bank, instead of doubting its ability to bear it up, or having any misgivings as to the ultimate result of the bargain, which, in one shape and another, had seemingly secured to the people a sum not much short of six millions of dollars, congratulated themselves upon the success of the operation, and seemed to regard it as an act of more than ordinary sagacity. Canals were to be dug, railroads were to be constructed, highways were to be opened and repaired, and the children of the commonwealth educated free of expense to the people, in consequence of this grand stroke of financial sagacity and skill. It would appear as if neither of the parties to this ruinous contract, coolly reflected upon that part of the subject which ought to have been uppermost in their minds—the source from which the

means were to be obtained to pay the consideration in the bond. But while we give them the benefit of the charitable construction of their actions, which supposes that they were all equally deluded, we feel bound to say, in the light of common sense and common experience, leaving wholly out of sight the results which have followed in the train of their proceedings, that the members of the legislature of Pennsylvania, who framed and consummated the contract by which the charter was granted to the Bank of the United States, did, by that act, violate some of the soundest and best established principles of legislation; and that the stockholders of the bank, by accepting the charter with its overwhelming load of penalty and obligation, were guilty of a violation of the plainest, best understood, and most generally received maxims of banking and finance. We well remember with what astonishment and regret we read, for the first time, the act incorporating the present Bank of the United States; and we did not hesitate to declare, when we first became acquainted with the provisions of its charter, that the result would be unfortunate both to the corporation and the public. We know but little about the Bank of the United States, and shall not attempt to examine the causes which have led to its present unfortunate situation. But we look at the state of Pennsylvania. We find that noble state, rich in all the resources of wealth and prosperity, suffering all the evils of a depreciated currency, with the stock of its principal bank worth but sixty cents upon the dollar; and we cannot but think that there is a pretty intimate connection between the present state of things and that unwise and unfortunate legislation which sold for a price which could not *honestly* be paid without loss, a charter to the stockholders of the Bank of the United States.

Now what did the bank purchase when it paid or promised to pay to the state of Pennsylvania the enormous sum of nearly six millions of dollars? What was looked upon by both grantor and grantee as the consideration in the deed? Was it the right of having a banking-house in Chesnut street? Was it the privilege of taking care of money left in deposit? Was it the power to use its money in cashing the various kinds of securities always to be found in every business community? No, not for either or all of these was the money paid or to be paid. These, to be sure, were wanting, but they could be had for the asking, and the legislature could grant them without sacrificing the interests of the citizens, or parting with that jurisdiction over the currency which is inherent in the government. The chattel which was sold, and for which this enormous price was paid, was an attribute of sovereignty. It was the power to create a currency, that was sold and purchased. The people, by their agents, sold; and the stockholders, to be used by their agents, purchased. The result has proved disastrous to both buyer and seller; it could not have proved otherwise.

To return from this digression, and resume the subject of the banking system of Massachusetts. We can at this time look at but one other point. We have seen the government selling to almost any persons who would pay the price, the power of creating a currency. But after this is done, after conferring upon bodies of men whose situation is generally such as almost precludes them from using the power given them, under the influence of any enlarged views of the public good, this privilege of making and regulating the circulating medium, then it becomes necessary to legislate; and accordingly we find an immense array of legislative provisions, which has been called into existence in consequence of this grant, the object of which is to

secure the public against any loss by the failure of the assignees of the money-making prerogative to make good their promises. What a constant and careful supervision it has been thought expedient to institute, to keep the agents who have been chosen as the makers and dispensers of the currency in a situation to discharge with faithfulness the trust committed to them! Look at the banking law of the state; examine its various provisions, and see what a large proportion of them are rendered necessary by this unwise and unnecessary connection between the creation of a currency and the operations of banking—the one a prerogative of the government, the other a necessary instrumentality to the business of every trading community. And it has been found, notwithstanding the multitude of pains, penalties, and oaths, which now protect the people against the direct abuse of this dangerous power on the part of their agents, the banks, and notwithstanding the constant and inquisitorial supervision of the bank commissioners, that the machinery is not yet complete; but that an inquiry which shall test the value of every obligation held by the banks, and that too by the oaths of disinterested individuals, must be instituted, to determine the worth of the basis upon which the issues are founded. Take away from the banks this currency-making power, deprive them of this agency, and what a vast amount of complicated machinery would be rendered useless! What a prolific source of jarring and interminable legislation would be dried up! How completely would it prevent those occasions of strife, envy, and heart-burning, which are of such frequent occurrence in every community, arising from what appears to be an unequal distribution of this money-making power! If a bank should issue no bills, it would be under no obligation to the people, which would render a supervision to much extent necessary. And after all, what is accomplished by this minute, vexatious, and constantly-recurring legislative interference? The community may be saved from a few small losses, while nothing is done to prevent those periodical and ruinous fluctuations in the currency, which are the result of placing the regulation of the circulating medium in the hands of those who know no principle of limitation but the failure of objects of speculation, or their inability to put out their promises upon an unsuspecting and unreflecting community.

Art. V.—THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

This great national institution held its annual fair during the last month in the city of New York, and we propose to devote a short space to a consideration of its character and objects. That corporation was chartered by the legislature of New York on the 2d of May, 1829, under the name of "The American Institute of the City of New York, for the purpose of encouraging and promoting Domestic Industry in this State and the United States, in Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, and the Arts." It is modelled somewhat upon the plan of the "Conservatory of Arts and Trades" in Paris, and the "National Repository" in London, having the same ends in view, namely, the promotion of productive industry, and the encouragement of invention and excellence in every department within the

scope of this broad field. We thus perceive that it has been in existence about eleven years, and it has already exercised no small influence in furthering the important interests for which it was established.

Besides a series of discourses which have been delivered through its agency from time to time upon some prominent topic within the circle of its view, it has established a journal, (since discontinued,) constituting an organ of correspondence for its members, and a record of all those facts which relate to the interests of the society; and it has moreover provided a general depository for models of inventions in the arts, and has held an annual exhibition of these models, inventions, and improvements, as well as the most approved specimens of cattle, granting premiums to those which are the most valuable, and to the persons who show the most skill in ploughing. An institution of this character, established in the commercial centre of the country, if its objects are faithfully carried out, will exercise an important influence upon our national interests, and we rejoice to know that its branches are extended to a great portion of the country, thus invoking co-operation from all its parts.

The first national interest which this institution is intended to advance is that of agriculture; and what a wide field does this subject open to our view! This nation, from the very extensive tracts of the most fertile soil within our borders, is destined to be a great agricultural nation. If we advance across a comparatively narrow belt upon our Atlantic seaboard, we find hundreds of thousands of square miles of the most productive land, stretching westward from the banks of the Hudson, and the rice and cotton fields of South Carolina, towards the base of the Rocky Mountains, furnishing, by its cheapness and productiveness, the means and motives for agricultural industry. And this branch of enterprise appears to be peculiarly adapted to the genius of our people, developed by the structure of our government, by the independence and substantial comfort which it affords. The encouragement of agriculture, therefore, should be regarded as of the greatest importance, inasmuch as its products constitute the solid basis of other branches of national enterprise. By holding out inducements to agricultural improvement in awarding premiums to the best specimens in stock husbandry, the most approved skill in ploughing, the most excellent models of farming implements,—such an institution must tend to lighten labor, and to increase the amount of production, by furnishing stimulus to its enterprise. Who does not wish to see our fields whitened with its harvests, and our hills and valleys vocal with its grazing flocks and herds?

Another object which this society is instituted to advance is that of commerce, and this interest is of no less importance than the one to which allusion has before been made. And what is the nature of commerce, when considered in its true import? It is not the mere importation or exportation of goods to or from foreign states, the sprinkling of the ocean with our sails, but, while it embraces this, it also includes the transportation of agricultural and manufactured products, from one village to the other, from the west to the east, from the north to the south. It is the carrying the products of labor from one part of the country to the other, and from one port to another, and receiving therefor in exchange either money or merchandise, thus returning a reward to the producer. By the constitution of government, the condition of men, or the different natural resources of the soil or climate, each country is calculated to produce particular articles which are required to supply human wants. For example, New England

receives the flour which is produced in the valleys of western New York or the prairies of Illinois, and returns the oil of her fisheries. The south transports her cotton to the northern states, and receives in return fabrics manufactured at home or imported from abroad, thus paying the manufacturer or the merchant for his time or skill; and our ships return from the ocean laden with the silks of France and the cloths of England, because our own people have found that they could employ their time more profitably in other pursuits than in the manufacture of cloth or silk, from the improved state of these branches of manufacture and the cheapness of labor abroad. Commerce, then, acts as an agent to transport the peculiar products of each region to distant parts, and to receive in return a greater value than they could derive in the place of their production. Were it not for commerce, foreign or domestic, therefore, agricultural products would be of little value in exchange, the granaries of our husbandmen would be heaped with comparatively useless harvests, the warehouses of our merchants with manufactured merchandise without purchasers, our lakes and rivers would be dotted only here and there, at remote points, with a white sail or a straggling steamer, and that wilderness of masts which now borders the southern margin of our city, like a western forest stripped of its leaves, would be diminished to a few ships necessary to the transportation of travellers, or for national defence. A prominent object of this institution is to foster the interests of commerce by granting premiums to its *materiel* in manufactured articles, to inventions and improvements in naval architecture, whether they relate to the ship worked by sails or the steam engine.

Another interest which the American Institute is designed to advance is that of manufactures, an interest that is of equal importance with the two which have been mentioned. This interest has of late years grown to considerable magnitude, with the increasing enterprise of the country. It is well known that in New England, cut off as it is from the more fertile tracts of the west, it constitutes the principal object of the productive industry of this valuable portion of our country. The waterfalls of that wild and romantic region are enlivened by the clattering of machinery, and villages have sprung up on their margins, as if at the bidding of the wand of Prospero. It even now boasts of a manufacturing town which may soon rival the Manchester of the old world. Although Samuel Slater brought with him from England the first series of Arkwright's patents about the year 1790, we have arrived at considerable perfection in the manufacture of cotton and woollen cloths, notwithstanding the investment in this branch of enterprise has heretofore proved disastrous to many who have engaged in it, from foreign competition. A prominent object of this society is to afford encouragement to manufacturing industry, by providing a public place where its products may be exhibited, and by bestowing premiums upon the most valuable specimens of these products, as well as upon new inventions and improvements in manufacturing machinery. It takes the ground that the encouragement of manufactures is of the greatest importance, because it may render us at all times independent of foreign nations, if we choose so to be, having the means to produce all that is required within ourselves.

The other interest which the American Institute is designed to advance is that of the arts; and what a wide range of thought does this single word open to the mind! How many objects does it embrace, all tending to human intelligence and human comfort! In fact, it has produced all the dif-

ference between civilized man as we find him, subjecting nature to his dominion as the despot his slave, himself the lord of the earth and the ocean as he now is, and that half-naked savage, with his mantle composed of the skins of wild beasts, shivering by his log fire, beneath his hut of bark, paddling his canoe through the streams of his forest, or shooting the deer with the arrow-head of flint. The arts are all around us, and exercise an important bearing upon our lives. Every step we take we feel their influence, although we do not appreciate it, because it is so common. The dress that we wear, the book that we read, the carpet we tread upon, the carriage in which we ride, the pavement on which we walk, the ship in which we sail, the pen with which we are writing, all show the value of the arts. It seems to be a law of our condition that just in proportion as they are cultivated, just in that proportion is the comfort of man enhanced. A remarkable feature of this country is its peculiar aptness for the useful arts. He who has looked into the Patent Office at Washington must have perceived the amazing fertility of the American mind in invention connected with the useful arts; and we may well boast that commerce and manufactures have awarded to two of our machinists, Fulton and Whitney, the merit of having made two of the most important discoveries of the present age, in the invention of the cotton-gin, and the application of steam to the propulsion of ships. Nor has invention in this country outstripped the excellence which we have manifested in the construction of machinery. The steam engines manufactured by Norris are in demand in England, and will soon be at work upon the Russian railroads. These facts furnish ample encouragement for us to foster our mechanical genius, and the American Institute appears to be one of the most important agents in furthering that result, by furnishing a general depository for its products, and granting premiums to its best specimens.

It is difficult, when we consider the resources and genius of this republic, to sever the grand interests which this society proposes to advance. They are interlocked like the several links in an iron chain. They are mutually dependent upon, and each is supported by the other. The agricultural products of our extensive country, whether they wave upon the savannas of the west, or the golden cotton fields of the south, furnish cargoes for our ships, feed our factories, and supply food for our inhabitants. What would be the value of these agricultural products did not commerce provide vehicles and agents to transport them to a market, and manufacturers furnish mills to grind them up for use? And how could agriculture, manufactures, or commerce flourish unless the arts came in to supply implements for the agriculturist, tools for the manufacturer, or ships for the merchant? Or how could the mechanic survive unless these three branches of industry provided a market for his products? Doubtless there are various political circumstances which furnish a motive for the encouragement of particular branches of national industry, but they should all be fostered if they increase production and wealth. They should all be fostered if they augment the sum of human comfort, and provide a motive to human industry.

It is well known that from the joint action of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, an immense profit has been heretofore yielded to the nation by the production of cotton, and to this will probably be added the manufacture of silk. This valuable article has already been produced to a considerable amount in the state of Connecticut and other parts of the country, and we hope to see the time when the fair daughters of the republic shall

be enrobed in this delicate fabric woven from our own looms. We perceive that the attention of the American Institute has during its last fair been particularly directed to this favorite manufacture, which now constitutes a source of great wealth to the silk-growing countries abroad.

But we proceed to describe the impression which the sight of the Fair made upon our minds; not that it was remarkable for the number or quality of the objects displayed, because we think that it has been exceeded by many of those which have preceded it. It was held in Niblo's Garden, a fitting place, always reminding us of the grounds of an oriental palace in the beauty of its shrubbery, and its artistical decorations. Upon entering the avenue we were peculiarly struck with the two long ranges of stoves of every size and model which bordered it, indicating that the inventive genius of our countrymen had been especially directed to the improvement of the implements of domestic comfort. Interspersed among these were approved models of ovens, caldrons, and carriages for children, constructed with all the elaborate finish of the most costly which roll in our streets. At the extreme end of the avenue, was a model of Francis' life-boat, which was distinguished not less for its extreme beauty than the saving of human life which it must effect were it generally and successfully adopted. To these may be added the array of window curtains painted with landscapes and other devices, which add greatly to the taste and cheerfulness of in-door embellishments. Passing from this avenue, we entered the main hall of the garden, and here were arranged the greatest portion of the articles exhibited. All the products furnished by the pencil or the graver, the tools of the trades, the hammer, the plane, the burnisher, the needle, and the loom, lay before us arranged in perfect order. Here were sofas and chairs of tasteful model, as well as carpets embroidered with the most delicate taste. Porcelain, enamelled with paintings, and chandeliers of glass which sparkled like diamonds, lay by the side of clocks of exquisite workmanship, in one of which we noticed a ship ploughing the ocean under full sail, with the land seen at a distance beyond the tossing waves. Several splendid services of silver, mingled with two or three pitchers which had been presented to individuals as tokens of respect, were much admired for their beauty. They were wrought, we understand, in the workshops of Messrs. Ball, Thompkins & Black, the successors of the far-famed house of Marquand. To these may be added several beautiful musical instruments, horns and trumpets, which were as charming to the sight as they would seem to be in the sound. Many other articles more minute, but of scarcely less beauty, were arranged around the hall, that would require a volume to describe according to their merits.

A sofa bedstead, which was made by M. Graw, at 478 Pearl street, combining in a great degree the useful and the beautiful, a portable bathing tent, invented by Dr. Warren, of Boston, and a new model of a bridge, attracted admiration from the crowds. For the last-named invention we are indebted to the genius of Mr. Rogers, the architect of the New York Merchants' Exchange. Handsome specimens of polished leather, augers, edged tools, and jewelry, and a polished table inlaid with many pieces of wood, we understand some thousands, in the form of mosaic, evinced curious and gratifying taste. An interesting subject of observation was presented in numerous models of vessels of war, which are now building in the dockyards of Constantinople. These vessels are in process of construction under the superintendence of Mr. Rhodes, one of our own countrymen, who

we learn has succeeded Mr. Henry Eckford as the chief architect of the Ottoman navy.

But while articles of mere taste were so profusely distributed in this hall, those of solid use bore their proper proportion. Among these we observed several very finished specimens of hats and boots, and we cannot avoid here alluding to the vast amount of these useful articles that must be already manufactured in this country, to supply the demand of our eighteen millions of people, for it will be recollected that but few of this kind of manufacture are imported from abroad. Among the more minute articles exhibited, we also noticed several models of ships and steamboats of delicate symmetry, an improved machine for the weaving of sattinets, and one for sawing, a machine for winnowing wheat, a number of railroad cars, a steam engine of fifteen horse power in full action, which might easily have been transported by one horse, besides several small models of locomotive railroad cars, and several glossy specimens of silk of our domestic production. Numerous improved models of manufacturing machinery were here exhibited, which clearly show that the skill and enterprise of our northern brethren have been turned to good account. Nor would we here fail to mention the array of many cases of finely wrought surgical and dentistical instruments, and pianoes of plain but finished workmanship.

We have thus given a general view of the products of our American industry, which were exhibited at this fair of the American Institute, in order to show the variety and value of the articles here displayed, and the general scope of its objects, although we have not even alluded to the exhibition of choice cattle, and the ploughing, which is of equal interest with the objects that have been mentioned. It is very clear that this institution should be supported by all who wish well to their country. It is hardly to be imagined, of course, that our new republic should compete with the old world in the general interest of manufacture at present; but it is equally evident that a sure and solid advance can be made with ease in this interest by the adoption of the right measures. A great national repository for the exhibition of the products of domestic industry, where the general facts relating to this branch of enterprise may be discussed, and where premiums are awarded for the greatest excellence in agriculture, manufactures, the arts, and stock husbandry, we think should be encouraged by every good citizen. The necessary consequence of such an establishment must be to excite a growing attention to the subject throughout the country, to provide a stimulus for improvement in this department, and to lead us to the organization of measures suited to the genius of the people, which may render us eventually a formidable rival to the country from which our forefathers emigrated, now the most powerful agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial empire upon the globe.

UNITE CARE WITH DILIGENCE.

Care preserves what industry gains. He who attends to his business diligently, but not carefully, throws away with one hand what he gathers with the other. A man in business should have a constant oversight of all his concerns; for if he leave this to others, it is ten to one that embarrassments and ruin will be the consequence.

Art. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.—THOMAS EDDY.

The character of Mr. Eddy as a merchant and a man induces us to lay it at this time before our readers. Connected as he was with those great projects for ameliorating the moral and physical condition of New York, the Erie canal, and the penitentiary system, and exhibiting the pure example of a spotless life, as well as a model of commercial integrity, it is believed that a short account of one who occupied so prominent and useful a position in the history of this state will be peculiarly acceptable to that portion of the present generation who now throng the busy marts of trade and commerce. That noble charity, the New York Hospital, stands a monument of the liberal, warm, and active spirit, which glowed in all his actions, through a long and varied life. The philanthropist Howard was his beacon light; and emulating the example of that good man, he devoted himself, body and soul, to the mitigation of human misery, in whatever shape it assumed. Such, indeed, were his virtues, that he received by general consent the appellation of the "Howard of America."

Thomas Eddy was born in Philadelphia on the 5th of September, 1758. His parents were from Ireland, and had emigrated about five years before. They belonged to the Society of Friends. His father was engaged in the shipping business until 1766, when he went into that of the hardware, in which he continued until his death, which occurred in the latter part of the same year. Mrs. Eddy, with a large family of children, continued the business for a number of years after her husband's death, when she removed to Bucks county. On account of the disordered state of the times, seminaries of learning were few and badly conducted, and the scholastic acquisitions of young Eddy at the age of thirteen were comprised within narrow limits. "All the learning," he says, in a short memoir of himself, "all the learning I acquired was reading, writing, and arithmetic as far as vulgar fractions. As to grammar, I could repeat some of the definitions by rote, but was totally ignorant of its principles." At the age we have referred to, he was apprenticed to a Mr. Hoskins, of Burlington, N. J., to learn the tanning business, but some misunderstanding having occurred with his employer, he remained but two years with him.

An acquaintance formed in his sixteenth year with a young man named William Savary, seems to have given such an impulse to his moral virtues as remained through life, and gave birth to the line of conduct which has since made him conspicuous among the few who are really good. He pays a rich compliment to this friend of his early years:—

"Of William Savary, it would be difficult for me to say too much. No two persons could entertain a more near and tender regard and affection for each other than always subsisted between us. He was a man of uncommonly strong mind, and good understanding. When about twenty-five years of age, he became a minister, and perhaps there never was one more highly esteemed and beloved. He was admired by all classes, and openly opposed to every thing in the least marked with bigotry or superstition. As a preacher, he was in the first rank. His manner of delivery was pleasing and solemn, his mind was cultivated and improved, and he was uncommonly liberal in his sentiments towards those of other societies. I have often thought there never was so nearly perfect a character within

my knowledge, in our society, and none that more extensively inculcated and effectually diffused true, practical, Christian principles."

Upon the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British, Mr. Eddy went to New York, shortly after his brother Charles had sailed for England. He arrived in this city on the 4th of September, 1779, with the sum of ninety-six dollars. Totally ignorant of any kind of business, and with a slender education, he struggled hard to defray his necessary expenses. In the memoir to which we have referred, and from which we make liberal extracts, he says:—"I took board with William Backhouse, in the house now occupied by Daniel McCormick in Wall street, at the rate of eight dollars per week, besides having to pay one dollar weekly for washing; Samuel Elain, late of Newport, deceased, John I. Glover, and two or three other respectable merchants, boarded at the same house; becoming acquainted with them was highly useful to me, as it was the first opportunity I had ever had of acquiring a knowledge of commerce, and the course of mercantile dealing. I knew that it was out of my power to support myself with what I then possessed, and that I must soon come to want, unless I could succeed in business. The first thing to which my attention was turned, was daily to attend auctions at the Coffee House, and being sensible of my own ignorance, I endeavored by every means in my power to acquire information, carefully inquiring of others the names of articles exposed for public sale, as it often happened that I was not even acquainted with the names of many of them. I then inquired their value, and advised with some persons previous to purchasing; sometimes, on noticing an article intended to be sold by auction, I would procure a sample, and call on some dealer in the article, and get them to offer me a fixed price on my furnishing it: in this way, by first ascertaining where I could dispose of the goods, I would purchase, provided the price would afford me a profit. On this plan I have found a purchaser for goods, bought and delivered them, and received the money, which enabled me to pay the auctioneer the cost of them, without my advancing one shilling. I was obliged to live by my wits, and this necessity was of great use to me afterwards. Some months after my arrival at New York, my brother Charles arrived from Ireland, and brought with him, on account of merchants there, provisions, linens, &c., shipped from Dublin, Cork, Belfast, and other ports. He returned to Europe in 1780, previous to which we formed a copartnership with Benjamin Sykes, under the firm of Eddy, Sykes & Co.

"This firm prosecuted business mostly in consignments from England and Ireland, and some shipping business. My partner was a good-natured, honest Englishman, but not possessed of a very intelligent, active mind; in consequence of this, the management and contrivance of the business fell to my lot, and, though very young, and without experience, I had to write all the letters, and carry on every kind of correspondence, besides mostly making all the purchases and sales. By every packet we had to write twenty or thirty letters to England and Ireland, and to accomplish this, had frequently to sit writing till twelve or one o'clock in the morning. I was sedulously and actively employed in business, and in this way acquired considerable knowledge of commercial affairs. Our concerns were extensive, and were prosecuted with tolerable success, respectability, and reputation. My brother George was, at this time, in Philadelphia, about eighteen years of age. He possessed a remarkably sensible and comprehensive mind. Although he had no knowledge of business, he was full of enter-

prise. By him, in Philadelphia, and by Eddy, Sykes & Co. in New York, an arrangement was made, with the consent of General Washington, to supply the British and foreign troops with money, who were taken with Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. The money was raised by my brother at Philadelphia, drawing on us at New York, and the moneys thus raised were paid to the Paymaster of the British and foreign troops, prisoners at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, for which he received and sent to Eddy, Sykes & Co. that paymaster's drafts on the Paymaster General at New York. By an agreement made with Sir Henry Clinton, the British commander, we were paid six per cent commission. The whole amount paid amounted to a very large sum, and proved a profitable contract."

On his arrival in New York, he renewed an intimacy previously formed in Philadelphia with Miss Hannah Hartshorne, for whom he entertained a tender and warm affection. His attachment was reciprocated, and they were united in 1782, at the Old Meeting House in Liberty street.

Before the Americans re-entered the city of New York, Mr. Eddy removed to Philadelphia, where he formed a mercantile connection with his brother George. Charles had settled in Europe, and was prosecuting business there on his own account. In January, 1784, Thomas went to Virginia for the purpose of making purchases of tobacco and shipping it to England. During the revolutionary war, tobacco, in Europe, sold at a very extravagant price; and for a year after peace was declared, great quantities were shipped, thus causing the market to be so overstocked, and the price so reduced, that immense sums were lost by the shippers. Thomas and George Eddy were included among those engaged in this unfortunate speculation. About this time the ill effects of a large importation of European goods, cut off by the war, began to be felt. The country was inundated with extensive shipments; remittances were difficult to be made; and, consequently, a great many houses, both here and in London, became bankrupt. Charles had supplied Thomas and George Eddy with goods on credit to a large amount, and they in turn had given extensive credits to their customers. The failure of the former in London expedited that of the latter. They were relieved from their embarrassments under a general act of bankruptcy for the state of Pennsylvania. To the honor, however, of Mr. Eddy's unswerving business integrity, be it said, that every farthing of the pecuniary responsibilities of the firm have since been discharged, except some few that were not legal, and which it was not deemed right to pay.

Anxious to re-establish himself in some kind of business, Mr. Eddy made a voyage to England, where he remained three months; but this proved of no advantage to him. On his return, he again settled in New York, and being assisted by the kindness of Robert Bowne and others, he commenced the occupation of an insurance broker. There were none engaged in this business at that time, and his gains were consequently rapid. "About 1792," he says, "the public debt of the United States was funded; this afforded an opportunity for people to speculate in the public funds. In this business I made a good deal of money. I declined acting as an insurance broker, and did considerable business as an underwriter, in which I was successful. In 1793, or 1794, I was elected a director in the Mutual Insurance Company, and soon after a director in the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company, and in 1797, was appointed treasurer of that company."

From early youth Mr. Eddy evinced an uncommon zeal in every project for the amelioration of the human race. It is, unfortunately, one of the

prominent traits of mankind to be selfish, and society would present but a bleak and barren aspect were it not for the inspiration of a FEW who seem to be elected to breathe into the world the spirit of Christianity; men who, forgetful of self, nobly exert themselves as ministering angels to supply the wants and alleviate the sufferings of the victims of disease, poverty, persecution, ignorance, and crime. "Promiscuous charity," eloquently observes a distinguished writer, "has been practised by the kind-hearted and the wealthy in every age and nation. The benevolent have poured the oil and wine into the wounds of the unfortunate, to assuage their anguish, if they could not heal them; they have fed the hungry and clothed the naked, and in so doing, have received their reward in the blessings of the just. The Saviour of the world declared that, inasmuch as this was done to one of the children of misfortune, it was done unto himself. But, notwithstanding this generous current of philanthropy has been flowing in the hearts of the virtuous, in all nations, since the birth of man, yet it was left for a late age to collect facts relative to human misery, and from these to form a system for permanent relief." Such was the end and aim of Mr. Eddy's long and useful life. He was directly instrumental in the establishment of many of those institutions which are now the pride and ornaments of our state, and eloquent monuments to the memory of him who effected their being. We propose to enumerate briefly the leading events of Mr. Eddy's life, which was almost exclusively devoted to the public good, and the great works in which he was engaged.

One of the first projects which engaged Mr. Eddy's mind, was a change in the penal code of this state. Branding, whipping-posts, pillories, and solitary confinement without the relief of labor, were the means of reformation in that day; and men were made to believe that the world should be governed with a rod of iron. Mr. Eddy's soul, in emulation of his sect in Pennsylvania, revolted at the recognition of such a principle. That state, through the efforts of the Friends, had effected a change in the mode of punishing crime. There was a warm desire in Mr. Eddy's breast to bring a similar plan into operation in this state. He accordingly, in 1796, engaged in that work with General Philip Schuyler and Ambrose Spencer, then influential members of the senate, and the latter, since Chief Justice of the State of New York. With the assistance of Mr. Eddy, a bill was drawn up for establishing a penitentiary system, and both gentlemen made eloquent speeches in its favor. The legislature were soon convinced of the utility and practicability of the measure, and it was passed. Five persons, among whom was Mr. Eddy, were appointed as commissioners for carrying the bill into effect, and to erect a suitable prison, the building of which was by general consent intrusted solely to him; and when it was finished, such was the interest which he took in its success, that he consented to serve as its director and agent, in which capacities he continued for more than four years. He was so assiduous and calculating in his duties, that every anticipation of his friends and of himself was more than realized. The expenses of the establishment had been less than were expected, the health of the prisoners better than that of the free and honest citizens in the ordinary walks of life. Such cleanliness, order, and moral discipline, marked the penitentiary system under the administration of this untired philanthropist, that those formerly dissipated and sickly, were made sober and healthy. He watched the results of his plans, and held to a theory no longer than he found it good in practice.

In 1801, Mr. Eddy published his celebrated volume on the State Prison of New York, one of the most admirable papers which have been written before or since on the topics of which it treats, viz: causes of crime, punishments, reformation, prison discipline, &c. No one had studied the subject more thoroughly or was better versed in its principles; and the work shows him to have been well acquainted with the writings of Beccaria, Montesquieu, Howard, Penn, and others.

While in the management of the New York prison, Mr. Eddy found that the plan of erecting and conducting such establishments, was susceptible of a great improvement, and to him belongs the merit of inventing and introducing a valuable feature which has been adopted in most of the states. We allude to the confinement of convicts in separate cells during the night. He found, from careful observation, that several confined in a cell corrupted each other, for each one told to his companions his career of vice, and all joined by sympathetic villany to keep each other in countenance. This, to the eye of the shrewd philanthropist, was not long concealed; and like a man of moral intrepidity, he avowed his error and condemned it. Through his exertions a bill was passed by the legislature, making it optional on the part of the city and county of New York, to construct a prison with solitary cells. But not being made imperative, although it was approved by Mr. Eddy's friends and the public generally, yet the new plan was not immediately introduced into this country; Mr. Eddy was, however, not discouraged. At that time, he reckoned among his correspondents on the other side of the Atlantic, such men as Roscoe, Colquhoun, Bentham, and Murray. He immediately wrote to Mr. Colquhoun, mentioning his plan. The letter was shown to Lord Sidmouth, then minister for the Home Department, who, as well as Mr. Colquhoun, gave his decided approbation to the plan, and wished it should be introduced into England; and this was done by the London Society for improving Prison Discipline, and one or two prisons were soon after built upon this plan, one near London, containing six or seven hundred cells. A prison was also built at Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, upon this construction, containing from five to six hundred cells. When the Auburn state prison was erected, Mr. Eddy urged them to have the buildings wholly divided into cells, seven by nine feet each, but most of the commissioners were afraid to try the experiment fully, but did it only in part, and this change from the old plan was made from their confidence in the judgment of the adviser.

When Messrs. Tibbetts, Allen, and Hopkins made their report to the legislature on the prisons in 1824, the object of their appointment being to inquire into the expediency of abolishing the penitentiaries, which had become somewhat unpopular from bad management, they reported in favor of the excellence of the system recommended twenty-two years before by Mr. Eddy, and the result has been its extension not only in this state, but in almost every state of the Union.

To Mr. Eddy's energies in favor of the New York Hospital, is perhaps owing its usefulness at this day. That institution was established before the revolution, by philanthropic individuals on this and the other side of the water. The great event which changed the political destiny of our country, paralyzed the spirit which gave vigor to the institution to which we allude. Mr. Eddy was elected one of its governors in 1793, and through his active exertions, the legislature was induced to make liberal grants to support and extend its means of benevolence. Mr. Eddy's attention was also directed

to the establishment of a department for the treatment of lunatic patients. He visited Albany in 1815, and in conjunction with one or two influential members of the legislature, procured the passage of an act appropriating ten thousand dollars a year for the support of the insane, and for erecting new buildings. To this cause we owe that noble institution, the Asylum for the insane, at Bloomingdale. These successes in the cause of philanthropy, afforded Mr. Eddy the liveliest pleasure.

In 1793, Mr. Eddy and John Murray, brother to Lindley Murray, were appointed a committee of the Friends' yearly meeting, for the improvement of the Indians, whose reduced and wretched condition attracted the notice of the benevolent. They accordingly made a visit to the miserable remnants of the Six Nations—the Brothertown, Stockbridge, Oneida, and Onondaga Indians, for the purpose of inquiring into the best method of alleviating their condition. Their report was so favorable that large sums of money were raised and expended for the amelioration of these tribes. While Mr. Eddy was among them, he was excessively beloved: his hospitable mansion was a wigwam to the travelling Indian, where he ate when famished and drank when thirsty. He and the famous Red Jacket were strong friends; for they were both philosophers and philanthropists, although the latter was of a somewhat sterner mould. Mr. Eddy labored hard to suppress those habits of intemperance which are working their destruction.

Among his other efforts to promote the public prosperity, Mr. Eddy possesses a just claim to a share in investing this state with the benefits of inland navigation by means of the great Erie Canal, the interests of which were so greatly forwarded by the immortal Clinton. Doctor Hosack, in his memoir of that great man, assigns Mr. Eddy a place next to him, as being "chiefly instrumental in effecting a direct internal communication between Lake Erie and the Atlantic." He was at an early period one of the directors of the Western Inland Navigation Company, which had for its object the improvement of the communication between the eastern and western portions of the state. The company expended large sums on the navigation of the Mohawk, which impoverished it; and Mr. Eddy, in his capacity of director, made frequent exploring visits to the interior of New York, to ascertain the practicability of constructing a canal, and unsuccessfully importuned the company to undertake the project of canal navigation. Being at Albany in 1810, he conceived the project of applying to the legislature for the appointment of commissioners to examine and explore the western part of the state, with a view to the construction of a canal from the Mohawk to Seneca Lake. Mentioning his plan to his friend, Judge Platt, then a senator, and since a justice of the Supreme Court, it was highly approved of, and that eminent man suggested the plan of a canal from the Hudson to Lake Erie. A bill was immediately drafted to appoint a commission for this purpose, and it was resolved to present it the next day. Names were selected equally from the two political parties, to be appointed as commissioners. They comprised those of Gouverneur Morris, De Witt Clinton, Stephen Van Rensselaer, Simeon De Witt, William North, Thomas Eddy, and Peter B. Porter. These arrangements were fully perfected by both houses passing the bill immediately, and without a dissenting voice. In the following summer, the commissioners made their exploration from one end of the state to the other, and reported to the next legislature, and several laws were enacted favorable to the prosecution of the project. The last war, however, interrupted the proceedings; and, be-

sides, the plan was violently opposed on party considerations, while there were many who doubted the pecuniary ability of the state to carry on so stupendous a work. Notwithstanding the furious opposition the project met with, Mr. Eddy was not willing to resign a favorite scheme, and he determined to make one more effort. Judge Platt being in New York in 1815, holding a court, Mr. Eddy proposed to him to call a public meeting, in order to urge the propriety and policy of offering a memorial to the legislature, pressing them to prosecute the canal from Erie to the Hudson. Judge Platt readily agreed to this proposition, and consented to open the business to the meeting, if one could be obtained. He then called on De Witt Clinton, who united with him in adopting measures to procure a public meeting. Accordingly, a large and respectable meeting was held at the City Hotel. William Bayard was chairman. Judge Platt made an introductory speech, and was followed by De Witt Clinton, John Swartwout, and others. Cadwallader D. Colden, De Witt Clinton, John Swartwout, and Mr. Eddy, were appointed a committee to draft a memorial to the legislature. This memorial was drawn up by De Witt Clinton, and from the masterly manner in which it was written, it was evident he had a complete knowledge of the subject, and evinced the uncommon talents of the author. It was signed by many thousands in the city, and throughout the state. With the legislature it had the desired effect, and was the means of establishing the canal policy on a firm basis, and producing the law of 15th of April, 1817, directing the work to be commenced, which was accordingly done on the 4th of July following.

In the interim, Mr. Eddy evinced the unusual forecast of his mind, and his clear judgment, by his exertions, in connection with De Witt Clinton and Robert Fulton, to the opposition caused by men not capable of forming a correct judgment as to the practicability of the great work. This was done by the publication of pamphlets, essays in newspapers, &c.

The first savings bank in this country was established in the city of Philadelphia, and almost at the same time another at Boston. Mr. Eddy, impressed with the utility of these institutions to industrious persons with small means, saw only another plan of giving scope to that active spirit of philanthropy which fired his soul. His exertions to establish such an institution in this city, failed for a long time to receive the competent support. In 1803, however, in company with John Murray, jr., and Jeremiah Thompson, he met with full success, after triumphantly removing every objection. The New York Savings Bank was thus established, and has remained in full and active operation ever since; and the thousands who have been benefited by its good offices, can attest the value of such an institution. Mr. Eddy was a director, and its vice-president, to the time of his death.

The New York Bible Society is also another monument of Mr. Eddy's ardent desire to improve the condition of mankind. This branch of the great society which has directly and indirectly effected so much good to the human race, even to the uttermost parts of the earth, was formed in 1806, only two years after the birth of its parent in London. Who can estimate the vast amount of intellectual and moral happiness conferred on a large proportion of mankind, who would otherwise have remained in hopeless darkness, by the introduction of the benign principles of Christianity and its necessary companions, civilization and refinement? The latest moment of Mr. Eddy's life found him an efficient and active supporter of the society he had aided in establishing.

In his connection with the prison system of this state, Mr. Eddy had occasion to observe the full force of the axiom that "ignorance is the mother of crime." He therefore directed his efforts to the establishment of a free school, for those children not otherwise provided with the means of education. An act of incorporation was obtained for a society for establishing a seminary of this description. Funds were raised by subscription for carrying out this benevolent project, and in a short time great benefits flowed from its operations. From this small beginning has grown the great and splendid system of public instruction which is as honorable to New York as it has been advantageous to her citizens in every walk of life.

We might go on enumerating severally, and descanting on the various public acts of the life of the subject of this memoir, for there was scarcely a plan started within the scope of this truly good man that had in view the public benefit, which may not boast of his active exertions in its favor; but we have displayed sufficient of his actions to show that the predominant impulse which inspired him, was philanthropy. His intellectual acquirements, though by no means brilliant, were sufficient to enable him to shine in the great moral works to which he devoted himself, and the literary compositions he has left behind, show him to have been possessed of a strong and discriminating mind. Mild, courteous, and dignified in his personal demeanor, he insured the love and respect of all around him.

Mr. Eddy's death occurred on the 16th of September, 1827, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. He had been failing for months, but at last his exit from the busy scenes of life was as sudden as that life had been tranquil. His memory will long be revered and cherished by those who are capable of appreciating true worth and excellence.

OVERTRADING.

"Money makes money," is a vulgar, but true adage. Argument would be supererogatory in proving the advantage which capital affords to its possessor. But there are two ways of using it—a right and a wrong.

The only legitimate use of capital is to be out of debt. To be out of debt under any circumstances, is an inestimable blessing, but more particularly so in mercantile business, where pecuniary obligations are, of necessity, much larger than in private or personal affairs.

I do not envy that man who having one thousand dollars in capital, endeavors to trade upon twenty; and yet this is done every day. Assuming his speculations to be fortunate, the means are so ill adapted to the end, that a constant oscillation of feeling and anxiety are invariably created in consequence. Keep within bounds, is the best advice that can be given to any one with a moderate capital. *Overtrading* is the great bane of most young tradesmen. Naturally anxious "to do business," they forget that buying and selling do not necessarily imply *profitable* transactions; and they are too often disappointed to find, at the end of the year, that they have gained their trouble for their remuneration. It is much better to do a little business safely, than a great deal which is tinged with any matter of doubt.

Art. VII.—THE JETTISON OF GOODS CARRIED ON DECK.

We have great pleasure in presenting to our readers, through the kindness of Zebedee Cook, Esq., the president of the "New York Mutual Safety Insurance Company," the subjoined opinion of the Hon. Willard Phillips. The high authority of Mr. Phillips, as the author of a standard treatise on the Law of Insurance, and the importance of the principles involved, now first laid before the public in the Merchants' Magazine, render it of especial value.

—

Boston, August 11, 1840.

Zebedee Cook, Esquire.

President of the Mutual Safety Insurance Company, New York:

Dear Sir,—I give you below, at some length, my opinion on the complicated and difficult question you propose in relation to a contribution for a jettison of goods carried on deck.

I am very respectfully yours, &c.

WILLARD PHILLIPS.

—

Whether a jettison of goods carried on deck can be made the subject of contribution.

This question was elaborately discussed about one hundred years ago, in a tribunal to which we owe much of that part of our commercial law which was first embodied in the commentaries of Valin, on the French ordinance of 1681, and the statement of the result of that discussion will serve to present the subject in a clear light. The provision of that ordinance (Tit. du Jet. a. 13,) was adopted in the French code of commerce, (a. 421,) by which it is provided that goods on deck shall contribute, if saved, but that, if they are jettisoned, the shipper cannot claim contribution, his only claim being against the master. By another article (12, tit. du Capitaine,) of the same ordinance, the captain is forbidden to stow goods on deck without the consent of the shipper. The regulation of the Consolato, ch. 183, is the same.

Valin says, in commenting on this subject, that goods on deck must be so, either because there is not room elsewhere, or through the negligence of the master, and that either way it is *his fault*, it being no more permitted to him to overload his ship, than to expose merchandise to be lost overboard by reason of its improper stowage. It is for this reason that this article (12, tit. du Capitaine,) makes the master responsible to the shipper, and so also to the freighter, a twofold responsibility that falls also upon his owners.

On the subject of contribution, he says, the reason why this article (13, du Jet.) refuses payment for jettison of goods carried on deck, is, that as they cannot but embarrass the management of the ship, the presumption is that they should have been thrown overboard before there was any necessity for a jettison, and still more ought they to be thrown overboard when there is such necessity.

Here then was an express regulation, equivalent to a provision by statute with us, that goods jettisoned from the deck, should not be contributed for, and cogent reasons are given in favor of such a regulation. But these very reasons are made the ground of an exception, for Valin goes on to say that his article is not applicable to small coasting vessels, where the *usage is to*

stow goods on deck as well as under deck, even in respect to goods extremely subject to sea-damage: "one every day sees sacks of flour loaded at Marans for this port, (Rochelle,) or for Rochefort, either in batteaux without decks, or on the decks of decked vessels; and, although the flour is very often damaged, yet the usage to transport in this way is tolerated in consideration that otherwise freights would be much higher." And he states the case of a claim made in the tribunal at Rochelle (1747,) about twenty years before, by the shipper of some flour carried on deck and jettisoned on a passage from Marans to Rochelle, on the shippers of goods stowed under deck for contribution, in which the decision was in favor of the claim, from which no appeal was made. This decision, he says, had subsequently been the rule for the adjustment of similar claims.

The commercial law of neither England nor the United States, has any statute regulation on this subject; but the general rule adopted in both countries is, without question, the same that is expressed in the French ordinance and code. It is, however, with us less rigidly binding, and more open to modifications and exceptions, than if, as in France and some other countries, it were a part of the written or statute law. In the numerous cases in which this rule as to contribution has been mentioned in English and American jurisprudence, the reasons most usually given for it, are the same as in Valin's commentaries, viz: that goods ought not to be stowed on deck, because they embarrass the management of the vessel; and that the proper remedy of the shipper whose goods are jettisoned, is against the master and owners. In some of the cases, contribution has been denied on the ground that the goods on deck paid a less freight, and that it would be inequitable that they should be contributed for on the same footing as those under deck, since this would make the ship-owner insure the former without a premium. This reason applies only to cases where the goods on deck in fact pay less freight, which is not always the case. It is said also that goods are taken on deck under an implied agreement that they shall not be entitled to contribution; but this is only another expression of one of the foregoing reasons, since it is merely saying that one or another of those reasons imports such an agreement; or, in other words, since the shipper of the goods stowed on deck, ought not to have contribution, the courts suppose him impliedly to agree not to claim it. Another ground alleged is, that there is a usage or custom not to allow contribution, even though the goods are rightfully stowed on deck according to the usage of the particular trade. That is, the general doctrine or usage is, that goods on deck are not to be contributed for; and no exception is recognised. This is merely saying that contribution for goods on deck has been denied not only generally, but also in a case of the description in question. It is only giving the *doctrine* the name of *usage*.

These are all the grounds of the rule denying contribution that I have found in the treatises and jurisprudence on the subject; a concise recapitulation of the cases will show that the subject is involved in some perplexity and inconsistencies.

In Lenox vs. Marine Insurance Company, (1 Caines' Rep. 44, n. 1802,) the decision was against contribution, on the ground, as stated by Mr. Caines, that the goods on deck embarrass the navigation of the ship; and that there was accordingly an implied agreement not to demand contribution.

In Smith and another vs. Wright, (2 Caines' Rep. 43, 1803,) twelve

bales of cotton shipped on deck at lower freight, on a voyage from New York to Liverpool, were jettisoned, and the claim against the ship for contribution was rejected on the ground that to allow it would "make the ship-owners insurers of all the goods laden on deck without a premium, at half freight, which would be the height of injustice." In this case some of the witnesses said such a claim was never heard of, and the usage was clearly against it.

In the case of staves thrown over from the deck, on a voyage from New York to Lisbon, and allowed for in an average adjusted at Lisbon, the court in New York were of opinion that the shipper of the staves was not entitled to contribution. The staves were shipped on deck on a special contract, and there was no evidence of any custom to carry a deck-load. Lenox vs. United Insurance Company, (3 Johns. Cas. 178, 1802.)

In one case in Maine, Dodge vs. Bartlett, (5 Greenleaf, Rep. 285, 1828,) of a claim for contribution for goods jettisoned from the deck, where they were carried for half freight, Mr. Justice Weston said, "There can, we think, be little doubt that in the excepted cases stated by Valin, depending on a usage to load on deck, full freight was paid for the whole goods;" and it was considered in that case, that the different rate of freight was a sufficient reason for rejecting the claim. The court, however, said at the same time, that they did not think a liability to contribution would result from a usage to carry on deck.

In a subsequent case in Maine, Cram vs. Aiken, (1 Shepley, 229, 1831,) of goods jettisoned from the deck, and the ship thereby saved, on a voyage from Boston to Hallowell, in which it was proved to be the usage so to carry goods like those in question, not liable to damage by being wetted, at the same freight as in the hold, the claim on the owners for contribution was rejected. There was in the case some evidence to show that the claimant knew the goods were to go on deck. Mr. Chief Justice Weston, giving the opinion of the court, said, "Neither the master nor the owner can be chargeable with any fault in putting the goods on deck. The claimant must be understood to have *assented* to their having been placed there." And the claim was rejected on the ground that goods on deck are "peculiarly exposed," and the court considered that there was no sufficient authority for any exception to this rule.

The same question has been raised in England. It came up first in Da Costa vs. Edmunds, (4 Camp. 142, 1815,) in a trial of a case before Lord Ellenborough, in which some carboys of vitriol were jettisoned from the deck, it being proved to be customary to carry this article on deck as well as in the hold. Lord Ellenborough ruled in favor of the claim, and this ruling was acquiesced in by the other judges of the King's Bench.

In a subsequent case before the Court of King's Bench, since Lord Denman has been Chief Justice, Gould vs. Oliver, (4 Bing. N. C. 134,) a shipper of a cargo of lumber for a voyage from Quebec to England, claimed contribution of the ship-owners for the jettison of the part of the cargo carried on deck. It was proved to be the usage to carry part of such a cargo on deck on that voyage. The claim was allowed.

In regard to the proper mode of carrying the boats, all the cases agree that it must depend on usage. In an English case, Blackett vs. Roy, (Exch. Ass. Co., 2 Crompton and Jer. 244,) a policy on the ship was held to cover and make the underwriters liable for the loss of a boat carried on the quarter, this being proved to be the *usual* way of carrying a boat on the voyage

in question. The court did not go beyond the inquiry whether this was the *usual way*, but considered the decision of the *fact* that the boat was rightfully there, to be decisive.

A similar case has occurred in Massachusetts, Hall vs. Ocean Insurance Company, (Suff., 1839,) in which the assured on the ship claimed for the loss of a boat slung to the davits at the stern. The only question was, whether this was the *usual way* of carrying it; and it not appearing to be an unusual way, this was considered to be conclusive of the case in favor of the assured.

Now if the question whether a boat *must* be carried on deck, or *may* be carried at the quarter or stern, depends on what is *usual*, that is, is a mere question of fact; the other question, whether any particular description of goods must, on any particular voyage, or on board of any particular description of vessel, be carried under deck, or may be carried on deck, seems to be very analogous in principle, and the analogy is certainly very strong in favor of holding the decision of the *fact* to be conclusive of a claim for a loss in the latter case, no less than in the former.

It has been held in Connecticut, that a shipper is affected by a usage to carry goods on deck, whether he, in fact, knows any thing of it or not. Some casks of gin so carried, were jettisoned on a passage from Hartford to Boston, for which the shipper claimed indemnity of the ship-owner, and the jury were instructed that if it were usual to carry such an article on deck, the claim should be rejected, and this instruction was deliberately confirmed by the court. Barber vs. Brace, (3 Conn. Rep. 9.)

Indeed it is a well-known rule of commercial law, that the usages of any trade are presumed to be known to every one interested in it, whether as a ship-owner, shipper, or underwriter.

Another case that has occurred in Massachusetts, Lapham vs. Atlas Insurance Company, (Suff. 1839,) has some bearing on this subject. In a claim for a loss, the underwriters objected that the navigation of the ship had been embarrassed, and the risk accordingly enhanced by taking a deck-load of cotton. It was, however, stated by witnesses that the navigation of vessels of the same description *was not at all* hindered by such a deck-load. Now, as above stated, the supposed embarrassment of the navigation of the ship, is the principal ground of the general rule as to contribution for a deck-load. The court did not exclude an inquiry as to the fact in this particular case. If, therefore, the doctrine as to contribution for a deck-load rested wholly on the supposed embarrassment of the navigation of the ship, it would not be applicable to such a case as the above.

Where the shipper demanded indemnity from the ship-owner for some hogsheads of spirit carried on deck, and lost on a passage from New York to Portland, Mr. Justice Ware adjudged the ship-owner to be liable, remarking that *no usage was proved*, to carry the article on deck on that voyage. (Crane vs. the Rebecca; Am. Jurist, vol. 6, p. 1, S.C., Ware's Reports. See also ship Paragon, Ware's Reports, 322. This implied that, according to the other cases above cited, if there had been proof of such a usage, the ship-owner would not have been liable.

From this sketch of the jurisprudence relating to this question, we find the authorities agree that if the goods are stowed according to the usage on the particular voyage, the master and owners are not liable for any damage or loss, though the goods are stowed on deck. Now the rule as stated

in the French ordinance is, that no contribution can be claimed for jettison of goods carried on deck, the claim in such case being against the master; thus plainly implying at least, if not explicitly asserting, that where the claim against the ship and cargo ends, that upon the master, for improper stowage, begins. This is the construction put upon the ordinance by Valin, than whom we can hardly have a more weighty authority upon a matter of commercial law, even at the present day, where the circumstances are, as in this case, parallel to those of his own time. According to his construction of the ordinance, sanctioned by the decision of the Rochelle tribunal, the right to contribution for jettison of the deck-load, had place where the usage of the trade was to take a deck-load. Under the rule of the Rhodian law, if the goods of one are jettisoned for the sake of the others, they shall contribute *pro rata* for the sacrifice. It is *they* indeed, who, by their representative, the master, sacrifice his goods, for their own benefit, for the shipper cannot be presumed to consent that his own goods, though carried on deck, shall be sacrificed for the benefit of others merely, without any compensation to himself; and the assumption, in a case or two, that he does so assent, is, it seems to me, without the slightest foundation, and is contrary to the plain fact, for men do not assent to the gratuitous sacrifice of their property. If the goods are wrongfully and unjustifiably stowed on deck, the parties interested may throw them overboard without making compensation, in case of danger, just as anybody may abate a nuisance in the highway or on his own ground, but we should hardly say that the wrong-doer, who erected it, did so on an agreement that it might be abated. Valin puts the rule denying contribution upon this ground.

The presumption is, he says, that the goods ought to have been thrown over even before there was any danger threatening. This is the extent of the exception to the Rhodian law as Valin left the subject. The Rhodian law allowed contribution without expressing any exception. The modern ordinances and usage made the exception of the case of jettison of goods carried on deck. Valin says this modification of the Rhodian law is not applicable where the other shippers must, from the usage, know that goods will be so carried.

It is said that the deck-load, though one may be customarily carried on the particular voyage, obstructs the navigation of the ship. Though the testimony was to the contrary in the case of the deck-load of cotton already mentioned, yet allowing this to be the case, if the obstruction is no greater or other than the particular navigation is ordinarily subject to; if it is one that is usual and common, and known to everybody, or presumed to be so; if the goods are rightfully and justifiably on the deck; whether they facilitate or obstruct the navigation, seems to have not the slightest bearing upon the question of a claim for contribution. It is a reason, if it be a fact, why these goods should be thrown over first. And so there are other reasons why particular goods should be selected for jettison, such, for example, as their small value in comparison with their weight; but it does not follow that a good reason why goods should be jettisoned instead of others, is one also why no contribution should be made for them.

Again, in two of the cases above cited, the circumstance of lower freight being paid for goods on deck was considered to be of weight, for it is said that it would be very unreasonable for the ship-owner to insure the deck-load without any premium for so doing. If a special agreement were made for low freight of goods on deck, on a voyage on which such a mode of

stowage was not usual and known to everybody, the fact of its being unusual would be a reason against allowing a claim upon the other shippers for contribution for the jettison of goods so carried, but it does not appear what the rate of freight has to do with the question. As there are other sufficient reasons why a lower freight may be demanded and paid for goods on deck, there is no necessity for seeking a reason in the exception from contribution. The connecting the rate of freight in any way with the question of contribution, except in assessing the ship-owner, seems to be entirely forced and fanciful. The agreement to carry cheap, certainly does not imply a condition that the carrier should have any particular privilege to destroy the goods. This he could not do if he carried them gratuitously. There is no other case in which the responsibility of the carrier is determined by the high or low rate of freight. But this reason may be put entirely out of the question, since the extent of the exception is not pretended to be limited to cases of lower freight; in a number of the cases already cited, the same freight was paid, on and under deck; in some of those cases the shipper did not previously know of his goods being carried on deck.

On the rule as stated in the ordinance, and explained by Valin, there can be no reason given by the master and owners against contribution by the ship and freight, for the only case exempted from contribution is one where entire indemnity is due from the ship-owner, on the ground of his non-compliance with his agreement. In all the treatises and jurisprudence on this subject, we shall, I think, seek in vain for any ground or pretence whatever, short of an express special agreement to that effect, for exempting the ship and freight from contribution, unless it be the liability of the ship-owner to pay the whole value of the goods jettisoned from the deck. The master puts the goods on deck without the knowledge of the shipper. They are jettisoned for the safety of the ship and the rest of the cargo. The shipper demands indemnity. The ship-owner replies that he is not responsible, and the courts so hold on the ground that the goods were rightly and properly stowed, according to the usage of the trade, and the shipper is presumed to have known that they might be so stowed. The shipper then demands contribution. The ship-owner says, "No; it was understood and virtually agreed between all parties, that I might put the goods of any one in a situation in which they should be subject to be sacrificed without compensation, and I chose to put your goods in that situation." This seems to me, I confess, to be preposterous. Nor do I perceive that it makes any difference between these parties, if the goods were carried on deck by an express special agreement.

Again, it is said to be unequal and unjust that the shippers of goods under deck should contribute for the jettison of those on deck. But Valin has given a reason why they should contribute, where the usage is so to stow goods, namely, because the whole cargo is carried at a lower freight than if no goods were permitted to be so carried. The shipper under deck has therefore, a consideration. Besides, if any of the goods under deck are of a description liable, by the usage, to be carried on deck, this is an additional reason why they should contribute, since it depended merely upon the time when they were brought on board whether these or the others were carried in the hold. Undoubtedly, in order to render goods under deck liable to contribute, the usage ought to be clearly established, so that the shipper of goods carried under deck must be presumed to have known that such goods would be carried, and be carried on deck. Some things, as, for instance, an

elephant, as mentioned in one of the cases by way of illustration, are always carried on deck. But if, as in such case, the thing is but rarely transported by sea, the shippers certainly cannot be presumed to know that it will be on board. But if any particular descriptions of articles are commonly carried on the voyage, and usually carried on deck, or either on deck or in the hold, indifferently, according as a greater or less proportion of the cargo consists of such articles, it does not appear why such a usage is not to be presumed to be known to everybody, as well as any other commercial usage, nor why any contract made in reference to such trade, should not be considered to be subject to the usage.

As far as the other goods on deck, that are not jettisoned, are concerned, they seem to be on the same footing, as to contribution in the case in question, as the ship and freight.

It is said, in some of the cases, that goods on deck are more exposed to sea-damage. This fact cannot, however, have any bearing on the question of average, since the goods jettisoned are contributed for at their value at the time of their being jettisoned, and if they have been previously damaged the contribution is lessened thereby; and the fact that they are more liable to damage in future on deck than if they were in the hold, is a matter of no concern to the other shippers; it does not authorize the ship-owner and other shippers to throw them overboard.

Suppose a jettison of goods from a steamboat, where the freight is generally carried on deck, would not this give a valid claim for contribution? I presume there is no doubt that it would give such a claim. Why does not the shipper of goods on deck, on board of a sailing vessel, stand upon precisely the same footing, if the cargo, including his goods, is the *usual* cargo and stowed in the *usual way*, on the particular voyage? It appears to me that these are the real questions of fact upon which all these cases ought to turn.

Mr. Justice Ware remarks that "the law does not consist of cases, but of principles," (Am. Jurist, v. 6, p. 13;) and if his remark is applicable to this subject, and it ought to be especially applicable to commercial questions, I think I am authorized in stating it as my opinion that the law on this subject is precisely as it is laid down in the French ordinance and Valin's commentaries; and that the jettison of goods rightfully carried on deck according to the usage of trade, which the other shippers must be presumed to know would be carried, and so carried, gives a valid claim for contribution against the ship, freight, and cargo; and that such a jettison gives a valid claim against the ship and freight, in all cases whatsoever; unless there is an express agreement to the contrary. I do not see how a different doctrine can be maintained without working a palpable wrong, and at the same time clashing with well-established and fundamental principles. This doctrine is besides, supported by some of the cases.

THE skill of a 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

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE LAW REPORT.

THE TARIFF—FORFEITURE OF GOODS.

In the District Court of the United States, Hon. S. R. Betts presiding, October 14th and 15th, 1840. The United States against five casks files. Joseph Ellison, claimant.

This was an information against merchandise, to obtain its forfeiture on several allegations:

1. That the goods, being procured otherwise than by purchase, were not invoiced at their actual *value* at the time and place where procured.

2. That the invoices were undervalued.

3. That by the invoice, the goods were represented as owned by Joseph Ellison, who was not the owner.

And that in each particular the invoice was made up with intent, by a false valuation, extension, or otherwise, to evade or defraud the revenue; contrary to the 4th section of the act of 28th May, 1830.

The goods were claimed by Joseph Ellison as consignee, who traversed the causes of forfeiture.

The invoices were produced in evidence, and were made up with this heading:

"Jos. Ellison, Bought of Wilson, Hawkshurst & Moss;" and dated at Sheffield, in February, 1839. It was admitted that Ellison was only a consignee of the goods for sale, for the house of Wilson, Hawkshurst & Moss. The latter were extensive dealers in cutlery and steel, at Sheffield. It appeared that the course of the trade in files at Sheffield, was to sell by a tariff of printed prices, established some time ago, and the price at this time was designated by rates of discount from the tariff.

The customhouse appraiser, on examination, reported the discounts in the invoice to be greater than the actual current prices at Sheffield; in some articles, ten per cent, in others seventeen, in others twenty, and on an average, twelve per cent; upon this the goods had been seized. Invoices of Wilson, Hawkshurst & Moss to other dealers in New York, were produced at discounts confirming the appraiser's judgment. Some of the articles were marked with the name of W., H. & Moss; some with a mark used by them in files sent from their establishment at Sheffield.

On the part of the claimant, evidence was given, that it was the course of business at Sheffield, with W., H. Moss and others, in cases of consignment, to head the invoices in the manner in this case practised. Evidence also was given from Sheffield by the manufacturers of the files in question, that they had sold the same to W., H. & Moss, at the prices stated in the invoice, and that was also proved by their clerk. These and other witnesses also proved that similar goods could be purchased at Sheffield by dealers there for cash, at similar prices. It also appeared that W., H. & Moss were not themselves manufacturers directly of the files That they were dealers in steel; that it was the course of business of persons in their line at Sheffield, to deliver steel to the manufacturers of files, which was charged at a cash price; that files were returned to them made usually out of the same steel at certain cash prices, and the balance was paid in cash; that the dealers to whom the files were thus returned, were not themselves proprietors of the machinery, tools, or establishments where the files were made;

that the actual manufacturers were often persons of small credit, whom the dealers would not trust, except with the steel to be paid by manufactured files; that the mark put on files was sometimes that of the maker, sometimes that of the purchaser for sale or exportation.

Mr. Lord, for the claimant, insisted that the house Wilson, Hawkshurst & Moss, were purchasers of the files, and had invoiced them at the purchasing prices; that they were not bound, nor indeed, under the law and the oath to be taken by the importer, warranted in invoicing them at any other value; that they were not manufacturers; that even if they might in a constructive legal sense be so deemed, yet this was one of those new and nice questions in which, if they erred, it was not evidence of intended fraud; that all their conduct and course was to the contrary.

Mr. Butler, D. A., insisted that W., H. & Moss were manufacturers and not purchasers; they were therefore bound by law to put the current actual *value*, instead of actual *cost* in the invoices; that this was done understandingly, and not by any mistake of fact; and if the mistake was one of law, it was at their peril; that if this was so, then the naming of Ellison in the invoice as a purchaser, tended to mislead the officers of the customs; because, if true, it warranted an entry at the actual *cost*, when the duties ought to be levied on actual *value*.

Judge Betts charged the Jury: That the offence here proceeded for, was a falsehood in the invoice produced upon entry, with intent to defraud or evade the revenue. The falsity was alleged to exist in the heading of the invoices, and in the prices at which the articles were there valued; the intent, that of evading the revenue by passing the goods at a less rate of duty than they were in truth and by law subject to.

That the invoices, it is true, were not controlling on the customhouse officers, but they might nevertheless raise the value, and charge the duties accordingly; but the invoice was one circumstance or document which the government exacted upon entry for the information of its officers, and required it to be true, on penalty of forfeiting the goods. The forfeiture is not because the government is actually defrauded, but because the invoice has been falsely made to this effect.

The law contemplates two classes of importers; purchasers, and those who procure otherwise than by purchase: the one class are to represent the *actual cost*, the other the *actual value* in their invoices. If the actual cost be truly stated by the purchaser importing, then although the valuation may be raised for the purpose of imposing the duty, yet the goods could not be for this cause forfeited. But if the importer be not a purchaser, his invoice must show the actual market value, whatever may have been its cost of manufacture.

Then, were W., H. & Moss, who are here to be regarded as importers, manufacturers or purchasers? If they were purchasers, then the evidence is clear that the invoice contains the actual *cost*, and there is no difficulty in the case. If they were manufacturers of these goods, then if the invoice does not show the actual *value*, the goods are not properly invoiced. Whether manufacturers or not, is a mixed question for the jury, under the advice of the court as to what constitutes a manufacturer.

Manufacturer is a word not perfectly limited in its meaning. The artisan, by whose skill and labor the raw material is formed into the article prepared for sale or use, is in a strict sense the manufacturer. But he who controls, directs, or superintends the artisans, and the general head or pro-

prietor of the establishment, is a manufacturer also; although he may not conduct any of the mechanical processes, nor indeed be acquainted with them. So, too, there are persons in a mixed position, being dealers in the raw material, selling all the articles made from it, and manufacturing some of the articles they deal in. In relation to the present case, if W., H. & Moss were originally proprietors of the material delivered to the file-maker, and the latter was to return to him the same material in its manufactured shape according to their orders, so that the material did not cease to belong to them, then they were manufacturers; although the mode of conducting the business was by charging the steel and crediting the files in cash, and paying cash for the balance. But if, when the steel was delivered to the file-makers, it belonged to the latter, so that they might at their pleasure either sell it, or sell the files made from it to whom they pleased, then W., H. & Moss would be rather purchasers than manufacturers of the files.

If the jury should, on the evidence, find that they were manufacturers, then the next question would be, whether the price in the invoice was the actual market value at Sheffield at the time; such as any ordinary purchaser would have to pay for the article in the market there. On this the evidence was conflicting, and was for the jury to consider. But if it was not the actual value, still the claimant contends, that if W., H. & Moss supposed that they were purchasers, and under this supposition inserted the actual *cost* instead of actual *value*, they were merely mistaken in the law, and not guilty of an intent to defraud or evade the revenue. The court, however, is of opinion, that this mistake of the law cannot be looked to in their exculpation. They are bound to know the law, and if without mistake of fact, they make an entry in their invoice contrary to the law, it must be regarded as intentional; and if tending to evade or defraud the revenue, that intent must be ascribed to the false invoice. The jury are not, in this particular, to inquire as to the actual private intent to defraud the revenue, but whether the importers were in such a relation of manufacturers, as bound them to enter the goods, not at actual cost, but at actual value.

As to the representation of Joseph Ellison being the purchaser instead of Wilson, Hawkshurst & Moss, if that was false, and with intent to evade or defraud the revenue, then that was also a ground of forfeiture.

The claimant's counsel excepted to so much of the charge as related to the intent under mistake of law.

The jury found a verdict for the claimant of the goods.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1. *A Treatise on the Law of Fire Insurance, and Insurance on Inland Waters.* In two parts, with an appendix of forms. By ELISHA HAMMOND, Counsellor at Law. New York: Halsted & Voorhies, 1840.

THE principles regulating insurance, constitute an important branch of the law. In its broad sense, insurance is nothing more than a contract entered into between two parties, in which one engages, on the payment of a certain sum by the other, to indemnify him against any losses which may occur from unforeseen accidents—for example, fire or storms. This system of legal policy is of the utmost benefit to all classes of population

who possess property subject to these accidents, and especially to the mercantile and commercial class. It enables those who have property in their possession to protect themselves from the misfortunes which may befall it, and its direct consequence is to advance the interests of trade. If the owner of real estate, subject to destruction by inevitable accident; if the merchant, who has heaped his warehouses with marketable property, or has sent it afloat upon the ocean to foreign ports, desires to fortify himself against unforeseen events, which might otherwise involve him in ruin, he saves himself the consequences of their destruction by paying a specific sum called a premium, to a certain man or body of men called underwriters, who engage for that consideration to make up any loss if the property is destroyed. It thus induces enterprise by protecting those engaged in it from the losses which may thus accrue from their hazardous adventures.

There are different species of this kind of contract, the principal of which are fire, marine, and life insurance. The fire insurance generally covers all property on land which may be destroyed by fire; marine insurance, the perils of the sea; and life insurance, the duration of life, by contracting to pay, for a certain annual premium, a specific sum to the survivor of the insured in case of his death. This contract has been deemed by some, and indeed might savor of a species of gambling, were it not that it tends directly to the benefit of men by protecting those who have property, and by furthering the interests of trade and commerce.

There is and should be a mutuality in this species of contract. The insurers or underwriters engage to indemnify the insured in case of damage or loss under certain circumstances, but it is necessary that their risks should be generally known to the underwriters, because the amount of the risk must regulate the amount of the premium. Accordingly, if the insured do not perform their part of the contract by acting up to its terms, so far as the risk of the property insured is concerned, the policy becomes vitiated, and the underwriters are not responsible. Suppose a house is insured against fire, it is right under the circumstances of the case that the underwriters should know what risk it will be likely to undergo; or if life is insured, it becomes important to ascertain the constitution of the insured, and the circumstances bearing upon his health; or if a ship and cargo are insured, it is equally just that she should be tight, staunch, and strong, in every way seaworthy, and perform her voyage in the track prescribed by the policy. These important qualifications seem essential to the right understanding of the circumstances under which the contract should be made, and any fraud on either side ought to vitiate it as against the wrongdoer.

The entire law of insurance embraces a very large space, and is comprehended in numerous volumes. The present is a valuable compendium of the law of fire insurance, and that upon the property of inland waters, which is embraced in the term of marine insurance. The consideration of the law of insurance of property upon inland waters, seems especially appropriate to the position of our country, watered as it is by numerous and extensive navigable waters, which now bear in their commerce a large amount of value which is the subject of insurance. The law of insurance in its application to particular cases, is so vast and complex, that this work of only one hundred and eighty-two pages, can be expected to give but little more than its general principles; but those which have been here embodied are of the utmost practical utility, being backed by the most

authoritative judicial decisions upon this important branch of mercantile law. It is increased in value by an appendix, which contains the ordinary forms of policies of insurance, and the evidence of the circumstances of the loss required by the underwriters in order to their indemnification of the insured for the damage sustained.

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2. *Democracy in America. Part the Second:—The Social Influence of Democracy.* By ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE, Member of the Institute of France, and of the Chamber of Deputies, &c. &c. Translated by HENRY REEVE, Esq. With an original preface, by JOHN C. SPENCER, Counsellor at Law. New York: J. & H. Langley. 8vo. pp. 355. 1840.

To those who have read the first part of this work, we need not say that it is the offspring of a powerful, searching, and philosophic mind. This second part, forming its conclusion, exhibits the same traits that distinguish the first volume. In our deliberate judgment, it is the most original, comprehensive, and profound treatise that has ever appeared regarding our republic,—a treatise which is destined to live and take rank with the master works of former ages. Carried forward as we are upon the current of events that are flowing onward through the bustling scenes of our country, and constituting, as we do, a part of that stream, it is not extraordinary that no native writer has sprung up among us, who has drawn an accurate picture of our political and social institutions, and the causes and consequences which they exhibit. It requires a mind independent of our government and people, alike removed from prejudice and passion, conversant with other governments and the history of the past, endowed with equal powers of generalization and analysis, which can take a bird's-eye view of the whole subject, and comprehend it in its whole proportion and all its parts, to delineate the character of a republic like our own. Such a mind has been found in the author of this work. He has not only shown us the facts growing out of our popular institutions, which we see spread around us, but also the causes of those facts. He has furnished a text book for those who wish to arrive at a right understanding of the political and social structure of our body politic, and by so doing has placed his name in a rank hardly below those of the Bacons, the Lockes, the Miltons, the Montesquieus, the De Lolmes, and the Blackstones of the past.

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3. *The American Almanac and Repository of Useful Knowledge, for the year* 1841. Boston: David H. Williams. pp. 312. 1840.

This volume constitutes the 12th number of the most valuable annual that has ever been published in this country. It is uniformly compiled with great care and judgment, and may be depended upon for its accuracy. The present number embraces the usual astronomical, political, and commercial tables; the former of which were prepared by a distinguished mathematician, Mr. Robert Treat Paine, besides special information upon important topics, derived from the most authoritative sources. It contains, also, facts most useful to be known concerning the political organization of our several states, and a list of their civil officers, together with an extended obituary of distinguished men who have died within the last year.

4. *Views of the Architecture of the Heavens; in a Series of Letters addressed to a Lady.* By J. P. Nichol, L.L.D., F.R.S.E., Professor of Practical Astronomy in the University of Glasgow. Republished from the last London and Edinburgh editions. To which have been added, notes, a glossary, &c., by the American publishers. New York: H. A. Chapin & Co. 12mo. pp. 158. 1840.

It is a noble trait of the intellect of man that it ranges through the whole domain of created existence, and thus shows a clear badge of its immortal powers. Not contented with the globe as a field of its action, it ascends to the heavens, and there explores the bright worlds which glow in myriads upon its arch, measures the size and the tracks of the heavenly bodies, calculating eclipses to a minute of time. And what amazing scenes does astronomy unfold, in the millions of worlds that glow bright above us, and those other millions that are invisible to the naked eye, each governed by fixed and uniform laws! It is said that Herschel, when he pointed his telescope to the skies, and *cast out his lines* as if to fathom the immensity of space, experienced the same sensation that is produced upon a mariner when he sounds the depths of the ocean. He was fired by increased enthusiasm, as clusters of new worlds met his eye, each the centre of other worlds, until his mind was lost in amazement at the infinitude of the universe. The present work is designed to spread before the popular mind the planetary system, in its intimate relations. It is embellished with numerous handsome plates, which show the worlds above us as they appear through a telescope. We recommend it to all those who are interested in astronomy, (and who should not be?) as conveying in an intelligible form, a knowledge of the planetary system, and the principles which govern the architecture of the heavens thus displaying the omnipotence of God.

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5. *Manual of Political Ethics; designed chiefly for the use of colleges and students at law.* Parts I. and II. By Francis Lieber. Boston: Charles C. Little, and James Brown. 8vo. pp. 441—668. 1840.

Dr. Lieber has done an important service to the cause of political morals by putting forth this work. In a country like ours, the structure of whose government is republican, and based on the popular will, it is peculiarly important that while the people should thoroughly understand their rights, so also, that they should know their duties. An error has long prevailed, that although morals are a necessary safeguard and a bright ornament to the individual in his private relations, he is absolved from their obligations as soon as he enters upon the arena of politics. We have a marked example of this error in the conduct of nations towards each other, and towards their subjects, in past times. Notwithstanding the existence of huge volumes of codes, comprising the laws of nations, with which our world has abounded since the time of Grotius, and that hold civil society as a "moral person;" these codes, it is well known, have been, in fact, mere ropes of sand, when they have come in conflict with the selfishness and ambition of political states. In too many cases, the law of the strongest has given the rule. If any collision has existed between opposing umpires, they have had no common umpire by whose judgment they were willing to be bound; the sword is the weapon which has beaten down the scales of justice.

The design of these volumes is to show that morals are as binding

upon the politician as the man, upon the public as well as the private state, and that each individual owes an equal duty to the community of which he is a member whatever may be his position, and to his neighbor. And who can avoid the conclusion? The great public are but men in their collective capacity, and any breach of morals towards them in that condition, is as wrong, nay, it is usually, if the wrong-doer possesses great power, more disastrous in its consequences than a breach of duty towards an individual. The character of the structure of society is here clearly shown, and the obligations which it enforces upon each member of society are clearly set forth. We hope that every good citizen, as well as students at law, for which this work was principally designed, will take it to heart, and be guided by its precepts.

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6. *The Flag Ship; or, A Voyage around the World, in the United States frigate Columbia, attended by her consort, the sloop-of-war John Adams, and bearing the broad pennant of Commodore George C. Read.* By Fitch W. Taylor, Chaplain to the Squadron. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 2 vols. pp. 388—406. 1840.

The chaplains of our naval service seem, from their stations, to be the best fitted to furnish us with descriptions of the voyages made in our naval ships, and it is to them that we have been indebted for the most interesting of this class of works within the last few years. Possessing minds enriched by study, and sufficient leisure to record their observations in the intervals of their professional duty, it is to them that we look for fresh and graphic accounts of our naval explorations. The present work covers a wide ground. Treating, as it does, of the various nations along the track of this expedition, it presents us a bird's-eye view of their various characters, as they would naturally impress a single mind. The distinctions in character presented by the various nations here described, must convince us that one of the most interesting objects of contemplation is man in the various phases which he assumes from the difference in climate, constitution, and laws. We know of no work better calculated to furnish matter for this sort of contemplation than the present. It presents us, in a single picture, the manners, habits, and appearance of races as widely separated in character as if they belonged to different species; and, moreover, they appear so accurately drawn and well colored, that the figures seem to stand out and breathe upon the page. The work is illustrated with appropriate embellishments, and we doubt not will have a wide circulation.

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7. *Three Voyages for the Discovery of a Northwest Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific; and Narrative of an attempt to reach the North Pole.* By Sir W. E. Parry, Capt. R.N., F.R.S. In 2 vols. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1840.

These volumes contain an account of the five voyages made by Parry, who was appointed the commander of his majesty's ship the Hecla, in 1819, to lead an expedition for the purpose of attempting the discovery of a northwest passage into the Pacific. The vessels in his charge, being rigged in the manner of a bark, were provided with stores for two years, and ballasted with coal. Each man was furnished with an abundance of warm

clothing, a wolf-skin blanket, and with all the outfits necessary to encounter the severe cold of the north. The official narrative from which the volumes are drawn is abbreviated by the omission of details, and those parts only are preserved which are most calculated to be interesting to the people of this country. The work presents an interesting record of the enterprises of this adventurous navigator, and circumstances important to be known respecting the physical features and the population in the northern part of our continent. The description of the Esquimaux, and the narrative of the attempt to reach the north pole, constitute a valuable portion of the work. The former exhibits man in a peculiar aspect, living among eternal snows, and the spirited engraving of the Esquimaux snow-huts almost causes one to shiver.

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8. *Two Years before the Mast; a personal Narrative of Life at Sea.* New York: Harper & Brothers. 12mo. pp. 483.

This work, forming the 106th number of Harper's Family Library, is understood to have proceeded from the pen of Mr. RICHARD H. DANA, jr., of Boston, a son of the well-known poet of the same name. This gentleman, it appears, was transferred from the halls of Harvard to a merchantship, and acquired the hard experience to be derived from the service of two years before the mast, as a common sailor. The volume embraces the substance of that experience taken from his journal, which was kept during the voyage to the western coast of America. So little is known even to the great mass of the reading public respecting the actual life of the sailor, that it seemed important to collect from one who had endured it, all the facts regarding the case. They are here set forth in a simple and graphic form, and with a salient freshness which always arises from an account of recent incidents, conveyed in a popular and pleasing style. It serves to give us an accurate idea of the mingled deprivations and pleasures of those active agents of our commerce who are continually afloat upon the ocean; and we think that it presents many valuable hints as to the actual condition of this class, which may lay a foundation for substantial improvement.

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9. *Introduction to the French Language; comprising a French Grammar, with an appendix of important tables and other matter, and a French Reader, consisting of selections from the Classic Literature of France; accompanied by explanatory notes and a vocabulary, adapted to the selections.* By DAVID FOSDICK, jr. New York: Gould, Newman & Saxton. 1840.

It is perhaps too late to discuss the importance of the French language. That language has indeed become an almost essential branch of elementary education. To the merchant, a knowledge of this language is invaluable; because in our own republic he is frequently thrown into mercantile relations with individuals from that country, and it is absolutely requisite, if in his commercial intercourse he should have occasion to visit France. The present volume is peculiarly adapted to give an elementary knowledge of the French language, and although containing some few inaccuracies, which the author acknowledges in his preface, these are not so many or so great as to mar the general value of the work. A table, containing specimens of the most popular French writers, in prose and poetry, is appended, together with a vocabulary, rendering from French into English the French words which most frequently occur.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

COMMERCE.

Table, exhibiting the value of imports from, and exports to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of Sept. 1839, from official documents.

Countries.	*Value of Imports.*	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic produce.	*Foreign produce.*	*Total.*
Russia,	$2,393,894	$434,587	$804,659	$1,239,246
Prussia,	70,412	29,313	43,500	72,813
Sweden and Norway,	1,553,684	337,000	26,502	363,502
Swedish West Indies,	12,458	103,282	4,130	107,412
Denmark,	80,997	50,634	38,177	88,811
Danish West Indies,	1,465,761	1,014,381	303,154	1,317,535
Hanse Towns and ports of Germany,	4,849,150	2,067,608	733,459	2,801,067
Holland,	2,149,732	1,677,352	295,651	1,973,003
Dutch East Indies,	692,196	86,619	396,934	483,553
Dutch West Indies,	582,284	282,042	70,975	353,017
Dutch Guiana,	49,008	58,863	2,803	61,666
Belgium,	465,701	541,641	66,269	607,910
England,	64,863,716	54,615,327	3,953,108	58,568,435
Scotland,	950,183	1,025,832	1,256	1,027,088
Ireland,	150,689	330,719		330,719
Gibraltar,	99,178	902,247	148,387	1,050,634
Malta,	24,943	65,870	34,126	99,996
Mauritius,		30,466	1,500	31,966
Cape of Good Hope,	43,059	88,379	5,020	93,399
British East Indies,	2,135,152	246,845	337,597	584,442
British West Indies,	941,699	2,472,833	90,642	2,563,475
British Guiana,	14,215	34,906	218	35,124
British Honduras,	164,027	181,861	29,339	211,200
British North American colonies,	2,155,146	3,418,770	144,684	3,563,454
Australia,	58,344	6,790		6,790
Other British colonies,			2,360	2,360
France on the Atlantic,	30,918,450	14,919,848	2,088,655	17,008,503
France on the Mediterranean,	1,612,871	1,046,260	176,186	1,222,446
French West Indies,	702,798	585,916	105,905	691,821
French Guiana,		1,643		1,643
Spain on the Atlantic,	263,193	316,144	32,014	348,158
Spain on the Mediterranean,	1,597,978	209,724	19,000	228,724
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	196,755	15,572	11,939	27,511
Manilla and Philippine islands,	876,477	98,553	38,255	136,808
Cuba,	12,599,843	5,025,626	1,091,205	6,116,831
Porto Rico,	3,742,549	779,049	87,348	866,397
Portugal,	587,778	59,711	6,093	65,804
Madeira,	539,800	64,082	15,016	79,128
Fayal and the other Azores,	15,222	9,130	4,739	13,869
Cape de Verd Islands,	39,523	77,138	8,415	85,553
Italy,	1,182,297	315,399	122,753	438,152
Sicily,	592,951	192,462	84,607	277,069
Sardinia,	1,348			
Trieste,	477,539	429,578	162,671	592,249
Turkey, Levant, &c.	629,190	83,320	266,054	349,374
Morocco and Barbary States,	96,493			
Hayti,	1,377,989	991,265	131,294	1,122,559
Texas,	318,116	1,379,065	308,017	1,687,082

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE U. STATES.—CONTINUED.

Countries.	*Value of Imports.*	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic produce.	*Foreign produce.*	*Total.*
Mexico,	$3,127,153	$816,660	$1,970,702	$2,787,362
Central Republic of America,	192,845	111,752	104,490	216,242
New Granada,	90,514	35,219	29,585	64,804
Venezuela,	1,982,702	413,245	272,736	685,981
Brazil,	5,292,955	2,133,997	503,488	2,637,485
Cisplatine Republic,	625,432	50,998	38,302	89,300
Argentine Republic,	525,114	233,593	142,470	376,063
Chili,	1,186,641	1,307,143	487,410	1,794,553
Peru,	242,813			
South America, generally,		23,618	27,257	50,875
China,	3,678,509	430,464	1,103,137	1,533,601
Europe, generally,		128,105		128,105
Asia, generally,	63,525	158,321	400,431	558,752
Africa, generally,	419,054	443,218	47,061	490,279
West Indies, generally,		457,968	33,060	491,028
South Seas,	318,143	85,938	39,750	125,688
Atlantic Ocean,				
Uncertain places,	11,944			
Total,	169,092,132	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416

NAVIGATION.

Table, exhibiting the tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th day of September, 1839, from official documents.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	*Cleared from the U. States.*	*Entered the U. States.*	*Cleared from the U. States.*
Russia,	15,423	8,540	2,011	358
Prussia,	283	816	316	1,234
Sweden and Norway,	9,661	797	13,711	2,608
Swedish West Indies,	569	2,184		139
Denmark,	254	703	231	961
Danish West Indies,	23,798	33,563	1,624	3,607
Hanse Towns and ports of Germany,	10,721	4,892	37,741	29,998
Holland,	14,167	11,612	3,659	12,381
Dutch East Indies,	4,379	9,234		663
Dutch West Indies,	9,325	4,020	552	441
Dutch Guiana,	6,590	6,637		
Belgium,	5,849	2,211	1,692	3,782
England,	277,152	269,466	110,092	92,685
Scotland,	4,684	2,321	10,214	5,403
Ireland,	1,313	1,362	9,089	332
Gibraltar,	1,640	13,864	333	2,164
Malta,	914	1,869		
Mauritius,	419	924	533	533
Cape of Good Hope,	1,044	2,278		
British East Indies,	8,928	10,557		
British West Indies,	43,145	76,749	23,614	11,258
British Guiana,	1,085	4,392	5,950	278
British Honduras,	3,331	6,434	1,171	2,551
British North American colonies,	384,121	385,506	332,097	373,772

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE U. STATES.—CONTINUED.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	*Cleared from the U. States.*	*Entered the U. States.*	*Cleared from the U. States.*
Australia,	772	1,053		
Other British colonies,				
France on the Atlantic,	77,952	88,519	14,585	14,752
France on the Mediterranean,	7,039	9,256	7,798	3,651
French West Indies,	21,352	24,359	3,655	1,228
French Guiana,	2,843	2,305		
Spain on the Atlantic,	6,749	15,129	507	1,617
Spain on the Mediterranean,	16,472	5,637	6,112	2,038
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	3,576	1,192	744	
Manilla and Philippine islands,	7,413	1,674		
Cuba,	193,014	194,578	13,028	12,805
Porto Rico,	61,461	22,547	1,024	1,160
Portugal,	15,405	3,061	2,087	2,085
Madeira,	2,112	4,273		
Fayal and the other Azores,	814	819	102	
Cape de Verd islands,	337	3,836		
Italy,	4,253	2,100	1,016	1,835
Sicily,	13,707	2,233	3,780	2,298
Sardinia,				
Trieste,	4,480	3,069	760	2,874
Turkey, Levant, &c.	3,381	2,232	198	
Morocco and Barbary States,	447		371	
Hayti,	22,900	21,031	1,544	2,047
Texas,	38,844	48,503	995	1,008
Mexico,	17,409	17,816	4,723	5,620
Central Republic of America,	741	471		
New Granada,	2,186	1,262	1,723	1,367
Venezuela,	14,976	9,241	1,824	1,550
Brazil,	34,457	39,431	2,367	3,183
Cisplatine Republic,	7,341	8,536	570	262
Argentine Republic,	645	929		
Chili,	4,571	8,683		241
Peru,		1,019		
South America, generally,	1,612			
China,	7,392	6,419		
Europe, generally,		590		636
Asia, generally,	2,367	4,320	369	
Africa, generally,	5,538	5,870		1,036
West Indies, generally.,	374	16,279		3,398
South Seas,	55,951	38,339	302	
Atlantic Ocean,	1,601	107		
Uncertain places,		279		
Total,	1,491,279	1,477,928	624,814	611,839

LIQUORS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Table, showing the quantity of liquors imported into the United States from foreign countries in each of the last six commercial years, ending on the 30th of September.

	Spirits.	*Wines.*		*Spirits.*	*Wines.*
In 1839,	3,802,718	5,573,219	In 1836,	3,524,288	7,582,278
1838,	3,092,776	4,349,121	1835,	3,394,439	6,525,210
1837,	2,672,228	6,350,444	1834,	2,511,354	5,139,063

It appears from this statement, which we have derived from official documents, that the importation of spirits last year was larger than either of the preceding five years; and of wines rather above the average.

EXPORTS OF THE PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Summary statement of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of October, 1838, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1839.

THE SEA.	
Fisheries—	
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,	$709,218
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,)	141,320
Whale and other fish oil,	515,484
Spermaceti oil,	85,015
Whalebone,	288,790
Spermaceti candles,	178,142
	$1,917,969
THE FOREST.	
Skins and furs,	$732,087
Ginseng,	118,904
Products of wood—	
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,	2,270,603
Other lumber,	327,687
Masts and spars,	37,122
Oak bark, and other dye,	309,696
All manufactures of wood,	659,291
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,	688,800
Ashes, pot and pearl,	620,369
	$5,764,559
AGRICULTURE.	
Product of Animals—	
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,	$371,646
Butter and cheese,	127,550
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,	1,777,230
Horses and mules,	291,625
Sheep,	15,960
Vegetable food—	
Wheat,	144,191
Flour,	6,925,170
Indian corn,	141,095
Indian meal,	658,421
Rye meal,	145,448
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,	72,050
Biscuit, or ship-bread,	349,871
Potatoes,	57,536
Apples,	50,875
Rice,	2,460,198
Tobacco,	9,832,943
Cotton,	61,238,982
All other agricultural products—	
Flaxseed,	161,896
Hops,	72,425
Brown sugar,	28,722
	$84,923,834
MANUFACTURES.	
Soap, and tallow candles,	$453,471
Leather, boots and shoes,	173,859
Household furniture,	361,840
Coaches, and other carriages,	52,950
Hats,	123,165
Saddlery,	42,743

Wax,	68,961
Spirits from grain, beer, ale, and porter,	142,085
Snuff and tobacco,	616,212
Lead,	6,003
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine,	78,757
Cordage,	25,899
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,	134,588
Castings,	61,100
All manufactures of,	748,862
Spirits from molasses,	183,446
Sugar, refined,	521,117
Chocolate,	4,039
Gunpowder,	197,162
Copper and brass,	81,334
Medicinal drugs,	97,418
Cotton, piece-goods—	
Printed and colored,	412,661
White,	2,525,301
Nankeens,	1,492
Twist, yarn, and thread,	17,465
All manufactures of,	18,114
Flax and hemp—	
Cloth and thread,	2,010
Bags, and all manufactures of,	2,047
Wearing apparel,	167,957
Combs and buttons,	37,966
Brushes,	4,186
Billiard-tables and apparatus,	2,504
Umbrellas and parasols,	11,618
Leather and Morocco skins, not sold per pound,	12,952
Printing-presses and type,	33,231
Fire-engines and apparatus,	2,036
Musical instruments,	7,413
Books and maps,	32,854
Paper, and other stationery,	80,149
Paints and varnish,	41,450
Vinegar,	3,745
Earthen and stone ware,	11,645
Manufactures of glass,	43,448
Tin,	19,981
Pewter and lead,	12,637
Marble and stone,	7,661
Gold and silver, and gold leaf,	5,264
Gold and silver coin,	1,908,358
Artificial flowers and jewellery,	3,402
Molasses,	3,438
Trunks,	1,965
Brick and lime,	16,298
Domestic salt,	64,272
Articles not enumerated—	
Manufactured,	542,909
Other articles,	694,089
	$10,927,529
Total of the sea, the forest, agriculture, and manufactures,	$103,533,891

TOBACCO TRADE OF VIRGINIA.

From the returns of Inspections of Tobacco in Virginia for the year ending August 31st, 1840, it appears that the whole amount in hogsheads was 52,633, at the following places, viz: Richmond, 19,590; Petersburgh, 13,490; Lynchburg, 12,519; Farmville, 4,464; Clarksville, 2,600; additional, conjectured, 1,875—which would make the sum total 54,508.

NAVIGATION.

A Table exhibiting the number, tonnage, crews, and national character of the foreign vessels that entered into, and cleared from, the United States, during the year ending on the 30th September, 1839, from official documents.

Flag.	FOREIGN.							
	ENTERED.				CLEARED.			
	No.	*Tons.*	*Crews.*		*No.*	*Tons.*	*Crews.*	
			Men.	*Boys.*			*Men.*	*Boys.*
British,	3,534	495,353	27,746	751	3,500	491,485	28,169	427
French,	94	22,686	1,184	14	92	21,680	1,148	20
Spanish,	102	16,501	1,089	7	90	13,753	964	6
Swedish,	64	17,725	742	14	66	18,787	790	10
Danish,	28	5,053	283	6	28	4,759	277	4
Dutch,	19	3,384	177	4	17	3,231	167	2
Hanseatic,	139	41,139	1,854	17	132	38,067	1,759	16
Portuguese,	7	1,059	64	3	6	868	62	2
Russian,	8	2,788	119		3	1,294	51	
Prussian,	8	2,204	88	4	5	1,213	50	2
Sicilian,	17	3,638	197	8	18	4,000	226	
Genoese,	2	340	24		1	219	12	
Sardinian,	3	524	38	1	1	188	12	
Neapolitan,	2	461	20		2	455	22	
Tuscan,	2	748	32		2	748	32	
Austrian,	5	1,662	63		7	2,573	99	
Belgian,	5	1,145	52	3	5	1,145	51	2
Norwegian,	3	739	36		2	383	19	
Brazilian,	3	436	28		1	140	12	
Mexican,	17	1,462	143		16	1,300	140	
Texan,	18	995	94		16	844	78	
New Granadian,	5	928	12		5	922	46	
Colombian,	6	1,142	54	2	4	800	39	1
Venezuelan,	3	455	28		7	1,074	69	
Haytien,	6	1,004	42		6	961	53	1
Unregistered,	5	1,243	68		4	950	41	
Total,	4,105	624,814	34,277	834	4,036	611,839	34,388	493

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Tonnage of the several States and Territories on the 30th of September, 1839.

Tons and 95ths.		*Tons and 95ths.*		*Tons and 95ths.*	
Maine,	282,285.37	Pennsylvania,	112,359.17	Louisiana,	109,076.36
N. Hampshire,	29,224.07	Delaware,	19,203.19	Tennessee,	4,240.94
Vermont,	4,232.37	Maryland,	116,203.87	Kentucky,	8,125.87
Massachusetts,	526,364.21	Virginia,	51,808.39	Ohio,	23,925.55
R. Island,	44,572.16	N. Carolina,	40,841.45	Michigan,	10,999.59
Connecticut,	83,014.34	S. Carolina,	33,414.21	Missouri,	9,735.00
New York,	468,593.58	Georgia,	20,942.83	D. of Columbia,	23,142.26
New Jersey,	62,540.87	Alabama,	21,742.00	Florida,	8,672.68

Total United States Tonnage in 1815, 1,368,127.78; in 1820, 1,280,166.24; in 1825, 1,423,110.77; in 1830, 1,191,776.43; in 1835, 1,824,940.14; in 1839, 2,096,478.81.

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Tonnage of the six largest Districts.

New York,	430,300.88	Philadelphia,	96,862.09
Boston,	203,615.82	New Bedford,	86,524.75
New Orleans,	109,076.36	Baltimore,	71,533.14

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF EACH STATE.

Imports and exports of each State and Territory, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1839.

States and Territories.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
	In American vessels.	*In foreign vessels.*	*Total.*	*Domestic produce.*	*Foreign produce.*	*Total.*
Maine,.....	$839,336	$143,388	$982,724	$878,434	$17,051	$895,485
N. Hampshire,	50,665	742	51,407	74,914	7,030	81,944
Vermont,.....	413,513		413,513	193,886		193,886
Massachusetts,	18,622,681	762,542	19,385,223	5,526,455	3,749,630	9,276,085
R. Island,.....	610,431	1,626	612,057	175,808	9,426	185,234
Connecticut,...	442,847	3,344	446,191	583,226		583,226
New York,.....	88,360,867	11,521,571	99,882,438	23,296,995	9,971,104	33,268,099
New Jersey,....	3,782	400	4,182	78,434	19,645	98,079
Pennsylvania,.	14,023,150	1,027,565	15,050,715	4,148,211	1,151,204	5,299,415
Delaware,.....				8,680		8,680
Maryland,.....	6,079,985	915,300	6,995,285	4,313,189	263,372	4,576,561
D. of Columbia	105,921	26,590	132,511	497,965	5,752	503,717
Virginia,.....	828,300	85,162	913,462	5,183,424	3,772	5,187,196
N. Carolina,....	217,304	11,929	229,233	426,934	992	427,926
S. Carolina,....	2,210,635	875,442	3,086,077	10,318,822	66,604	10,385,426
Georgia,.....	293,745	120,242	413,987	5,970,443		5,970,443
Alabama,.....	614,849	280,352	895,201	10,338,159		10,338,159
Mississippi,....						
Louisiana,.....	9,723,230	2,341,712	12,064,942	30,995,936	2,185,231	33,181,167
Ohio,.....	14,309	4,971	19,280	95,854		95,854
Kentucky,.....	10,480		10,480	3,723		3,723
Tennessee,.....	146		146			
Michigan,.....	174,169	2,052	176,221	133,305		133,305
Florida,.....	186,943	92,950	279,893	291,094	43,712	334,806
Missouri,.....	46,964		46,964			
Total,.....	143,874,252	18,217,880	162,092,132	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416

STATISTICS OF CALICO PRINTING.

Cotton goods printed in the United States, number of factories, yards, and value.

States.	*Factories.*	*Yds. per an.*	*Av. value.*	*Tot. value.*
New Hampshire,.....	2	5,546,667	13 cts.	$721,066
Massachusetts,.....	10	38,162,667	"	4,831,146
Rhode Island,.....	9	26,624,000	"	3,461,220
New York,.....	7	12,202,667	9 cts.	1,098,240
New Jersey,.....	2	6,101,334	"	549,120
Pennsylvania,.....	4	8,874,667	"	798,720
Maryland,.....	2	2,600,000	8 cts.	208,000
	36	100,112,002		$11,667,512

There are no print works in any of the other states.

STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

We are enabled, by the politeness of Mr. Samuel E. Moore, a respectable merchant of New Orleans, to present our readers at this time, a view of the commerce of that great commercial mart—a city which has sprung up in the southwest with a population of 102,000, now in power and importance the third, perhaps, in the United States. The scope of our magazine will enable us from time to time to exhibit the commercial growth of our most prominent cities, both at the east and the west, the north and the

south, for our objects are not sectional or local, but identified with the productive industry and commercial resources of our broad national domain. The circumstances connected with the advance of the different cities and sections of the country are so peculiar, and in some respects, distinct, that an account of these circumstances must be regarded with great interest by those who are far removed from their operation. The city of New Orleans should be a matter of national pride, as it is the offspring of our free institutions, standing as it does at the outlet of that giant stream, the Mississippi, which waters the richest valley upon the earth for thousands of miles, and must be in coming time, as it now is, the grand channel of western commerce.

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COTTON.

1. *Table, exhibiting the Exports of Cotton from the Port of New Orleans, for the last ten years,* (1830 to 1840,) *commencing on the* 1st *of October and ending the* 30*th of September.*

Whither Exported.	*Bales of Cotton.*									
	1839–40.	1838–39.	1837–38.	1836–37.	1835–36.	1834–35.	1833–34.	1832–33.	1831–32.	1830–31.
Liverpool,	463262	297774	465183	333832	227017	245101	273113	216559	193367	204132
London,	113	6	123	41	281	45	244	336	.....	66
Glasgow and Greenock,	26603	7390	16147	17077	7991	12601	13950	8096	6227	14821
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,	13575	2459	48	2966	1237	156	1160	676	3771	802
Cork, Belfast, &c.,	4549	2139	.....	1180	.....	1220	702	.....	.....	3553
Havre,	206276	112779	110609	112410	106867	126505	88414	73030	63462	47446
Bordeaux,	6581	1348	4407	6100	4137	2765	2650	1541	1826	1045
Marseilles,	21953	6255	7285	9110	16205	7585	6348	5119	10030	7895
Nantz,	5609	2070	5527	5268	6672	5017	3841	2612	2820	4104
Cette and Rouen,	80	.....	.....	753	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	370
Amsterdam,	4397	49	932	202	2130	238	754	50	392	226
Rotterdam and Ghent,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	359	.....	70	.....
Bremen,	1084	27	656	123	3039	398	2495	926	1026	401
Antwerp, &c.	7377	.....	1598	2782	5348	1122	153	.....	370	.....
Hamburg,	6912	310	3149	2538	4330	1863	5059	1176	1870	2049
Gottenburg,	2994	947	343	553	1025	747	.....	1186	695	235
Spain and Gibraltar,	1508	1225	4713	4300	1323	1316	1384	1615	4562	602
West Indies,	30128	4259	2641	2050	512	14	.....	75	.....	4
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,	25652	3556	7174	7875	10239	5588	.....	.....	1190	1794
Other foreign ports,	1044	113	902	233	2117	.....	922	.....	.....	53
New York,	47941	62691	39352	24734	29604	50978	15938	31497	24955	55737
Boston,	54367	49242	40271	38409	37084	42928	25947	28868	25078	36327
Providence, Rhode Island,	1474	4038	1607	1177	3204	5223	3064	13651	4611	20709
Philadelphia,	6482	6150	8526	6022	7428	7918	3368	7239	4607	10607
Baltimore,	3111	3450	6148	2978	1128	989	1701	4743	1614	5750
Portsmouth,	5099	5369	4819	8044	11989	8707	8209	4760	3343	5593
Other coastwise ports,	4563	6189	4662	3781	2098	5741	2478	3465	520	363
Western States,	1457	982	364	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total,	954191	580817	737186	594538	493005	534765	462253	407220	356406	424684

RECAPITULATION OF COTTON.

Whither Exported.	Bales of Cotton.									
	1839–40.	1838–39.	1837–38.	1836–37.	1835–36.	1834–35.	1833–34.	1832–33.	1831–32.	1830–31.
Gt. Britain,	508102	309768	481501	355096	236526	259123	289169	225667	203365	223374
France,	240499	122452	127828	133641	133881	141872	101253	82302	78138	60913
N. of Europe	23808	1446	7580	6431	17989	4368	9742	3338	4423	2911
S. of Europe	57288	9040	14528	14225	12074	6918	1384	1690	5752	2400
Coastwise,	124494	138111	105749	85145	92535	122484	60705	94223	64728	135086
Total,...	954191	580817	737186	594538	493005	534765	462253	407220	356406	424684

TOBACCO.

2. *Table, exhibiting the Exports of Tobacco from the Port of New Orleans, for the last ten years, (1830 to 1840,) commencing on the 1st of October and ending the 30th of September.*

Whither Exported.	Hogsheads of Tobacco.									
	1839–40.	1838–39.	1837–38.	1836–37.	1835–36.	1834–34.	1833–34.	1832–33.	1831–32.	1830–31.
Liverpool,.....	819	3,937	2,757	2,003	3,059	2,006	1,913	1,189	1,490	2,631
London,.....	.....	3,725	3,579	1,609	6,647	2,953	1,348	1,422	346	637
Glasgow and Greenock,	.....	37	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c,	973	871	3,695	5,492	5,786	1,379	4,851	2,264	6,612	2,863
Cork, Belfast, &c,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Havre,.....	325	1,455	2,858	2,386	445	333	168	20	506	58
Bordeaux,.....	119	.....	504	320	654	10	.....	10	70	200
Marseilles,.....	7	100	1,781	699	38	1,107	138	.....	.....	.....
Nantz,.....	.....	.....	.....	312	61	10	.....	5	.....	.....
Cette and Rouen,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Amsterdam,.....	1,029	224	.....	1,254	674	32	.....	187	889	699
Rotterdam and Ghent,	681	.....	.....	.....	299	.....	.....	.....	426	289
Bremen,.....	3,024	1,251	2,035	3,320	1,287	2,457	2,347	2,129	3,265	2,364
Antwerp, &c.,.....	6	.....	.....	713	1,011	.....	909	492	380	.....
Hamburg,.....	95	.....	206	674	852	704	635	636	1,431	1,238
Gottenburg,.....	326	939	576	342	1,545	1,069	632	876	757	225
Spain and Gibraltar,...	5,597	3,024	1,982	1,282	760	902	745	323	920	1,834
West Indies,.....	1,047	636	791	1,327	826	872	536	82	375	417
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,..	.....	598	563	.....	394	.....	174	19	101	.....
Other foreign ports,...	.....	315	186	612	274	188	87	.....	5	273
New York,.....	7,185	7,846	10,072	4,207	9,516	11,271	4,665	6,816	7,863	13,099
Boston,.....	3,219	2,816	2,599	3,510	2,894	4,847	2,400	3,037	2,602	3,970
Providence, R. I.,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.....
Philadelphia,.....	2,764	1,335	1,652	1,346	2,167	3,026	992	1,518	2,968	2,193
Baltimore,.....	520	296	664	647	775	513	19	217	418	882
Portsmouth,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	42
Other coastwise ports,.	292	225	576	670	3,977	685	2,372	2,459	1,540	1,054
Total,...	28,028	29,630	37,076	32,725	43,941	34,365	24,931	23,701	32,974	34,968

RECAPITULATION OF TOBACCO.

Whither Exported.	*Hogsheads of Tobacco.*									
	1839–40.	1838–38.	1837–38.	1836–37.	1835–36.	1834–35.	1833–34.	1832–33.	1831–32.	1830–31.
Great Britain,	1,792	8,570	10,031	9,104	15,492	6,338	8,113	4,875	8,448	6,131
France,	451	1,555	5,143	3,717	1,198	1,460	306	35	576	258
N. of Europe,	5,161	2,539	2,973	6,344	5,942	4,262	4,610	4,320	7,157	4,815
S. of Europe,	6,644	4,448	3,366	3,180	1,980	1,962	1,455	424	1,401	2,524
Coastwise,	13,980	12,518	15,563	10,380	19,329	20,343	10,448	14,047	15,392	21,240
Total,...	28,028	29,630	37,076	32,725	43,941	34,365	24,931	23,701	32,974	34,968

3. *Table, exhibiting the Exports of Sugar from New Orleans for the last five years,* (1835 to 1840,) *up the river excepted, from 1st October to 30th September, in each year.*

Whither Exported.	1839–40.		1838–39.		1837–38.		1836–37.		1835–36.	
	Hhds.	*Bbls*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls*
New York,.....	18893	598	9913	229	10966	75	11626	53	126	13
Philadelphia,.....	8629	134	4714	126	5425		5257	19	122	71
Charleston, S. C.....	1583	88	1535	97	1573		1774	171	1066	149
Savannah,.....	722		670	30	404	81	450		90	
Providence & Bristol, R.I.	20	12	3	3	29					
Boston, ...	951	327	1612	131	345		825	36	49	
Baltimore,.....	8192	325	5914	396	4418		4888	120		
Norfolk,.....	819	553	659	5	188		539		3	
Richm'd & Petersburg, Va	1923	179	1215	19	844	110	876			
Alexandria, D. C.....	372		137		59	15				
Mobile,.....	2194	315	1836	140	1229	234	1047	157	3997	513
Apalachicola & Pensacola,	944	1567	460	661	386	1219	229	1034	172	1453
Other ports,.....	269	1880	475	1174	232	1928	70	679	52	939
Total,.....	45511	5978	29143	3011	26098	3662	27581	2269	5677	3138

4. *Table, exhibiting the Exports of Molasses from New Orleans for the last five years,* (1835 to 1840,) *up the river excepted, from 1st October to 30th September, in each year.*

Whither Exported.	1839–40.		1838–39.		1837–38.		1836–37.		1835–36.	
	Hhds.	*Bbls.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls*
New York,.....	3511	15179	7584	3884	4827	8012	5176	8846	721	1693
Philadelphia,.....	962	3321	173	692	782	786	337	403		935
Charleston, S. C.....		2844	863	2844	591	3596	246	3325		326
Savannah,.....	117	1309	182	1174		1322		2887		237
Providence & Bristol,	99	251	273	696	383	162	52	155		
Boston,.....	811	4463	456	328	227	1826		727		
Baltimore,.....	1267	6042	1734	3552	1216	3553	281	3431		314
Norfolk,.....	50	971		391		770		579	128	27
Rich'd & Petersburg,.	89	1694	231	765	236	1600	8	1670		202
Alexandria, D. C.....		98		399	257	108		368		
Mobile,.....	38	3867		2609		2018		3087		3831
Apalach. & Pensacola,	51	1699	232	1553	15	906	3	1304	16	1341
Other ports,.....	850	824	1387	1528	1610	2474	223	1542	147	383
Total,.....	8937	42926	13115	20415	10144	27133	6326	28324	1012	9289

BANK STATISTICS.

SUSPENSION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS BY BANKS IN 1839.

On the 9th of October, 1839, the United States Bank of Pennsylvania commenced a suspension of specie payments; and in this it was soon followed by most of the banks south and west of the state of New York, and also by those of Rhode Island.

The following table, which is extracted from a letter of the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, dated January 8, 1840, contains a statement of the number of banks in the several states, the number that suspended, the number that had not suspended, &c., so far as had been ascertained.

Table of Bank Suspension.

States and Territories.	*Whole No. of banks.*	*Number of banks which suspended entirely in 1839.*	*Number of banks which suspended in part.*	*Number of banks which did not suspend*	*Number of banks which are broken or discontinued.*	*Number of banks which have resumed specie payments.*
Maine,	58	3		54	1	1
New Hampshire,	28		1	27		
Vermont,	21			18	3	
Massachusetts,	134			121	13	
Rhode Island,	63	63				21
Connecticut,	36			35	1	
New York,	198	4		190	4	
New Jersey,	32	17	8	5	*2	†3
Pennsylvania,	70	49	4	4	13	
Delaware,	9	9				
Maryland,	34	30			4	1
District of Columbia,	6	5	1			
Virginia,	25	20	1	4		1
North Carolina,	10	9	1			
South Carolina,	14	6	8			
Georgia,	40	18	18		4	
Alabama,	8	2		5	1	
Louisiana,	19	19				
Mississippi,	29	17		11	1	2
Tennessee,	21	21				
Kentucky,	6	5		1		
Ohio,	43	15	5	16	7	5
Indiana,	14		14			14
Illinois,	7	2		5		
Missouri,	1			1		
Michigan,	17	15			2	
Arkansas,	2	2				
Territories.						
Florida,	9	8	1			
Wisconsin,	5	4		1		
Total, including branches,	959	343	62	498	56	48
Number of branches,	109					
Total, without branches,	850					

* One not in operation, and one broken, &c. † Two partially, and one wholly.

PARIS SAVINGS BANKS.—The deposits in the Paris savings banks on the 20th and 21st September, amounted to 412,652f., and the sums withdrawn to 1,178,000f. The amount withdrawn consequently exceeded the amount deposited by 765,000f.

INCREASE OF BANKING IN THE UNITED STATES.

A Table, exhibiting the increase of Banks and Banking Capital in the United States, from 1820 *to* 1830, *and from* 1830 *to* 1837.

States and Territories.	Jan. 1st, 1820.		Jan 1st, 1830.		Jan. 1st, 1837.	
	No. of Bks.	*Capital authorized.*	*No. of Bks.*	*Capital authorized.*	*No. of Bks.*	*Capital authorized.*
Maine,	15	1,654,900	18	2,050,000	59	5,535,000
New Hampshire,	10	1,005,276	18	1,791,670	23	2,663,308
Vermont,	1	44,955	10	432,625	20	2,200,000
Massachusetts,	28	10,485,700	66	20,320,000	138	40,830,000
Rhode Island,	30	2,982,026	47	6,118,397	64	9,100,581
Connecticut,	8	3,689,337	13	4,485,177	31	8,519,308
New York,	33	18,988,774	37	20,083,353	98	37,303,400
Pennsylvania,	36	14,681,780	33	14,610,333	50	59,658,482
New Jersey,	14	2,130,949	18	2,017,009	26	7,575,000
Delaware,	6	974,900	5	830,000	4	1,197,175
Maryland,	14	6,708,131	13	6,250,495	28	29,175,000
District of Columbia,	13	5,525,319	9	3,875,794	7	3,500,000
Virginia,	4	5,212,192	4	5,571,100	4	6,711,300
North Carolina,	3	2,964,887	3	3,195,000	3	2,600,000
South Carolina,	5	4,475,000	5	4,631,000	8	10,358,318
Georgia,	4	3,401,510	9	4,203,029	14	8,209,967
Florida,			1	75,000	9	9,800,000
Alabama,	3	469,112	2	643,503	3	14,458,969
Louisiana,	4	2,597,420	4	5,665,980	15	54,000,000
Mississippi,	1	900,900	1	950,000	11	21,400,000
Tennessee,	8	2,119,782	1	737,817	3	5,600,000
Kentucky,	42	8,807,331			4	9,264,640
Illinois,	2	140,910			2	2,800,000
Indiana,	2	202,857			1	1,980,000
Arkansas,					2	3,500,000
Ohio,	20	2,797,469	11	1,454,386	32	12,900,000
Michigan,			1	100,000	17	7,500,000
	307	102,210,611	329	110,192,268	677	378,320,268

Increase of banks from 1820 to 1830, 22. Increase of capital, $7,981,657.
Increase of banks from 1830 to 1837, 347. Increase of capital, $268,128,000.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

1. *Quarterly average of the weekly liabilities and assets of the Bank of England, from the* 23*d of June to the* 17*th of September,* 1840, *both inclusive.*

LIABILITIES.		ASSETS.	
Circulation,	£17,263,000	Securities,	£23,407,000
Deposits,	7,675,000	Bullion,	4,453,000
	£24,938,000		£27,860,000

2. *Deposits of the London Bankers in the Bank of England in the first fourteen weeks of the three years* 1838, 1839, *and* 1840, *and their several weekly averages.*

	1838.	1839.	1840.
	£26,294,000	£11,422,000	£10,719,000
Weekly average,	1,878,143	815,857	765,643

3. *Deposits of the Bank of Ireland and Royal Bank of Scotland in the first fourteen weeks of the three years,* 1838, 1839, *and* 1840, *with their several weekly averages.*

	1838.	1839.	1840.
	£1,742,000	£1,795,000	£1,049,000
Weekly average,	124,428	128,214	74,928

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AND TREATIES.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION,

BETWEEN HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA, AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia; and the United States of America, equally animated with the desire of maintaining the relations of good understanding which have hitherto so happily subsisted between their respective states, of extending, also, and consolidating the commercial intercourse between them, and convinced that this object cannot better be accomplished than by adopting the system for an entire freedom of navigation, and a perfect reciprocity, based upon principles of equity equally beneficial to both countries, have, in consequence, agreed to enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation; for which purpose His Majesty the Emperor of Austria has conferred full powers on Lewis Baron de Lederer, His said Majesty's Consul for the port of New York; and the President of the United States has conferred like powers on Martin Van Buren, their Secretary of State; and the said Plenipotentiaries having exchanged their said full powers, found in good and due form, have concluded and signed the following articles:

I. There shall be between the territories of the high contracting parties a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation. The inhabitants of their respective States shall mutually have liberty to enter the ports, places, and rivers, of the territories of each party, wherever foreign commerce is permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories, in order to attend to their commercial affairs; and they shall enjoy, to that effect, the same security, protection, and privileges, as natives of the country wherein they reside, on condition of their submitting to the laws and ordinances there prevailing.

II. Austrian vessels arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the United States of America; and reciprocally, vessels of the United States arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the dominions of Austria, shall be treated, on their entrance, during their stay, and at their departure, upon the same footing as national vessels coming from the same place, with respect to the duties of tonnage, lighthouses, pilotage, and port charges, as well as to the fees and perquisites of public officers; and all other duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishment whatsoever.

III. All kinds of merchandise and articles of commerce, either the produce of the soil, or the industry of the United States of America, or of any other country, which may be lawfully imported into the ports of the dominions of Austria, in Austrian vessels, may also be so imported in vessels of the United States of America, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishment whatsoever, than if the same merchandise or produce had been imported in Austrian vessels; and reciprocally, all kind of merchandise and articles of commerce, either the produce of the soil or of the industry of the dominions of Austria, or of any other country which may be lawfully imported into the ports of the United States, in vessels of the said States, may also be so imported in Austrian vessels, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishment whatsoever, than if the same merchandise or produce had been imported in vessels of the United States of America.

IV. To prevent the possibility of any misunderstanding, it is hereby declared, that the stipulations contained in the two preceding articles are, to their full extent, applicable to Austrian vessels and their cargoes, arriving in the ports of the United States of America; and, reciprocally, to vessels of the said States and their cargoes, arriving in the ports of the dominions of Austria, whether the said vessels clear directly from the ports of the country to which they respectively belong, or from the ports of any other foreign country.

V. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States, of any article, the produce or manufacture of the dominions of Austria; and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the dominions of Austria, of any article, the produce or manufacture of the United States, than are, or shall be payable on the like article, being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the importation or exportation of any article, the produce or manufacture of the United States, or of the dominions of Austria, to or from the ports of the United States, or to or from the ports of the dominions of Austria, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

VI. All kinds of merchandise and articles of commerce, either the produce of the soil or of the industry of the United States of America, or of any other country, which may be lawfully exported or re-exported from the ports of the said United States, in national vessels, may also be exported or re-exported therefrom in Austrian vessels, without paying other or higher duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever, than if the same merchandise or produce had been exported or re-exported in vessels of the United States of America.

An exact reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the dominions of Austria, so that all kinds of merchandise and articles of commerce, either the produce of the soil or of the industry of the said dominions of Austria, or of any other country, which may be lawfully exported or re-exported from Austrian ports in national vessels, may also be exported or re-exported therefrom in vessels of the United States of America, without paying other or higher duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever, than if the same merchandise or produce had been exported or re-exported in Austrian vessels.

And the same bounties and drawbacks shall be allowed, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in vessels of the one party or of the other.

VII. It is expressly understood and agreed that the coastwise navigation of both the contracting parties is altogether excepted from the operation of this treaty, and of every article thereof.

VIII. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by either of the contracting parties, nor by any company, corporation or agent, acting on their behalf, or under their authority, in the purchase of any article of commerce, lawfully imported, on account of, or in reference to, the character of the vessel, whether it be of the one party or of the other, in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

IX. If either party shall hereafter grant to any other nation any particular favor in navigation or commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party, freely where it is freely granted to such other nation, or on yielding the same compensation, when the grant is conditional.

X. The two contracting parties hereby reciprocally grant to each other the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, Consuls, Vice Consuls, Agents, and Commissa-

ries, of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers as those of the most favored nations. But if any such consuls shall exercise commerce, they shall be subjected to the same laws and usages to which the private individuals of their nation are subject in the same place, in respect of their commercial transactions.

XI. The citizens or subjects of each party shall have power to dispose of their personal goods, within the jurisdiction of the other, by testament, donation, or otherwise; and their representatives, being citizens or subjects of the other party, shall succeed to their personal goods, whether by testament, or *ab intestato*, and may take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, and dispose of the same at their will, paying such dues, taxes, or charges, only, as the inhabitants of the country wherein the said goods are, shall be subject to pay in like cases. And in case of the absence of the representative, such care shall be taken of the said goods as would be taken of the goods of a native in like case, until the lawful owner may take measures for receiving them. And if any question should arise among several claimants, to which of them said goods belong, the same shall be decided finally by the laws and Judges of the land wherein the said goods are. But this article shall not derogate, in any manner, from the force of the laws already published, or hereafter to be published, by His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, to prevent the emigration of his subjects.

XII. The present treaty shall continue in force for ten years, counting from the day of the exchange of the ratification; and, if twelve months before the expiration of that period, neither of the high contracting parties shall have announced, by an official notification to the other, its intention to arrest the operation of said treaty, it shall remain binding for one year beyond that time and so on, until the expiration of the twelve months, which will follow a similar notification, whatever the time at which it may take place.

XIII. This treaty shall be approved and ratified by His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, and by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the City of Washington, within twelve months from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed this treaty, both in the English and German languages, declaring, however, that, it having been originally composed in the former, the English version is to decide the interpretation, should any difference in regard to it unfortunately arise.

Done in triplicate, at Washington, this twenty-seventh day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and twenty-nine.

[L. S.] L. BARON DE LEDERER.
[L. S.] M. VAN BUREN.

REGULATIONS RELATING TO WHALE SHIPS AT CALIFORNIA.

MANUEL JIMENO CASARIN, first member of the Legislation of California, and acting Governor of the same.

For the fulfilment of all parts of the law, regulated and intended, to prevent the disembarcation of persons who cannot present a passport or give security, particularly crews belonging to whale ships, I command the following articles to be most scrupulously attended to.

1st. That no individual belonging to a whale ship's crew, shall stay on shore after sunset, without previous permission having been granted, for a just cause, by the Justice of the Peace in this port.

2d. That for non-compliance with the foregoing article, any person, so offending, shall be fined twenty dollars, and in case of inability to pay the fine aforesaid to the Justice

of the Peace, he shall be imprisoned and remain under confinement all the time the vessel lays in this port.

3d. If any person belonging to a vessel's crew should desert and hide himself in the woods or farms, he shall be sought for, and on finding him, he shall be sentenced to the public works until such time as a vessel can be found to take him off the coast.

And that no person may allege ignorance as an excuse for having broken any of the foregoing articles, I desire that the commanders and the officers of all vessels in port, will instruct their crews to the foregoing effect.

Given in Monterey, the 16th August, 1839.

MANUEL JIMENO CASARIN.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

IMPORTATIONS OF SPERM WHALE OIL.

Samuel H. Jenks, Esq., the able and industrious editor of the Nantucket Enquirer, publishes in the columns of that paper monthly, a tabular view of the American whale fishery, comprehending alphabetical lists of all the ships and other square-rigged vessels engaged in that pursuit, from the various ports in the United States; the dates of the last advices received; the port, or other place on the globe, at which each vessel was known to be; and the quantity of oil, estimated in barrels, obtained by each respectively. We have compiled from this table an abstract of the amount of oil imported into the United States in the month of September, exhibiting the ports at which the vessels arrived; the number of ships, brigs, schooners, and other square-rigged vessels to each port; the number of barrels of sperm and whale oil, &c.

Port.	*Rig.*	*Barrels Sperm.*	*Barrels Whale*
To New Bedford,	5 ships,	5,700	2,300
" Edgartown,	1 ship,	700	2,200
" Nantucket,	1 ship, 1 schooner,	2,200	100
" Stonington,	1 ship,	600	2,000
" Fall River,	1 do.	340	1,560
" Salem,	1 do.	380	1,450
" Bristol,	1 brig,	160	.....
" Sagharbor,	1 ship,	200	1,700
" Provincetown,	3 brigs,	1,950	.....
" Hudson,	1 ship,	300	1,200
" New York,	1 ship,	250	2,950
	Total number of barrels,	12,580	13,760

Equal to 396,270 gallons sperm, and 433,440 gallons whale oil.

We propose to publish in a subsequent number of the Merchants' Magazine, a complete list of the names of all the vessels, their tonnage, the ports to which they belong, and the names of the managing owners.

AMERICAN FUR COMPANY.

We gave in the September number of the Merchants' Magazine an outline of the progress of the American fur trade in this country, as well as its general features in the northern part of our continent. It appears by the St. Louis (Missouri) Gazette, that the American Fur Company have, within the last year, erected a large and substantial building in that city, as a storehouse for their furs and peltries. The value of the furs and peltries obtained by the company in 1839–40, consisting of beaver, buffalo, otter, deer skins, &c., is stated at $250,000. Their operations have been very much circumscribed recently, on the west, by the Hudson Bay Company, who possess the great advantage of introducing the goods required for carrying on the trade free of duty.

About three years since, the American Fur Company underwent an expedition to the Rocky Mountains, and sustained a loss of sixty thousand dollars, from their inability to compete with the Hudson Bay Company, for the reason before stated. The branch of the latter company, in the Columbia, has obtained the present season one hundred packs of beaver, worth at least $40,000; two thirds of which has been taken on the territory claimed by the United States. With this competition, the American Company have found it necessary to confine their trade to the Missouri river and its tributaries, leaving the uncontrolled possessions of the Rocky Mountains and the Oregon territory to the English company.

The Hudson Bay Company now extend their trade on the west side of the mountains, even to within fifty days' travel from St. Louis. Many of the fur hunters, who were formerly in the employ of the Americans have found it necessary to apply for employment to the British company. This business is of too much importance to the productive industry of the country to be lost, and the protective arm of the nation should be extended to those engaged in it.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

COURSE OF LECTURES FOR 1840-41.

We are enabled to present to our readers a syllabus of the annual course of Lectures of the Mercantile Library Association of New York. From the interest of the topics selected, and the well-known character of many of the lecturers, it is believed that the series will afford a rich repast to the friends of this noble institution. The introductory address, by Philip Hone, Esq., one of its early friends, will, we understand, embrace an historical account of the rise and progress of the Association; and when we consider the importance to which it has already grown, and the intelligence and moral influence that it has exerted within the large circle embraced by our mercantile class, we cannot but believe that his efforts will unfold matter of uncommon practical value. Nor should we here omit to mention the obligations due from the Association to its officers. Mr. Augustus E. Silliman, the president, has been indefatigable in his exertions to promote the interests of the institution, aided by the pains-taking enterprise of the Board of Directors; and the Lecture Committee, with Mr. Morrison at its head, have exercised their best judgment in performing the duties within their own peculiar department. A valuable feature of the institution is, that it is designed to advance no sectarian or political objects, but that all its efforts are directed to elevate the standard of morals and mind in the great commercial mart of the country. In its spacious and elegant rooms and extensive library, the young men of the city of New York may find ample means of improving occupation, and even of amusement, without resorting to those haunts of dissipation which throng our large cities, whose only tendency is to destroy the constitution and to sink the man.

The annual course of lectures of the Mercantile Library Association will commence on Wednesday, November 17th.

The Introductory Lecture—By Philip Hone, Esq.

Two Lectures—On the Antiquities of America—By Hon. Gabriel Furman.

Three Lectures—On Anatomy, with the Anatomical Figure constructed by Dr. Auzoux, of Paris.—*Heart and Circulation of the Blood; Digestion; The Brain and Nervous System.*—By Dr. Gunning S. Bedford.

Two Lectures—On History, and the best way of studying it, with some select examples of its connection with English Poetry—By the Rev. Samuel H. Cox, D. D.

Two Lectures—On the Literature of the Age of Elizabeth—By Isaac S. Hone, Esq.

One Lecture—The Reign of Louis XIV.—By Theodore Sedgwick, Esq.

One Lecture—On the importance of a general diffusion of knowledge in the United States, and the means of its accomplishment—By Professor Daniel Haskell.

One Lecture—On the Progress and Influence of American Steam Navigation—By James H. Lanman, Esq.

Two Lectures—On the Formation of Opinions—By the Rev. Henry W. Bellows.

Two Lectures—On Mexico—On the Influence of Commerce upon Character—By J. L. Hopkins McCracken, Esq.

One Lecture—On the Commerce of the Ancients—By Benjamin D. Silliman, Esq.

One Lecture—The State Debts of the United States, with their Resources—By John Duer, Esq. (This lecture will be free.)

One Lecture—The Reformation; its natural causes, and its influence on civilization—By Matthew C. Patterson.

One Lecture—By the Hon. William Inglis.

One Lecture—An Essay upon the History and Character of the Aboriginal Inhabitants of North America—By J. Prescott Hall, Esq.

One Lecture—By the Rev. Edward Y. Higbee.

One Lecture—On the Merchants of the time of Elizabeth—By Thomas W. Tucker, Esq.

Two Lectures—On the Doctrine of Chances.—*Mathematical Formula; Life Annuities; Games of Hazard; Life Insurance, &c.*—By Samuel Ward, Esq.

DONATIONS TO THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association of New York, take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the following donations:

Of Books—from James F. Auchincloss; George G. King; and from Charles Hoyt, Esq., in three volumes, the "Galarie du Palais Royale, Gravée d'après les Tableaux des differentes ecoles qui la composem; avec un abrégé de la Vie les Peintrez, & une description historique de chaque tableau, par M. l'Abbé de Fontenai. Dediée Monseigneur le Duc d'Orleans, Premier Prince du Sang. Par J. Couché, graveur de son cabinet. A Paris: 1786." Also, an Oil Painting from the same gentleman.

To the Cabinet.—Of a case of Mineralogical Specimens, from George A. Sackett, Esq., of Sacketts Harbor, through A. G. Zabriskie. Of a box of Minerals, from C. Colden Hoffman. Of a specimen of Iron Ore from Dutchess county, N. Y., from E. C. Bramhall. Of a specimen of Green Marble from North Carolina, from John N. Brenners. Of a large collection of Shells, from George D. Baldwin. Of a Cannon Ball, a revolutionary relic, from J. G. Barker. Of a number of Shells, being a coin introduced into the Siamese Empire by foreigners, and current in that country, about seven hundred of which are equal to our penny; also, a small Silver Coin used in that country, together with an original Bust of Dr. Gall,—all from C. Colden Hoffman, Esq.

Of Statuary.—"The Graces," from A. E. Silliman; and a superb collossal statue of the Minerva Medica, from the National Academy of Design, accompanied by the following letter:—

To the President, Officers, and Members of the Mercantile Library Association:

Gentlemen,—We have been deputed by the Council of the National Academy of Design, to present to you, in behalf of the Academy, the statue of the *Minerva Medica.* The original statue from which it is a cast, is one of the celebrated collection of the Vatican. We request your acceptance of it as a slight but inadequate proof of the friendly feeling which exists in the Academy towards the Mercantile Library Association, a feeling engendered by years of harmonious intercourse beneath the same roof.

Wishing you, gentlemen, continued success in the career you have so well begun,

We remain,

With the highest consideration,

Your obedient servants,

Sam'l F. B. Morse, } *Committee of*
Thomas S. Cummings, } *the Council.*

National Academy Rooms, Broadway,
New York, Aug. 31st, 1840.